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TEACHERS IN ASIA PACIFIC:

STATUS AND RIGHTS

CAMBODIA
INDONESIA
MONGOLIA
PAKISTAN
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
SAMOA
SRI LANKA
UZBEKISTAN

TEACHERS IN ASIA PACIFIC:

STATUS AND RIGHTS

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Foreword

I**N A WORLD DEFINED BY** rapid change and development, where young people must be lifelong learners, much is expected and demanded of teachers. The role of teachers is changing such that teachers no longer simply transfer information to students, but rather have become facilitators of student learning and creators of productive classroom environments. To support teachers in their changing role and to enhance their rights and status, there is a need for consistent support for them, in the form of sound policy-making practice. This need is increasingly gaining the recognition that it so richly deserves.

Since more than half (56 per cent) of the 70 million teachers (primary and secondary) in the world's formal education system are from the Asia-Pacific region, it is imperative that we document how teachers in this region are regarded and supported. Accordingly, this report reviews the conditions that teachers are subject to within eight countries of the region. In particular, it examines current trends and policies affecting teachers' status vis-à-vis their emerging needs and challenges.

While the findings in this synthesis report do not necessarily represent the situation in each country of the region, it is hoped that the results and policy recommendations presented here provide insights that are valuable to governments in advancing the status of their teachers with the view of retaining them in the profession. As we are all cognizant of what quality education requires and of our respective roles and contribution in attaining it, I strongly encourage you to read this report and share its findings.



Gwang-Jo Kim

Director

UNESCO Bangkok

Executive summary

10 categories:

1. Entry requirements
2. Pre-service training
3. Recruitment and deployment
4. Workload
5. Professional development
6. Salaries
7. Retirement
8. Assessment
9. Unions
10. School leadership

IN JANUARY 1966, THE PARTICIPANTS of the Joint ILO-UNESCO Meeting of Experts on the Status of Teachers recognized that:

...if teaching is to be accorded a proper status, it follows that conditions appropriate to the preparation for professional practice and conditions necessary for the exercise of the professional responsibility must be established. It also follows that persons will not come forward in sufficient numbers to staff the schools in terms of high requirements unless social, economic and working conditions are made compatible with professional status (UNESCO, 1966, para 57).

Later that year, a special intergovernmental conference adopted the ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the status of teachers (ILO/UNESCO, 1966). Setting forth a comprehensive framework for teachers' rights and responsibilities, this document highlighted a number of factors that needed to be addressed if the status of teachers was to be elevated. These factors included: recruitment, salaries, social security, conditions for effective teaching and learning, terms of employment, career development, and participation in education decision-making. Nearly 50 years after their adoption, these recommendations continue to form an international benchmark from which to measure progress towards raising the status and upholding the rights of teachers across the globe.

In 2006, a regional seminar was held in Bangkok that focused on examining the status of teachers in the Asia-Pacific region. Subsequently, in 2014, UNESCO Bangkok proposed a study to review the current situation of teachers in the region. This report is the product of that 2014 proposal: a review that examines the status and rights of teachers in eight countries across five sub-regions within the Asia-Pacific:

- Central Asia – Uzbekistan
- East Asia – Mongolia and the Republic of Korea
- Pacific – Samoa
- South Asia – Pakistan and Sri Lanka
- South-East Asia – Cambodia and Indonesia

The research upon which this report is based was primarily desk-based, involving the collation and examination of a wide range of documents from a variety of sources within each of the eight countries. Data were collected on the basis of 10 categories relating to the status and rights of teachers as follows: entry requirements; pre-service training; recruitment and deployment; workload; professional development; salary; retirement; assessment; unions; school leadership; and involving teachers in decision-making processes.

There are tremendous differences between the eight countries in terms of their geographies, histories, political structures and economies. It would therefore stand to reason that these differences have helped to shape their systems of education and their experiences are not easily extrapolated to other countries. It is important to note, however, that these countries also share many similarities with regard to education. What clearly links each of these education systems together is the commitment that they share to improving the quality of education.

This report comes at a time when the quality of learning is increasingly at the forefront of

education policy discourse. This greater emphasis on quality was evident in the wording of the Incheon Declaration at the World Education Forum in May 2015, where participants called for 'equitable and inclusive quality education and lifelong learning for all by 2030'.



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Entry requirements

The entry requirements for teacher applicants vary widely from country to country and also for the levels of education (pre-school, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary). Typically, the entry requirements are lower for those wishing to teach in pre-schools compared to those planning to teach at higher educational levels. In most countries in this study, teaching candidates must hold a minimum of a Year 12 or equivalent school certificate regardless of the level at which they want to teach. In Uzbekistan and Samoa, however, a subject-specific bachelor's degree is required to teach at the secondary level, while in Cambodia a bachelor's degree plus an additional year of teacher training is required for those wishing to teach at the upper-secondary level.

Although all countries agree there is a real need to attract the 'best' candidates into teaching, the definition of such varies considerably. Cambodia and Pakistan, for example, appear to evaluate candidates based on academic qualifications, while for Uzbekistan the emphasis is on the necessary disposition, attitudes and desire to teach.

Pre-service training

In most countries, student teachers are required to undergo a four-year training programme regardless of the level at which they will teach. Indeed, of the eight nations examined in this study, only Cambodia and Sri Lanka required teachers to be trained for a shorter period. The eight countries share concerns regarding the effectiveness, relevance and flexibility of many of the pre-service programmes and the quality of teacher trainers, particularly how well they prepare student teachers for real classrooms. Each of the country case studies questioned the overly-theoretical nature of many pre-service training programmes.

Recruitment and deployment

The countries studied in this review follow varying processes and procedures in the recruitment and placement of teachers. In Pakistan, for example, there is an entry test and those with a 50 per cent or higher grade are invited for interviews by the district authorities. Cambodia follows

a dual-entry system whereby applicants with the highest scores have first choice of entering teacher training colleges and upon completion, the highest scoring graduates have first choice of schools for their assignments, leaving the weakest new teachers to be deployed to less-popular schools.

The results of the review suggest a 'disconnect' between the supply and demand of teachers in almost all of the countries. An oversupply of teachers was noted in Korea, Indonesia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka whereas in Samoa higher attrition rates, particularly among younger teachers, have compelled the government to rehire retirees.

The deployment of teachers to where they are most needed, particularly to match teachers to the needs of schools, is an issue in most of the countries reviewed. This is especially the case in rural and remote areas. Although some countries have an oversupply of teachers in urban centres, teacher shortages are common in rural areas.

While there is a balance between male and female teachers in some of the countries (e.g Indonesia and Mongolia), in this study, in other countries there is overrepresentation of males in senior leadership roles (e.g., Indonesia and Samoa) and female teachers outnumber male teachers (e.g Sri Lanka, Samoa and Uzbekistan), giving rise to a concern in these countries of the possible impact of a lack of role models in the education system for boys. Likewise, the lack of female principals may also lead to a lack of role models for girls.



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Workload

All eight countries face issues relating to teacher workloads and responsibilities, with variations generally reflecting teacher supply and shortages.

The number of hours teachers are contracted to teach varies from country to country. In several cases, teachers must work additional time, over and above the hours contracted, in order to fulfil all of the duties and responsibilities listed in their contracts. Class sizes also differ between countries, but in most countries they tend to be higher in urban centres and for certain subjects. Overall, each country faces challenges in trying to ensure more reasonable workloads for their teachers amidst considerations of the importance of administrative and other non-teaching duties.

Professional development

The professional development (PD) opportunities differ considerably between the countries but the countries share concerns regarding the relevance and effectiveness of the PD courses.

Sending teachers for short courses is a fairly standard practice following changes in the curriculum. Some countries have guidelines on the type of training newly-qualified teachers are required to undertake during the first year after entering the profession. For example, in Uzbekistan and Mongolia, teachers follow a clear programme of study throughout their careers. In Samoa and Cambodia, however, there are limited opportunities for teachers to engage in continuous professional development programmes. Where available, the providers of PD programmes are usually approved by the Ministry of Education, although the quantity, quality and relevance of these programmes vary considerably between countries. Nevertheless, in many countries the government commitment to PD is evident, as demonstrated in Uzbekistan and Korea by the recent increases in the budget allocations for PD.

Salary


Although teachers' pay has increased over the past decade in the countries examined in this review, in some cases dramatically, teachers' salaries remain low in some countries in comparison to the salaries of other professions. Incentives – rewards for consistent good practices or specific salary scales in alignment with teachers' career advancements – are widely acknowledged to be effective in helping to increase teachers' motivation. All of the countries agree that teachers' salaries should be increased, particularly to attract and retain better candidates to the profession, but what is considered to be an 'attractive' salary is still being debated.

Assessment

Each country has some form of system in place to measure teacher performance, but the frequency, focus, purpose and manner of administration of these systems differ. Assessment of teachers' performance is carried out for different purposes, which include salary increment, licensing, identification of PD needs and career progression. Most of the countries have concerns about the methods of assessment, whereby the criteria that are used are not related to the teachers' functions and responsibilities. In many cases the feedback teachers receive focuses on what teachers cannot do rather than on what they can do to improve their teaching practices.

Involving teachers in decision-making processes

The data compiled from the eight countries suggest that upholding the right of teachers to participate in policy-making through their representative organizations, whether that be through unions or teachers' professional associations, is far from standard. The notion of teachers joining a union is a sensitive issue in several countries. While most countries recognize the importance of giving space to teachers and their representatives, the form and degree of autonomy differ considerably depending on the country. While research shows a strong correlation between quality learning outcomes and the level of teacher efficacy and engagement in education policy setting, more work is needed to explore this aspect in depth.





Overview

SINCE THE LATE 1960s THERE has been a gradual change in how teachers are viewed, which has, naturally, been accompanied by shifts in policy (ILO and UNESCO, 1966; UNESCO, 2005). More than ever before, the roles and rights of teachers are now topics that are high on the global education agenda. Teachers' roles and rights were highlighted during the 1990 Education for All (EFA) discourse, then reaffirmed at the World Education Forum in Dakar (UNESCO, 2000), where it was recognized that 'no education reform is likely to succeed without the active participation and ownership of teachers' (para. IV.9.69). In 2005, UNESCO emphasized that unless countries have 'competent, motivated and performing teachers', the EFA goals would not be realized (UNESCO, 2005). Over the past decade, teachers have increasingly been recognized as the key factor in achieving the EFA goals (International Task Force on Teachers for Education for All, 2011). This was recently made evident in the foreword to the 2013/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2014a), in which Irina Bokova, the Director-General of UNESCO, pointed out that an education system is only as good as its teachers.

Although primary-school enrolment has expanded significantly since 2000, it is estimated that some 57 million children still remain out of school. Achieving universal primary education (UPE), a key EFA goal, requires having a sufficient number of teachers. Paradoxically, however, the push for UPE and the creation of new schools have exacerbated teacher shortages in many countries (UNESCO, 2014a). It is unlikely that UPE will be met unless governments place a greater priority on recruiting more teachers. It is estimated that some 1.6 million teachers are still needed worldwide (UNESCO, 2014a), although this figure is a substantial reduction from the 18 million needed in 2006 (UNESCO, 2006).

With the new goal of ensuring the provision of 12 years of education now being adopted by the international community as part of the 2030 education agenda and stated in the Incheon Declaration (UNESCO, 2015), demand for teachers is expected to increase. Likewise, the proposed Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4: 'Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all' (United Nations, 2015), indicates that greater emphasis will be placed on having adequate numbers of teachers.

The insufficient number of teachers is not the only issue that must be addressed, however. As the EFA goals demonstrated, it is not enough to ensure that all children are in school, it is important that they also receive education of good quality. Increasingly, the focus has shifted to what happens in the classroom and the degree to which students are actually learning. This has naturally led to an emphasis on teacher quality and effectiveness.

The 1966 ILO/UNESCO recommendations noted that 'advance in education depends largely on the qualifications and ability of the teaching staff in general and on the human, pedagogical and technical qualities of the individual' (p. 6). Indeed, teachers play a central role in delivering good quality education. Key literature on the topic presents teachers as the key actors (for example, Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012;



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Fredriksson, 2004; Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991; OECD, 2005; Sahlberg, 2011; Siniscalco, 2002; UNESCO, 2004). Teachers not only have a key role in raising the achievement levels of their students but also in adding value to the learning experience (Chetty et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2000, 2008).

While there is widespread agreement on the central role of teachers, opinions vary on how quality is defined and how it is assessed. Many accept aspects of the definition presented in the EFA 2005 Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2004), which characterizes quality in terms of the development of learners' cognitive abilities and other skills, as well as in the development of responsible citizens. Given that accurately measuring such characteristics remains inherently difficult, it is argued that quality should be measured by examining how well children are learning foundational knowledge: basic literacy, numeracy and life skills (UNESCO, 2014b). Sadly, in many low-income countries

approximately one third of primary-school-aged children enrolled in school are not learning these basic skills (UNESCO 2014a).

The 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the status of teachers sets forth teachers' rights and responsibilities and identifies factors that impact upon the teaching profession and which need to be addressed if the status of teachers is to be enhanced. Nearly 50 years later, these factors are still relevant. These include salary, social security, conditions for effective teaching and learning, terms of employment, career development, participation in decision-making, and teacher shortages.

The 1997 ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the status of higher education teaching personnel emphasized that teachers needed to be adequately prepared for the profession and have opportunities to further their own learning. The need to address these factors was restated in the 2013/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2014a). That report identified four strategies necessary to achieving the EFA goal of quality education for all. The first was to attract the 'best' teachers, select and recruit teachers to reflect the diversity of the children they will be teaching. The second was to improve teacher training such that teachers would be capable of supporting the weakest learners. The third concerned deploying teachers to areas where teachers are needed most, which is often in very challenging remote, rural areas. Finally, and perhaps most crucially, the fourth was concerned with providing teachers with the right

mix of incentives to encourage them to remain in the profession.

These factors are, of course, interconnected. For example, as highlighted in the Education Indicators in Focus series (OECD, 2014b), making teaching a career of choice and one that will attract well-qualified recruits, is directly affected by the recruitment process, salary and retraining opportunities. Similarly, retaining motivated teachers is linked with teachers' status, working conditions and level of satisfaction (Macdonald, 1999).

There appears to be a direct link between 'teaching conditions', including workloads, working environments and opportunities to access training (Bascia and Rottman, 2011), and the status and rights of teachers. Maeroff (1988) argues that the status of teachers is tightly bound with developing their knowledge and skill base and empowering them to be active partners in the decision-making processes. Similarly, the latest Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) data (OECD, 2014a) indicate links between teacher participation in the decision-making process and the value placed upon teaching in the wider society.

Recognizing these linkages, this study aims to contribute to the ongoing discourse with regard to EFA and the post-2015 education agenda, focusing specifically on how best to attract, train and retain a qualified and motivated teaching force. Using data drawn from eight countries in the Asia-Pacific region, this study reviews the status



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and working conditions of teachers and examines their rights and privileges, with the aim of offering insights that will contribute to the development of policies to help realize Target 6 of the current UNESCO strategy: 'By 2030 all governments ensure that all learners are taught by qualified, professionally trained, motivated and well-supported teachers' (UNESCO, 2014b, p. 27).



Scope of the study

A S A FOLLOW-UP TO THE 2006 Asia Regional Seminar on the Status of Teachers, and to contribute to the EFA dialogue and the post-2015 education agenda, UNESCO Bangkok proposed a study to review the status of teachers in the Asia-Pacific region, with special attention given to the rights of teachers.

This study covered teachers of general school education (ISCED 1-3) under the Ministry of Education in eight countries within five sub-regions of the Asia-Pacific region: Central Asia (Uzbekistan); East Asia (Mongolia and the Republic of Korea); the Pacific (Samoa); South Asia (Pakistan and Sri Lanka); and South-East Asia (Cambodia and Indonesia).

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- Review the current status and working conditions of teachers.
- Examine the rights and privileges of teachers.
- Devise recommendations for policies and strategies to attract qualified teachers and motivate them to remain in the teaching profession.

Methods



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THE COUNTRY CASE STUDY RESEARCHERS undertook desk-based secondary research, collating and examining data from a wide variety of sources of information. These sources included reviews of relevant legal documents, particularly education laws and other statutes relating to teachers; national development plans; education sector plans; official policy documents; statistics compiled by governments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs); published research; and grey literature relating to teachers.

A regional meeting was organized in Bangkok by UNESCO in February 2015 at which six of the eight case study researchers presented their reports, which formed the basis of discussions. Researchers from Samoa and Pakistan were unable to join the meeting, but shared their presentations and papers in advance. The data presented in the reports were then analysed and conclusions were drawn.


This study used the content analysis method (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011) to analyse the rich and varied data generated by the country case studies. This method enables the researcher to examine large amounts of data and then, through an iterative process of analysis, identify themes and categories that help to make sense of that data (Berg and Lune, 2012). In a direct content analysis approach, previous research findings can help in the development of categories.

For this study, previous research on the status of teachers led to the development of 10 areas of focus. These formed the basis on which data were collected by the case study researchers, which in turn formed the basis of the categories used in the analysis. These categories also helped to identify the similarities and differences emerging from the studies. Once comparisons had been made, a more interpretative analysis could be undertaken to uncover any underlying factors that may have bearing on the research aims. The 10 categories were:

entry requirements into pre-service training, pre-service education, teacher recruitment and deployment, teacher workloads and responsibilities, professional development opportunities, salaries, retirement, assessment of teacher performance, teacher representation in unions and organizations, and school leadership.

The research is based on only eight case studies from what is a very large, diverse region. However, each of the countries was chosen in a deliberate attempt to represent that diversity. Included within the sample are nations with high-performing education systems as well as those needing to rebuild their education sector after years of civil war, and the sample includes nations with large student populations as well as a small island state.

The 1966 ILO/UNESCO report emphasized the link between the status of teachers and how they, and the profession more broadly, are regarded by the public, and how that affects the realization of educational goals. It is hoped that this research, in spite of its limitations, will contribute insights into how best to strengthen the rights and enhance the status of teachers to help in the realization of educational goals not only within the countries involved in this study but in the larger Asia-Pacific context.





Highlights

THE EIGHT COUNTRIES SELECTED FOR this study are very different to each other. There is tremendous variation in terms of their geographies, histories, cultures, political structures and economies. Some have developed educational systems that score highly in international league tables like the Programme for International Students Assessment (PISA), as in the case of the Republic of Korea, while others are struggling to develop their education systems following years of civil war, as in Sri Lanka and Cambodia. Samoa is a small island nation, with limited resources, whereas Indonesia has an enormous population spread over a vast archipelago. Indeed, Indonesia has one of the largest teacher workforces in the world. Conversely, Mongolia is a huge, landlocked and sparsely-populated nation. Pakistan has a large ethnically-diverse population with high illiteracy rates, while Uzbekistan has a large population of young people with very high literacy rates. These differences have undoubtedly helped shape their diverse education systems.

As this report will show, however, these countries and education systems also have many similarities, and what each country shares is the commitment their respective governments have to education. Indeed, in all of the countries education is seen as a key factor for their development, and the right to education is guaranteed by law. In all of the countries, the compulsory period of education is free. For some, this period covers the primary and lower-secondary years, for others this extends to Grade 12 or its equivalent.

This report draws on the data presented in the eight country case studies. It will follow a thematic approach, utilizing the 1966 ILO/UNESCO report as a guide to examine the status and rights of teachers in the 10 areas as mentioned earlier.



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Entry requirements

Entry requirements vary from country to country. They also differ within each country depending on whether candidates wish to teach at the pre-school, primary, lower-secondary or upper-secondary level of the system. Typically, entry requirements are lower for those wishing to teach pre-school compared to those planning to teach at higher levels.

In most of the countries covered in this study, candidates for teacher-training must hold the minimum of a Year 12 or equivalent school certificate regardless of the level at which they want to teach. The exception is Cambodia where a dual-entry system has existed since the 2007-2008 academic year for those wanting to teach at the primary level. This has meant that candidates from remote locations only require a Grade 9 school certificate but those from other areas must have completed Grade 12. This system enables graduates from remote areas to return to teach in their home regions, helping to reduce teacher

shortages in remote locations. This system is set to be phased out in 2015.

In some countries, for example Uzbekistan and Samoa, candidates for secondary-level teacher training require a subject-specific bachelor's degree; in the case of Samoa this is a very recent change. In the other countries, a bachelor's degree is only required by those wishing to teach at the level of upper secondary and above. In Sri Lanka, entry qualifications vary depending on the teaching service category to which one is recruited.

Pre-service education

Pre-service education varies considerably between the countries in this study. Mongolia, Pakistan, Samoa and Uzbekistan require candidates for the primary level to undertake a four-year degree programme, while in Cambodia those wishing to teach at the primary or lower-secondary level must undertake a two-year programme, although the current Teacher Policy Action Plan seeks to introduce a four-year pre-service course from 2020. In Sri Lanka, student teachers follow a three-year programme, with two years based at a training college and a one-year internship in a school. In the Republic of Korea and Indonesia, student teachers are required to undergo a longer period (e.g 4 years and 4.5 to 5 years respectively) of pre-service training regardless of the level of the system they would teach in.

The case-study researchers examined the effectiveness of many of the pre-service programmes in their countries, particularly how well they prepared student teachers for real

classrooms. Each of the studies questioned the overly theoretical nature of many of the pre-service programmes. A main issue was the weak link between theory and practice.

Several of the countries have a wide range of pre-service teacher education providers. For example, Pakistan has over 100, both state and private, offering a variety of pre-service programmes. Whereas most of these institutions focus on general training, others specialize in providing training in particular subjects, such as physical education and agriculture. However, rather than leading to more choices, in some cases this large number of institutions has led to issues of quality. The Pakistan report states that there are varying degrees of quality between training providers and this is partly because there is currently little standardization. Pakistan is in the process of preparing a strategy on teacher education to detail ways to address this issue.

The issue of quality has also been raised in Indonesia, with the report noting that some institutions offer low-quality courses. The quality of pre-service education in Indonesia has improved since the passing of the 2005 Teacher Law, however. The law requires that teachers must hold a four-year degree and become certified by 2015. In 2005 only 26 per cent of teachers had a four-year degree but by 2014 the figure was 71 per cent. Prior to 2005, pre-service training courses for the primary and secondary levels devoted much time to education theory

and subject content, with little time allocated to practicum, but for the new four-year education programmes to become accredited, universities must now provide evidence of 'student-centred and interactive' teaching methods as well the use of 'international best practice in teacher internship and practicum'. Universities must also demonstrate that their lecturers have experience in teaching in schools, in an attempt to ensure that these programmes are staffed by lecturers who understand the school context and are capable of working 'with teachers, schools, and district staff in the assessment of teachers and the conduct of training activities within schools' (Indonesia Report). The Indonesian law also requires that all teachers seeking certification for the secondary level undertake a one-year postgraduate professional training course, and those wishing to teach at the primary level undertake a six-month course. The emphasis is on classroom practice, particularly student-centred methods; indeed, 60 per cent of training time is allocated to the teaching practice.

Teacher recruitment and deployment

Recruiting young people of high calibre into the teaching profession is vital to ensure that there are sufficient numbers of qualified teachers and to ensure that education is of high quality. The processes of recruitment and deployment were examined in each of the eight country case studies.

Recruitment

Recruitment typically begins after initial pre-service training is completed. In Pakistan, for example, there is an entry test following pre-service training, and those achieving a grade of 50 per cent or greater are invited for interviews by the district authority. Of all placements, 2 per cent are reserved for disabled candidates while another 5 per cent are reserved for non-Muslims. Unfortunately, however, issues of corrupt practices and political pressure at the district level have led, in some instances, to suitable candidates not being offered a teaching post at all.

Deployment

Deployment is an issue in many of the countries studied. In many instances, the issue of teacher deployment is closely bound to the location of schools. In Cambodia, deployment to remote areas remains an issue despite the dual-entry system, in that graduates with the highest scores have first choice of schools for their assignments, leaving the weakest new teachers to be deployed to the most disadvantaged schools. The Cambodian report also notes that posts in areas considered very remote or dangerous are sometimes reserved for male teachers only. In Mongolia, 72 per cent of general education schools and 59 per cent of pre-schools are in rural areas, but there is little to no incentive for teachers to teach in these locations. In Sri Lanka, teachers generally avoid teaching in disadvantaged rural areas, opting instead to teach in urban centres. There are also

shortages of teachers for certain subjects. This latter issue was emphasized in the Education Sector Development Framework and Programme 2013-2017 (Ministry of Education of Sri Lanka, 2013), which particularly highlighted shortages in subjects such as mathematics, science, English and information technology.

Indonesia also faces problems relating to the location of schools and uneven distribution of teachers, with an oversupply in urban areas and shortages in rural schools. Shortages are particularly acute in small schools in very remote locations. Since the decentralization of education, teacher employment and deployment in Indonesia have become the responsibility of the district governments. The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) has a guiding role providing quotas on the number of civil servant teachers to be hired, but districts manage the civil service examination and decide whom to hire. However, the case study report questioned whether local government officials had sufficient capacity to be able to analyse teacher needs. Another consequence of decentralization has been a proliferation in the number of teachers hired at the school level, aided by the School Operational Assistance programme, which provides extra funds for schools, with approximately 30 per cent of those funds allocated to paying teachers. These school-hired teachers tend to accept a minimal salary in the hope that their teaching experience will lead to a permanent civil servant position. A 2011 Joint Regulation is attempting to facilitate a more equitable redistribution of teachers.

Teacher workloads

Reasonable working hours, duties, responsibilities and working conditions are seen as critical factors in helping to retain a motivated teaching force. Each of the studies highlighted issues in their countries with regard to these factors. Differences between the countries generally reflected whether a country had a shortage of teachers or an oversupply.

Hours

The numbers of hours teachers are contracted to teach vary from country to country. For example, in Indonesia certified full-time teachers are regulated to teach a maximum of 30 classroom hours.

To control teacher numbers and to improve imbalances in distribution, MOEC instituted a regulation (Permendiknas 39/2009) on teacher workloads. It specified that in order to receive the professional allowance, teachers would need to have a full-time workload, set at 24 period-hours (18 actual classroom hours) and should not have more than the maximum workload of 40 period-hours (30 actual classroom hours) (Indonesia report).

The duties of teachers are clearly set out in teacher contracts but in some cases fulfilling these duties requires that teachers spend additional time beyond the hours they have been contracted for.

In the case of Korea, teachers have an eight-hour working day. Although they spend the majority of their time on activities related to teaching and learning, the recent TALIS survey indicates that



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Korean teachers spend a significant amount of time on administrative work, far higher than the OECD average. What the TALIS report also found is that over 80 per cent of surveyed teachers in Korea believe their long working hours act as a barrier to them participating in professional development activities.

In Mongolia, teachers are contracted to have 19 hours of contact time per week and six hours for other teaching responsibilities. Interviews with teachers indicate, however, that many teachers work far more hours to fulfil their responsibilities.

Teachers' work is not finished at school. I have to work late into the evening at home (Teacher, Mongolia Report).

In Cambodia a new Sub-Decree 309 (March 2015) has mandated that teachers should work a 40-hour week and that teachers of grades 1-3 should complete 25 lesson hours per week, teachers in grade 4-6 should complete 27.5 lesson hours¹ with the remaining time to be used for non-teaching duties.

Class Size

Hattie and OECD (as cited in OECD, 2011) report a positive relationship between smaller class sizes and better working conditions and outcomes (e.g. greater flexibility for innovation in the classroom, improved teacher morale and greater job satisfaction). Class sizes and student-teacher ratios vary from country to country, with the highest being in Cambodia and Pakistan where the average student-teacher ratio is about 45:1. In Samoa, the student-teacher ratio at the primary level is 30.4:1 and at the secondary level it is 17.7:1, while in Sri Lanka the overall student-teacher ratio is 18:1 in state schools. In Uzbekistan, the student-teacher ratio is 11:1, just below the OECD average of 12:1.

Although both Korea and Indonesia have relatively low student-teacher ratios, this does not necessarily equate to smaller class sizes. In Korea, the student-teacher ratio for primary and middle school averages 18:1 but the average class size at the primary level is 25, and is 33 for middle schools. In Indonesia, the student-teacher ratio for primary

¹ In Cambodia a lesson hour is equivalent to 40 minutes of lesson for primary level, 45 minutes of lessons at lower secondary level, and 50 minutes for lessons at the upper secondary level.

schools is 17:1 and the average class size is 26. The average class size at the lower-secondary level is 30 and in upper secondary it is 32.

In all of the eight countries, class sizes tend to be higher in urban centres, as well as in certain subject areas. In Indonesia there are considerable differences between urban and rural areas. For instance, Jakarta has an average class size of 33 at the primary level, while it is only 18 in (rural) Southeast Sulawesi.

Professional development

Professional development (PD)² requirements and opportunities vary considerably between the countries in this study. In some countries, PD is strictly mandated, with teachers following a clear programme of study throughout their careers. For example, in Uzbekistan guidelines are set out for in-service training, with all teachers required to undertake and pass a training course once every three years. Some countries have guidelines in place to regulate the types of training new teachers are required to undertake during the first year after entering the profession. In Indonesia there has been a regulation in force since 2011 that all newly-qualified teachers undergo a one-year school-based induction programme. This acknowledges that new teachers require more support than others, particularly in the transition from university to the workplace. Mongolia

² Professional development refers to a wide variety of specialized training, formal education, or advanced professional learning intended to help teachers improve their professional knowledge, competence and effectiveness (<http://edglossary.org/professional-development/>).

likewise has a one-year formal induction programme for newly-qualified teachers and all teachers are required to undertake PD, which is linked to their career pathways. Cambodia does not currently have formal provision for in-service training for newly-qualified teachers, but the recent Education Strategic Plan states that all new teachers must undergo some form of PD in their first five years.

Commitment to PD was evidenced in Uzbekistan and Korea by increases to the budget allocation. In Uzbekistan there has been a steady increase in funding for PD, rising from 17.8 per cent of the budget in 2005 to 28 per cent in 2012; while in Korea a 2013 Ministry of Education plan includes increased financial support for in-service training.

In some countries, PD is driven by curriculum reforms. In these instances, teachers are sent on short courses to ensure that new initiatives are implemented. In Samoa, for example, teachers are required to undertake in-service

training whenever the government introduces a new curriculum, examination or assessment procedure. Such training courses are often funded by external agencies and the training is limited in both scope and timeframe. There is little ongoing PD for teachers. Cambodia has a similar situation, where opportunities for PD are limited and, in general, only senior teachers attend courses. Although some NGOs also provide PD, the scope of such courses is often limited to the particular geographic area in which the organization works.

Most countries covered by the study have a number of providers of PD, and most of these are approved by the education ministries. For example, in Uzbekistan a number of government-approved training centres and distance-learning support institutes deliver PD. These institutes design training curricula based on input from schools, territorial agencies and ministries. The State Testing Centre is tasked with monitoring the quality of training and assessment of trainers. In Sri Lanka, a special state institute has been set up to handle the PD courses (postgraduate degrees, diplomas and certificates) for school leaders, education officers and teachers. In Mongolia, the Institute of Teachers' Professional Development plays the main role in PD and in certification of teachers. Conversely, in Pakistan there are multiple providers, including a number of NGOs, running PD courses of varying duration and quality.

A key issue observed in many of the countries included in this study is the lack of relevance of PD to the needs of teachers. Indeed, one of the key points in most of the reports was that PD was not practical and did not build teachers' capacities



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as classroom practitioners. In Korea the concern is over how to make PD relevant for teachers throughout the various stages of their careers, particularly given the decline in attendance at PD courses among older teachers. In Samoa it was noted that in rural areas many teachers are responsible for multi-grade classes and to do this successfully requires specific PD, but relevant courses are not available. A related issue concerns the importance of follow-up, particularly when teachers were asked to implement new classroom practices following their training. In Cambodia and several other countries there was little follow-up of sufficient quality to be deemed effective.

Many of the countries also have concerns regarding the effectiveness of the delivery of PD. In many countries PD is delivered through a transmission model, often in the form of lectures, while in other countries, such as Sri Lanka and Cambodia, there is a reliance on cascade training. Although such models are no doubt cost-effective, an important consideration in many countries, these models do not, generally, provide teachers with opportunities to practice what they have learned and it is doubtful whether the trainers have the necessary skills and understanding to train others effectively.

Salaries

Although the status of teachers is linked to many factors, in many countries salaries appear to be a fundamental determinant in how teachers are viewed. Although the funding of higher teacher salaries has huge fiscal implications because of the vast numbers of teachers in the system, each

of the countries in the study reported that teacher salaries have increased over the past decade. In most countries, teachers also receive overtime pay and there are financial incentives for those with specific responsibilities, such as those that accompany the position of lead teacher. In some countries there are also financial incentives for those who teach in rural locations.

The increases in salaries and other benefits have been substantial in certain countries. In Uzbekistan, for example, teachers' salaries increased five-fold between 2005 and 2009. In addition, teachers receive financial benefits for extra-curricular work and tutoring, and the school director's fund is used to financially-reward good-quality teaching. In the case of Mongolia, salaries increased a full 15 per cent in 2014. Increased remuneration in Indonesia since the 2005 Teacher Law has resulted in a doubling of salary for those with certification. A number of allowances are also paid, making teaching a more desirable profession in Indonesia and bringing it increased status. Indeed, higher calibre candidates are entering teaching as a direct result of certification changes and salary increases.

A recent review comparing Samoan teacher salaries to those overseas and to other professions resulted in a decision to increase salaries by 21 per cent over three consecutive years, or 7 per cent per annum, beginning in 2015. In the case of Pakistan, civil servant teachers' salaries are linked to more general civil service pay scales, and there are incentives for teachers to increase

their academic qualifications so as to become eligible for a pay increase. This is also the case in Cambodia. In Korea, teachers' salaries are comparable to other professions and teaching is well paid. Indeed, whereas a beginning teacher's salary is a little below the OECD average, after 15 years of teaching the salary rises above that average.

In other countries, however, teachers' salaries remain low in comparison to those of other professions. In Sri Lanka, for example, it was reported that teachers can earn up to one third less than the average income. Similarly, a recent World Bank SABER study on Cambodia (Tandon and Fukao, 2015) reported that teachers are paid less than other professionals. Furthermore, the salaries of teachers in urban areas in Cambodia are effectively lower than those of teachers in rural areas. This is because living costs are higher in urban areas and an allowance has been introduced for teachers working in remote schools.

Retirement

The retirement age for teachers is generally linked to their status as civil servants and is governed by specific guidelines³. In Cambodia, Sri Lanka and Samoa, teachers are able to retire at 55 years of age but normally continue working until they reach 60. In Samoa, a critical teacher shortage has resulted in many retirees beyond the age of 60 being reemployed. An added incentive for some retirees to return to teaching is that to receive their full teachers' pension they must work for a minimum of 30 years.

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³ Note: Not all of the case study reports included data on retirement.

In Indonesia, the mandatory retirement age for civil servants is 60. The civil service pension programme provides lifetime annuities equal to 2.5 per cent of final base pay for each year of service, to a maximum of 75 per cent. In Korea, the majority of teachers retire at 62 but teachers are able to take voluntary retirement earlier. Since 2009 the number taking early retirement has increased significantly; data suggest that heavy workloads are a significant factor in teachers' decisions to retire early. Upon retirement, Korean teachers receive either a government employee pension or a private school teacher pension.

Measuring teacher Performance

Measurement of teacher performance has become a much-debated issue in most countries. The criteria used in monitoring and assessing teacher performance, who defines them, and the purpose of assessment are highly contested.

Each of the countries in the study has some form of system in place to assess teacher performance. In Mongolia, semi-annual and annual evaluations of teachers are conducted based on a range of criteria. In Samoa, a recent change has led to teachers being evaluated in a three-year cycle, comprising self-appraisals and the building of individual work portfolios in the first two years to contribute to a quality-assurance performance appraisal in the third year. The latter determines salary increases and career development, together with the renewal of the teacher's licence.

In both Indonesia and Korea there have been recent developments in how teachers are appraised. The results of the new appraisals guide the types of professional development needed by individual teachers. In Indonesia, the 2014 Teacher Professional Management system has redefined career progression and promotion and involves an annual performance appraisal by the school principal along with competency tests at each level along a teacher's career pathway. In Korea, the Ministry of Education introduced the Teacher Competence Development Assessment in 2013. This annual assessment of individual teachers has three components: a peer assessment, which

includes feedback from a senior teacher and principal or vice principal; a survey completed by a selected number of students; and a survey completed by parents. The surveys are developed with input from teachers, students and parents, following which a local education superintendent collects, analyses and disseminates the data.

Some of the case studies identified weaknesses in their countries' assessment systems. In Cambodia, for example, teachers are evaluated against criteria used for all civil servants rather than on their performance as teachers. In Pakistan, teachers are assessed by principals, who prepare an annual confidential report about each teacher, but no criteria are used relating to teaching and learning, and principals are often pressured to write positive reports. Although the recent Punjab Education Roadmap indicates positive changes will take place, assessment remains weak, with the role of assessment assistants focused on talking with principals and examining general school statistics.

Teacher unions and associations

Research has shown a strong correlation between quality learning outcomes and the level of teacher efficacy and engagement in education policy setting (Levin, 2010; Friend-Pereira, 2014; OECD 2014a). Therefore, engaging educators at all levels



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of the system in the decision-making process is seen as critical for any educational reform to take root (Ratteree, 2004). Data from the countries covered in this study suggest that upholding teachers' right to participate in decision-making through their representative organizations, whether through unions or professional associations, is far from uniform. Joining a union is a sensitive issue in a number of the countries in this study.

In Cambodia, teachers, as civil servants, are forbidden by law from joining a union. Teachers may, however, join a teachers' association, the most prominent of which is the Cambodian Independent Teachers Association. Although membership of this association is growing, it is small, with very limited powers. The National Educators Association for Development, also a member of Education International (EI), is registered with the Ministry of Interior as a professional association rather a teacher union. The Khmer Teachers Association is aligned with the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. The KTA does not engage in teacher representation and advocacy activities.

In Samoa, about 98 per cent of teachers are members of the Samoan National Teachers Association, although active participation is fairly low. The association is, however, able to lobby on behalf of its members, and has pushed for increases in teachers' pay and clearer career pathways. Teachers are eligible for 15 days of sick leave each year, two weeks of paternity leave,

three days of bereavement leave, and up to one year on full salary to undertake further study. The association was instrumental in establishing the Teachers Credit Union (1990), which has enabled teachers to secure loans with manageable repayments.

In Indonesia, teachers have been allowed to join a representative organization for many years. This right was reinforced with the 2005 Teacher Law, which guaranteed the freedom to join a teachers' union or establish a teachers' association. The largest teachers' association is the PGRI (Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia – Teachers' Association of the Republic of Indonesia). Established in 1945, it is open to all educators and has some 2 million members. It has a powerful voice in protecting the rights of teachers and in negotiating with the government on behalf of teachers. The PGRI has played a significant role in shaping the teacher reform agenda, including improving the welfare and career progression of teachers. In 2008 it won a long legal battle with the government, the result of which obliged the government to earmark 20 per cent of the national budget for education.

Teacher unions have a long history in Sri Lanka, dating back to the 1920s. The country has several powerful teacher unions, working to promote and safeguard the rights of teachers, in spite of the issues these organizations face, but there is little data on the current activities of these unions or of teachers' associations.

Mongolia is an interesting case as although teachers have the right, guaranteed by law, to join a representative organization, in practice this equates to teachers being members of their respective school boards. Although these teachers appear to be active in decision-making, there does not seem to be a national representative body at the school level that is able to lobby the government on behalf of teachers.

Several studies point out that teacher motivation is determined by their needs and job satisfaction. Factors such as participatory decision making, shared leadership, freedom and independence in the classroom, professional development opportunities, self-efficacy and incentives are all contributory factors to teachers' performance at work (e.g., Pastor, 1982; Bennell, 2004; Scheerens, 2010; Bangs and Frost, 2012). Therefore, participatory approaches to education policy formation and school-level governance can enhance teachers' professional status and their 'agency' in the development of the school and create a vested interest in school improvement in terms of quality outcomes. If teacher 'agency' or self-efficacy as outlined by Scheerens is essential to embedding educational reform, then the establishment of structural arrangements is an important prerequisite to enabling teachers' voices to be heard. Whatever those arrangements might be, it is important that such arrangements are owned by the profession itself.

School leadership

School leadership is seen as critical to developing a positive culture of teaching and learning in the school (Fink and Resnick, 2001; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Effective school leaders are seen as being able to cultivate leadership in others and, importantly, act as change agents (Fullan, 2002).

Although some of the countries reviewed in this study have systems in place to strengthen the capacity of school leaders, what emerged from the data was that efforts tend to focus on the development of administrative and management skills. Mongolia and Uzbekistan, for example, have specific training to build school leader capacity in these areas. Although such skills are indeed vital, particularly in decentralized systems, a sole focus on these aspects runs the risk of seriously reducing the scope of the school leader.

In Sri Lanka, although principals' duties include providing support for their teachers, many are unable to provide the leadership support necessary, specifically in terms of developing teaching skills. To address this deficiency, the country offers around eight courses for school leaders and teachers.

In Cambodia and Pakistan, there appears to be little in the way of system-wide training for school leaders. Likewise in Korea there is insufficient ongoing training for principals, particularly in the area of school management. In Samoa, a leadership and management training programme for principals was initiated in 2012, which aims to enable principals to obtain the necessary skills and qualifications.



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The exemplar from this study came from Indonesia. Since the passing of the 2005 Teacher Law, new duties are required of school leaders, the chief one being that the principal is now the instructional leader, who creates an environment that encourages teachers to develop their skills. As a part of this reform, a PD programme was developed for principals and supervisors. This training equips school leaders with the capacity to deliver an induction programme for newly-qualified teachers and enables school leaders to play an active role in providing training within the school environment.



Key findings

ONE KEY FACTOR THAT STANDS out from the reports is the diversity of the education systems included in this study, reflecting the unique histories and cultures of the eight countries. Despite this diversity, however, the countries share several concerns. Each of the country reports highlighted the need to develop a better-quality education system. In this regard, they all emphasized the central role of teachers. All pointed to the importance of recruiting high-calibre candidates into the profession and each of the country reports recognized that teachers need high-quality training to gain the skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours required to be effective teachers.

Bringing the various threads together, this section presents key points that emerged from the reports.

1. Attracting the best candidates

In 1966, ILO and UNESCO emphasized that teaching candidates must have completed secondary education and must have the 'personal qualities' that would help them 'to become worthy members of the profession' (1966, V. 14. p. 10). Although the definition of what constitutes 'worthy' can vary, all countries participating in this study agree that it is necessary to find ways to attract the best candidates into the teaching profession.

2. Pre-service training

Although some countries have made steady progress in the development of their pre-service programmes, most have ongoing concerns regarding pre-service training. In particular, many of the country case studies noted a weak link between theory and practice in pre-service courses, asserting that they were often overly theoretical in nature. A related concern in all the countries was

the need for more practicum. This echoed the recommendation made by ILO and UNESCO in 1966 for 'practice in teaching' (V. 20. p. 12). Another issue related to pre-service training concerned the quality of teacher trainers. Again, this concern echoes the ILO/UNESCO Report (1966), which not only stressed the importance of teacher educators having the requisite academic qualifications but noted that they should also have experience in teaching in schools and be given the opportunity to refresh this experience periodically.

3. Professional development

Although professional development is provided in some form for teachers in all of the countries included in the study, the quantity and quality of training varied considerably. Some of the studies raised concerns regarding the relevance of the PD programmes to the needs of teachers. Once again, these concerns echo the recommendations of the 1966 ILO/UNESCO report which emphasized the need to provide all teachers with appropriate opportunities to develop their education and skill set.

4. Assessing teacher performance

Most countries covered in this study reportedly face issues regarding how best to assess teachers' performance. Of particular concern is that any system of assessment or appraisal not only needs to be fair, but must also be perceived as being fair. This reflects the ILO/UNESCO Report (1966) recommendation that assessment should be transparent and objective.

5. Teachers' pay and working conditions

Although teachers' pay has increased in the eight countries, in some cases dramatically, over the past decade, some of the country case studies stated that teacher salaries remain low in comparison with those of other professions with similar qualifications. While there does appear to be a need to increase teachers' salaries, particularly to attract and retain better-qualified candidates into the profession, there is no consensus concerning what level that salary should be.

Most of the country case studies pointed to a need to ensure realistic workloads for teachers, factoring in the time needed for preparation and marking, supervisory and administrative duties and counselling responsibilities. This echoes the 1966 ILO/UNESCO report which emphasized the need to ensure that teachers' workloads take into consideration factors such as the number of lessons they teach, their class sizes, adequate time for lesson preparation, participation in PD, and other extra-curricular activities or administrative duties.

6. Gender

Most of the countries in the study reported a balance between the numbers of male and female teachers in the profession. However, in some cases, there was imbalance in the numbers of males and females in senior leadership roles, with males outnumbering females, particularly among principals.



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In some countries, there are more female teachers than males, particularly in the primary grades. This is partly due to the fact that teachers in lower grades tend to receive lower salaries than other teachers. This gender imbalance has raised concerns about the lack of male role models for boys in the teaching profession, with teaching being increasingly seen among youth as a woman's profession rather than as one suitable for men.

7. Teacher supply and deployment

What emerges from the data is a 'disconnect' between the supply and demand of teachers, which reinforces the need for countries to develop more effective mid- and long-range forecasting of teacher numbers.

While some countries had an oversupply of teachers in urban centres, they faced shortages in rural locations. This indicates that countries need to ensure that teachers are deployed to where they are most needed and find ways to ensure that teachers are matched with the needs of schools. This issue is particularly salient in rural and remote areas.


8. Management and leadership skills

Countries such as Indonesia have decentralized their education systems, giving provincial and district authorities and school-level administrators greater roles in the management of education, although the central ministry often retains responsibility for the development of policies and curriculum development. An issue that has emerged in some of these countries is the lack

of capacity of sub-national officials and school leaders to fulfil their new and evolving roles. In particular, many of the studies indicated that principals are poorly equipped for their role as school leaders, particularly in terms of the skills needed to develop the capacity of their staff.

9. Teachers' voice

Another concern was the extent to which teachers are able to effectively participate in and articulate their concerns and ideas on the issues surrounding teaching and learning as well as their pay and working conditions. In some countries strong organizations exist, effectively giving teachers a voice, whereas in others teacher participation in unions remains a highly sensitive issue.



Recommendations

THE STATUS AND RIGHTS OF teachers reflect the historical and political developments and cultural norms within their societies. While the Asia-Pacific region and its education systems are diverse, it has been seen that the countries in this study share similar concerns. This echoes the findings of the 1966 ILO/UNESCO report, which observed that ‘similar questions arise in all countries with regard to the status of teachers and ... these questions call for the application of a set of common standards and measures’ (ILO/UNESCO, 1966, p. 2).

The imperative of raising the status of teachers and upholding their rights is a critical cross-national issue and requires collective effort to address. The following recommendations are presented with the aim of improving the status and rights of teachers in each of the countries in this study and in the Asia-Pacific region as a whole. These recommendations are to be seen as suggestions that individual nations can adapt or modify to fit their particular situations.

1. Selection criteria

- Create a rigorous selection procedure that takes into consideration academic results but also ensures that those chosen to become teachers have the motivation and enthusiasm to teach – a ‘heart’ for education.

2. Pre-service teacher education

- Provide teacher education in accordance with teacher needs.
- Increase the budget devoted to teacher education institutions so as to improve their teacher education programmes and their capacity to prepare future teachers.

- Continuously upgrade the institutions' resources and capacity through utilizing appropriate educational technologies and encouraging the use of tools (educational discussions and conferences, brainstorming, educational modelling and projecting, study and research).
- Ensure the pre-service curriculum is relevant, such that it prepares teaching candidates for the types of schools they will teach in. Courses should retain academic rigour but also incorporate ample opportunities for candidates to put what they are learning into practice.
- Establish close links with teaching practice schools.
- Designate mentors in schools where student teachers have their practicum. These are to be 'expert' teachers who are able to guide student teachers.
- Establish clear criteria for teacher educators, to ensure these educators have both academic qualifications and a minimum number of years of teaching experience in schools.
- Provide ongoing PD for teacher educators so they are aware of new methods and best practices, and provide them with opportunities to refresh their experience in teaching within schools.
- Establish a mechanism to ensure that current country and provincial education factors are taken into account in designing pre-service programmes. For example, if many

schools have multi-grade classes, ensure a component of the pre-service course covers this, with opportunities for student teachers to experience a multi-grade class.

- Establish clear quality-control standards that all training institutes must meet if they are to receive certification.

3. Professional development

- Embed PD into broader school reforms.
- Develop clear and easy to understand professional standards for teachers and prepare criteria for evaluating teachers and identifying their PD needs.
- Ensure a fair and efficient professional development system for all teachers, providing continuous PD based on their needs.
- Where feasible, establish school-based PD for all teachers.
- Encourage teachers to develop professionally by reading professional journals and engaging in further study.
- Ensure that there is provision for regular follow-up to enable teachers to incorporate new approaches into their classroom practice.
- Create a collaborative learning environment within the school so that teachers are able to learn together and offer support to one another.
- Establish induction programmes for newly qualified teachers that integrate them into school life and develop them as teachers.

- Deliver PD using adult-learning and active-learning methods to improve learning outcomes.
- Increase financial investment in PD programmes.

4. Career development

- Link participation in PD programmes to career progression.
- Create clear career pathways that provide opportunities for advancement.
- Establish positions with clear titles and responsibilities. These will help develop status both within and outside the school.
- Establish clear pay scales linked to specific roles and responsibilities.
- Provide incentives for managerial and administrative staff to progress in their careers.

5. Salaries

- Provide salaries that are commensurate to what the jobs require and are comparable with other professions that require similar qualifications.
- Provide social security and other benefits that would ensure a reasonable standard of living while employed and after retirement.

6. Measuring teacher performance

- Carry out teacher evaluation in a deliberate and fair way that also diagnoses teachers' PD needs. The results of evaluations should be

shared with teachers in the form of feedback and should be linked to the PD programme and career development. Evaluations should aim to give teachers support and empowerment rather than find fault and be punitive.

- Create an assessment culture within the school that is viewed positively by all the staff as an important element that helps in their professional development.
- Establish PD credit schemes that feed into teacher appraisal.
- Strengthen the capacities of the officials and school heads conducting performance evaluations.
- Strengthen assessment procedures by establishing clear domains and criteria linked to professional standards.
- Link criteria to a teacher's career stage. This will mean having clearly-delineated criteria and expectations regarding each level of expertise, from what a good graduate should demonstrate to what a good 'expert' teacher should demonstrate.
- Ensure assessments are carried out at the school level by the principal and/or other senior staff.

7. School leadership

- Strengthen selection procedures for appointing school leaders.

- Provide regular PD for school leaders.
- Ensure that PD programmes do not only focus on administrative tasks. Instead ensure that school leaders gain more holistic skillsets, enabling them to create a work environment conducive to teacher/school development.
- Strengthen the capacity of school leaders to provide a working environment that will encourage teachers' self-management and self-learning and will foster team work.

8. Teachers' voice

- Recognize the important contributions and unique insights of teachers to enhance their status and increase their morale.
- Provide teachers with a channel, such as a national professional association, that is able to raise educational concerns and contribute to the policy-making process.

9. Teachers' working conditions

- Ensure fair and open systems of teacher deployment, which better match teacher skills and aptitudes to school needs.
- Provide appropriate incentives for those working in remote and difficult locations.
- Provide added payments to those who have to teach or perform administrative duties over the standard teaching or administrative load.
- Ensure that working hours of teachers are reasonable and comparable with other occupations and that these hours are used to enhance teaching and learning practices.

- Any endeavour to improve the systems and processes that support teachers' working conditions should benefit all teachers regardless of their teaching status (contractual or regular employees).
- The new type of civil servant teacher, who operates on contract, could potentially reshape the profession and impact on the rights and status of teachers. Hence, careful planning and full understanding of its implications is needed, to ensure that it is done effectively and does not adversely impact the rights of teachers.

10. Gender

- Develop policies to encourage women to take management positions in schools and remove any obstacles to women's participation in senior management.
- In countries and regions where women outnumber men in the teaching profession, develop recruitment campaigns to attract more males into the profession. In secondary schools, actively promote teaching as a respected and rewarding career for both men and women.



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