

**THE PROVISION OF TEACHERS AND EDUCATION
PERSONNEL FOR POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION**

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Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)

International Institute for Educational Planning

7-9 rue Eugène Delacroix

75116 Paris, France

Tel.: +33(0)1 45 03 77 57

Fax: +33(0)1 45 03 39 65

adea@iiep.unesco.org

web site: www.ADEAnet.org

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ANNEX

GUIDANCE TO COUNTRY STUDY TEAMS AND AGREED FRAMEWORK FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE COUNTRY STUDIES

ABBREVIATIONS

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ADPP	<i>Ajuda de Desenvolvimento de Povo para Povo</i> (Mozambique)
BEd	Bachelor of Education
BTE	Bachelor of Teacher Education (Uganda)
CFPP	<i>Centros de Formação de Professores Primários</i> (Mozambique)
CONFEMEN	La Conférence des Ministres de l'Éducation Nationale (Conference of Ministers of Education of French-speaking Countries)
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
C-TEP	Certificate in Teacher Education Proficiency (Uganda)
DIFOP	<i>La Direction de la Formation Permanente de l'Action et de la Recherche Pédagogique</i> (Togo)
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management System
IFP	<i>Institutos de Formação de Professores</i> (Mozambique)
IGE	<i>Inspection Générale de l'Éducation</i> (Togo)
INSET	Inservice Teacher Education
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NRM	National Resistance Movement (Uganda)
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan (Uganda)
PRESET	Preservice Teacher Education
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SPRINT	School In-service Program for a Term (Zambia)
STR	Student-Teacher Ratio
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education
UPPET	Universal Post-Primary Education and Training (Uganda)

1. ABSTRACT

Access to primary/basic education has expanded significantly in recent years, especially in response to the EFA and MDG initiatives. As a result of this expansion, there is now an increasing pressure in many sub-Saharan African countries to widen access to post-primary education. This study analyses the findings of five country studies (Ghana, Mozambique, Togo, Uganda, and Zambia) into the provision of teachers and other education personnel for secondary schools and TVET institutions.

It has been found that, despite official recognition of the importance of TVET to national economic development, it remains a relatively undervalued and under-resourced field. The demand for secondary school teachers is such that good primary school teachers are often redeployed to fill vacancies, a practice which not only could be damaging to secondary education, but which could threaten the progress made recently in the provision of quality primary/basic education. Countries are now starting to turn their attention to defining the required profile of the teacher educators, who are seen as key to the provision of quality in education delivery, but often there remains a mismatch between methodologies being promoted as part of national policies and those which are practiced in teacher education institutions. Teacher education courses still tend to be academic and theoretical in nature, with little emphasis on the professional development of the student. Opportunities allowing teachers to engage in realistic career planning through involvement in professional development programs are limited in all the countries and programs for the training of other sector professionals such as senior school managers, inspectors/advisers etc. are rarely found and then only on an *ad hoc* basis.

It is anticipated that the findings of each of the country studies and of the synthesis report will assist ministries in their planning for the post-primary sub-sector. Good practice has been recognized and possible pitfalls identified, so that ministries can benefit from the experience of other countries facing the same or, at least, similar challenges in the expansion of post-primary education provision.

2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

2.1 Introduction

The recent rapid growth in enrolment in primary education experienced by many African countries has led ministries of education in those countries to recruit untrained teachers to meet demands. At the same time, the massive expansion of primary education as a consequence of the *Education for All* (EFA) initiative has resulted in additional pressure on secondary education structures, including the supply of teachers, forcing some African countries to explore alternative ways of recruiting teachers. The challenges facing the technical and vocational education (TVET) sub-sector are similar, but perhaps even more acute than those facing secondary education.

The current diversity of practice in teacher preparation, qualifications, recruitment and deployment in primary education suggest that teacher supply for post-primary education cannot be addressed without considering patterns of teacher mobility, not only between primary and secondary education, but also between classroom posts and managerial and administrative posts such as those of headteacher, inspector and pedagogical adviser.

It is now generally accepted that teacher education is *a*, if not *the*, major factor in the provision of quality in education delivery. Many countries in Africa have sought to address the need for a *trained* teaching force within national contexts through innovative and often accelerated teacher education programs.

The study seeks to identify policies, strategies, practices and initiatives in the preparation and provision of teachers and education managers across the sector in general and in post-primary education in particular.

Three anglophone countries (Zambia, Uganda, and Ghana), one lusophone country (Mozambique) and one francophone country (Togo) participated in the study. Using an agreed framework, national teams undertook extensive in-country fieldwork in order to gather essential information and data for the preparation of five country studies, on the basis of which this synthesis report has been prepared. It seeks to identify major needs and trends in the training of post-primary teachers and other sub-sector professionals.

2.2 Contextual Framework

Some of the countries on which the study focuses gained independence from their former colonial powers almost fifty years ago, yet in all cases the legacy of colonial times remains evident. It is perhaps surprising that the legacy of colonial rule, in some cases now so historically distant, remains such a significant determinant of educational development. It is clear, however, that its continuing impact should not be under-estimated.

The political context prevalent in a country can have a potentially major impact on educational development and the influence of the political system may be seen in many different ways.

Some of the countries in the study are among the largest in Africa. It is impossible to overestimate the challenges such a geography presents to those responsible for the delivery of education and the provision of governance generally.

While the impact of both the historical and political contexts is undeniable, it is perhaps the impact of the socio-economic context which has a more immediate relevance to the preparation of teachers and to the delivery of a quality education service. For example, the performance of the national economy determines the nature of the labor market and the availability of good quality teachers; poverty is a

major concern in all the countries involved, while the incidence of HIV/AIDS poses a major constraint on the education systems of some of the countries.

Educational change in all the countries involved in the study has been both rapid and extensive in recent years. In particular, countries have sought to realize EFA and the *Millennium Development Goals* (MDG). Such have been the pressures that in some cases planning has tended to be undertaken against a background of crisis. All the countries do demonstrate, however, an active planning environment. Most have current sector development plans, which include strategies for the development of teacher education to varying degrees. The major thrust of such plans, however, tends to be within the primary/basic education sub-sector and the planning environment for the development of secondary education is not so well developed. TVET and the training of other sector professionals, including senior managers in educational institutions, are even more neglected in the sector plans.

2.3 National Framework for the Delivery of Teacher Education

There is considerable commonality in the national frameworks for the delivery of teacher education in each of the five countries. Most of the countries, for example, have developed explicit visions for education, which emphasize equity, enhanced quality and improved student achievement, relevance to national goals, the increased participation of girls in education, and combating the effects of HIV/AIDS. There is a general consensus also among the countries about the kind of teacher required in the different phases of education. Common objectives of teacher education emphasize professional and personal competences such as mastery of subject knowledge, the ability to facilitate learning, innovation, reliability, honesty, and responsibility, motivation and dedication, and reflection.

Developments in all the countries except Togo are based on some kind of sector plan in which teacher education features to varying degrees. Three of the countries (Mozambique, Uganda and Zambia) have already developed specific teacher development strategies. Detailed planning for teacher education for the TVET sub-sector, however, appears to be largely absent in most of the countries.

The continuing role of the development partners in all of the countries involved should not be underestimated, although its impact is perhaps most dramatic in the case of Togo, where the withdrawal of EC support in the 1990s resulted in the total collapse of any kind of nationally planned teacher education system.

2.4 Institutional Landscape

Recent developments, in particular the introduction of EFA and the introduction of basic schools, which has often been accompanied by an extension of the phase from 7 years (primary) to 9 years (basic), have required extensive reforms to the teacher education institutional landscape. There is a discernible trend towards decentralization in most countries and towards the establishment of parastatal bodies with wide-ranging responsibilities. Links between the national ministries and the teacher education providers, however, appear not to be strong. Ministries have little or control of teacher supply in the university sector.

A general pattern of teacher education provision is evident in all of the countries involved in the study. Primary teachers tend to be prepared within primary teachers' colleges, while secondary teachers are generally trained within the university sector. In some of the countries, it has been recognized that such a division between the training locations for teachers preparing to teach in the different phases can lead to a differential status for teachers.

With the restructuring of schools to respond to the needs of EFA and the introduction of basic schools, many education systems found a mismatch between the nature and functions of their existing teacher education providers and the changed needs of the system and countries in the study have responded to this challenge in different ways.

There is confusion between *inservice teacher education* (INSET) and *continuing professional development* (CPD) which requires clarification in the planning in each of the countries. Links between initial teacher education (ITE) and CPD are mostly lacking. INSET/CPD is most frequently delivered through a national system of resource centers. The networks were usually established as a result of *project* activity. When project funding ceased the effectiveness of the system tended to diminish and there is a need to revitalize the resource centre provision in some countries.

There are clearly common trends in the reform of teacher education systems in all the countries involved. Some countries are seeking to locate more teacher education activities within the university sector and to encourage the preparation of more science and mathematics teachers. All are seeking national institutional and course accreditation procedures and some are actively involved in the planning of a national qualifications framework.

2.5 Teacher Education Programs

There is a lack of evidence of detailed and long-term planning in the teacher education sub-sector in most of the country systems studied. In most of the countries involved a sound planning base for developments in the sub-sector is often lacking. Developments which have taken place appear to target teacher shortages generally, the need to offer often minimal training to untrained teachers, and the demand for upgrading opportunities by teachers. The result is a multiplicity of teacher education programs leading to trained or qualified status, with little evidence of any kind of single *national* program of initial preparation being planned.

There is within course provision a rigid hierarchy which perpetuates differences between teachers in primary/basic education and those in post-primary education. These differences apply to the institutional location of the training, length of training, the end of course qualification, the salaries of teachers, and, perhaps most importantly the status these teachers enjoy in society. The exception to this general rule lies with teachers in the TVET sub-sector, which, despite recognition of the importance of TVET, most often remains underprovided for and of relatively low status.

Traditionally, most countries have prepared secondary school teachers with a single teaching subject in the belief that such a strategy would promote the academic excellence they were seeking in their secondary school graduates. With an increasing demand for secondary school places, however, there is a growing realization that a teacher with two teaching subjects allows for much more flexibility in the staffing of a school than one with a single teaching subject.

Country studies are unanimous in their critique of the methodologies employed in the delivery of the courses. Courses tend to be *teacher-centered* and excessively theoretical, with a continuing emphasis on the educational disciplines of psychology, sociology, philosophy, history etc. with insufficient links to classroom practice.

The opportunities for INSET and CPD in the countries involved in the study share three major characteristics. Firstly, they tend to be limited to primary/basic school teachers; secondly, they focus either on initiatives for training the untrained teachers in school or on upgrading for teachers, which often results for the successful in a move from primary/basic education to secondary education; and, thirdly, all the initiatives might more appropriately be described as INSET rather than CPD. The TVET sub-sector is characterized by an almost total lack of training opportunities in all the countries represented in the study.

All the countries involved recognize the importance of teacher educators in the provision of quality education. Appointment to the position of teacher educator tends to be on the basis of academic qualification, however, and little attention is paid to the appropriateness of the teacher educator's experience. Most are drawn from the body of secondary school teachers and there is a belief in all the

countries concerned that teacher educators require a specific course of training. Training for other education sector professionals, in particular for headteachers and inspectors/advisers/standards officers whose role is so vital for the provision of quality in education delivery, remains largely absent.

2.6 Profiles of Key Actors

A major feature of the student teacher profile in the studies is the difference between the entry standards *planned* and the *actual* entry requirements applied. Teaching remains in most of these countries a relatively unattractive profession and the most able candidates are lost to other professions and jobs.

Given the vagaries of the teacher education system in most of the countries, it is not surprising that teachers are not an homogeneous group in terms of their qualifications and training. The deployment of primary-trained teachers to secondary schools is a common problem which has deleterious effects not only on post-primary schools, but also on the primary schools which have lost many of their best qualified teachers.

It is generally acknowledged that teachers are the major key to quality education provision. The role of the teacher educator must, therefore, be crucial in this process. Given that, it is perhaps somewhat surprising that relatively little attention is given to the required professional and academic backgrounds, the selection and further training of teacher educators in the five countries. Many teachers at post-primary levels are seen as lacking in adequate pedagogical skills.

Appointees to other positions in the education sector in general and the teacher education sub-sector in particular – directors of institutions, headteachers, inspectors or education standards officers etc. – are drawn exclusively from the teaching force. The common criterion in all countries for promotion to these positions is again academic qualification. Moreover, there appears to be little training for these positions, although the training of headteachers is recognized as a major issue impacting upon the quality of education and a priority for future action.

2.7 The Demand, Supply, Recruitment and Deployment of Teachers

All five countries have developed education management and information systems. Most, however, report significant weakness in the systems, since the data available is incomplete. It is apparent, therefore, that, although EMIS systems have generally been established, their reliability is questionable and could lead to major decisions on the demand and supply of teachers being taken on the basis of inaccurate data.

It is clear that the demand for teachers continues to increase, not only for secondary school teachers, but also for primary/basic school teachers, especially in the upper grades. The lack of detail in the studies about the demand and supply of teachers in the TVET sub-sector is perhaps indicative again of the relatively low priority afforded in practice to the sub-sector.

Attrition among the teaching cadre is identified as an issue in three of the country studies. None of the countries, however, report the number of cases of attrition specifically due to HIV/AIDS. There are a number of disparities in teacher supply and demand reported. These fall mainly under two headings: regional disparities and specific subject shortages.

A number of strategies are being or have been developed to address the demand for teachers at the secondary level the most common of which is the raising of the student-teacher ratio. Perhaps the most worrying strategy being adopted in order to address the shortage of teachers at the secondary level is the redeployment of teachers in primary schools as secondary school teachers.

All the countries involved in the study employ deployment procedures which are to differing degrees centralized. For most, it is an administrative process in which ensuring the match between the teacher and the school/role to be undertaken is of secondary importance. No country has yet sought to establish a system of deployment to school which seeks to provide an improved match between teacher qualifications, experience and interests and the specific circumstances of the schools to which they are being deployed.

2.8 Teacher Professionalism

The issue of teachers' salaries in the five countries is complex, but there are a number of relatively common features which emerge from the studies. Salaries are low in comparison with other jobs requiring similar qualifications; they are generally determined by academic qualification, taking little consideration of the role undertaken by the teacher; there tends to be a significant differential between the salaries of primary school teachers and those of teachers in post-primary education; there are some plans for performance appraisal, but little implementation; there are few positions of responsibility in the school structure which could attract salary increases; and promotional routes tend to be into secondary posts for primary school teachers or into administrative positions.

Incentives are often used in the countries in the study to alleviate the problems faced by teachers due to low salaries, and to improve the retention of teachers in the system. The provision of housing for teachers appears to be a priority, although some countries have sought to address the problem of teacher recruitment in the rural areas with an additional allowance. While it is easy to understand the rationale for such incentives, it is equally important to recognize that their impact on the quality of education might be negative ('double-class' and 'double shift' payments, extra duty allowance etc.) as well as positive (easier access to study leave, scholarships etc.).

There is a general lack of professional development opportunities currently and those which exist tend to be in the form of INSET, rather than CPD. Evidence of the creation of a career structure for teachers is limited.

All the countries in the study have one or more unions representing teachers and other education sector professionals. There does, however, appear to be a paradigm shift in the roles undertaken by the unions. They continue to lobby for and negotiate improved conditions of service for teachers, but unions are now also involved in advocacy on behalf of the teaching profession, in providing courses to update their members' knowledge, and in offering loans to teachers for cars and housing. Unions are becoming more actively involved in the *professionalisation* of teachers, while retaining a major role as the guardian of their conditions of service.

All the countries have a body such as a teachers' service commission, although it is named differently in the different countries. The major role undertaken by these bodies varies, but it often involves the recruitment, appointment and discipline of teachers. There has also been an increase recently in the number of these bodies established to support the development of education generally and to help guarantee quality in the system.

2.9 Research and Quality

Research undertaken in the countries tends to be within a university setting; it is often overly academic in nature, and is not necessarily related to national educational needs. Most importantly perhaps, even where relevant research has been undertaken, its relevance is usually limited to primary/basic education. Post-primary education in general and TVET in particular appear to be neglected fields for research. It is crucial that, if, as seems likely, post-primary education is set for considerable expansion, a body of research is developed to provide a sound basis for sub-sector planning.

There is an almost total absence in the country studies of any discussion, or even reference to discussion, of what constitutes ‘quality’ in the different national systems. A number of ‘pedagogic weaknesses’ are identified including poor planning, the non-participatory nature of classroom practice, authoritarian and teacher-centered approaches, the under-use of teaching aids and textbooks, low order questioning techniques, irregular marking and a lack of systematized record keeping.

The quality assurance mechanisms described in the studies share a number of common features. Firstly, it is evident that there is in most of the countries studied a lack of a fully-fledged, national system of quality assurance. Secondly, there is a clear division between the universities and other institutions. Universities are described as self-regulatory in all the countries, whereas quality assurance in teachers’ colleges, secondary schools and like institutions remains the responsibility of what historically has been called an ‘inspectorate’. Thirdly and, it could be argued, most importantly, there is no mention of *internal* mechanisms to ensure quality outside of the university sector and it is *external* procedures which dominate practice. It would appear that schools and even tertiary education institutions such as the teachers’ colleges have not been encouraged to develop and institute their own procedures for ensuring quality and that any linkages which might exist between research and quality are generally weak.

3. INTRODUCTION

3.1 Study Context

Teacher education in Africa is characterized by a broad and diverse spectrum of policies and strategies for the preparation, recruitment, deployment and development of teachers. In 2004, ADEA and the World Bank organized a conference in Bamako, Mali, on contract teachers - “*enseignants non-fonctionnaires*” - in francophone countries. The conference reported a dramatic increase in the number of unqualified primary teachers in the countries involved.

Although the studies conducted to support the conference focused only on francophone countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Congo, Guinea, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, Chad, and Togo), the high incidence of contract teachers is also a common feature of education systems in anglophone and lusophone countries. The rapid growth in enrolment in primary education experienced by many African countries has led ministries of education in those countries to recruit untrained teachers to meet demands.

At the same time, the massive expansion of primary education as a consequence of the *Education for All* (EFA) initiative has resulted in additional pressure on secondary education structures, including the supply of teachers, forcing some African countries to explore alternative ways of recruiting teachers. Many are being forced to reduce the minimum qualifications for teachers to become secondary teachers; teachers are being recruited to teach subjects other than their specialism(s); and primary school teachers are being “promoted” to teach in secondary schools. The challenges facing the technical and vocational education (TVET) sub-sector are similar, but perhaps even more acute than those facing secondary education. While the importance of TVET, especially to economic growth and the eradication of poverty, has been generally recognized, there are relatively few instances of a national, planned approach to the sub-sector. Although adopted as necessities rather than as policy options, the consequences of these and other practices on the quality of education delivery are manifold. In particular:

- i. Primary schools have no alternative but to recruit untrained teachers, exacerbating an already serious situation in some countries
- ii. Many secondary school classes are taught by unqualified and under-qualified teachers
- iii. Student-teacher ratios are increasing
- iv. It is becoming even more difficult to recruit teachers in the traditional shortage subjects, especially in mathematics and science
- v. TVET teachers tend to be under-qualified and untrained

The current diversity of practice in teacher preparation, qualifications, recruitment and deployment in primary education suggest that teacher supply for post-primary education cannot be addressed without considering patterns of teacher mobility, not only between primary and secondary education, but also between classroom posts and managerial and administrative posts such as those of headteacher, inspector and pedagogical adviser.

The international debate on the factors contributing to school effectiveness has emphasized the role of school leadership and management. Studies conducted by ADEA and presented at the biennial of Libreville in 2006 recognized the particular role of headteachers in promoting school improvement and learning achievement. While the pedagogical and technical needs of school leaders and managers have increased, however, many countries have not been able to provide them with the training and professional support they need. Under the prevailing practices, many African countries lack policies and structures to support training and development for education management functions in a systemic manner.

3.2 Study Purpose

It is now generally accepted that teacher education is *a*, if not *the*, major factor in the provision of quality in education delivery. Many countries in Africa have sought to address the need for a *trained* teaching force within national contexts through innovative and often accelerated teacher education programs.

The study seeks to identify policies, strategies, practices and initiatives in the preparation and provision of teachers and education managers across the sector in general and in post-primary education in particular.

The overall purpose of the study is to provide African ministries of education and their stakeholders with information and analysis to assist them in formulating and implementing teacher education and management policies and strategies. It is anticipated that this will lead to an improvement in the quality of teachers and other educational personnel in the context of sector development in general and post-primary education development in particular.

Specifically, the study:

- i. synthesizes information on issues related to the education and training of teachers and management personnel for post-primary education in particular
- ii. identifies policy initiatives and practices in the training, recruitment, deployment, motivation and retention of teachers
- iii. facilitates an exchange of lessons learned and policy options between countries
- iv. identifies policy options for ministries to consider.

3.3 Participating Countries

Three anglophone countries (Zambia, Uganda, and Ghana), one lusophone country (Mozambique) and one francophone country (Togo) participated in the study. The five countries offer regional representation (west, east and southern Africa), but their selection was mainly determined because all five have experienced significant expansion in both primary and secondary education, resulting in important developments in teacher education related policies.

3.4 Methodology

The study preparation consisted of two complementary strands: an analytical strand and a summary of lessons learned. All participating countries have been involved in the analytical strand, providing a country study within a common framework. Additionally, examples of good, innovative practice in the provision, recruitment and deployment of teachers and school management personnel, and in the professional development of teachers and other education sector professionals have been identified and reported in the country studies. Such an approach permitted the collection of the information necessary to compare country policies, practices and recent developments.

Using an agreed framework, national teams undertook extensive in-country fieldwork in order to gather essential information and data for the study. It was anticipated, however, that the agreed framework would remain sufficiently flexible to allow for adjustments in the in-country fieldwork and national surveys in the light of the resources available and of the demands of the national context. The work of the national teams was supported by a technical assistance team comprising of one international consultant and one regional consultant.

The study was initiated at an inception workshop in Accra, Ghana, attended by representatives of all five sample countries, during which the process of the study and the key issues to be covered were discussed and the framework agreed. The framework and guidance for the country study teams are

annexed to this report. The findings of the country teams were presented at a second workshop, held in Maputo, Mozambique, following which final drafts of the country studies were prepared. This report represents a synthesis of the findings of the five country teams.

It should be noted that the time available for the completion of the study was much more limited than originally planned due to unforeseen circumstances. All those involved in the preparation of the study feel that this time restriction has posed a serious and significant constraint on the work of the teams and on the ultimate quality of the study.

3.5 Synthesis Report

The structure of this synthesis report reflects both the framework agreed during the initial workshop in Accra and the presentation format of the five country studies. The major findings gathered from the country studies and, more importantly, discussion of the major issues arising, are presented under the following headings¹:

- i. Contextual Framework
- ii. National Framework for the Delivery of Teacher Education
- iii. Institutional Landscape
- iv. Teacher Education Programs
- v. Profiles of Key Actors
- vi. Teacher Demand and Supply
- vii. Teacher Professionalism
- viii. Research and Quality

The synthesis seeks to identify major needs and trends in the training of post-primary teachers and other sub-sector professionals. It compares and contrasts developments in the countries, in order to provide a summary of the studies. It will be necessary, however, for the reader to consult the studies themselves in order to have a more detailed view of the current circumstances in those countries and to have access to more detailed statistical evidence on which many of the findings of this report are based. Where no reference is given in the text, the reader should assume that the source of the data presented in this report can be found in the relevant country study.

¹ It should be noted that it was originally planned to consider also the management and funding of teacher education. There was, however, the lack of a common understanding of this area in the country reports, so that it proved impossible to compare and contrast management and funding practices in the five countries.

4. CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Historical Context

Some of the countries on which the study focuses gained independence from their former colonial powers almost fifty years ago – indeed Ghana has already celebrated fifty years of independence in 2007 – yet in all cases the legacy of colonial times remains evident. In the case of Togo it is particularly strong; the structure of the education system and the terminology used to describe institutions at all levels of the system remain essentially ‘French’. In the case of Mozambique, which gained its independence from Portugal in 1975, it is not the *strength* of the legacy which is apparent, but rather the relative *lack* of a legacy in terms of institutional structures.

The three Anglophone countries represented in the study all display a significant educational heritage from British colonial times, which continues to impact upon national educational structures. Ghana, Uganda and Zambia have made progress in ‘nationalizing’ their systems only in relatively recent times. In the case of Ghana, the turning-point came with the introduction of the constitution in 1992 and the full restoration of constitutional rule. Until this point in time, Ghanaians had struggled to put in place a system of governance which was appropriate to the country’s circumstances. In Uganda, change was initiated with the accession to power of the National Resistance Movement (NRM) government in 1986. Prior to this, the system remained much as it had been under British rule from independence in 1962: English remained the medium of instruction, secondary education was prioritized, and the curriculum was academic in its orientation. Zambia did seek to redress the inequalities of colonial education immediately upon independence in 1964 and there was a rapid and extensive expansion of formal education, based on a humanistic philosophy and political ideology. This could not be sustained, however, as the Zambian economy suffered serious problems when the price of copper declined in the early 1980s. Similarly, Mozambique sought to develop an indigenous education system following independence in 1975, with new structures, expanded access and a new curriculum. This development also faltered, not on this occasion due to economic conditions, but because of the civil war.

It is perhaps surprising that the legacy of colonial rule, in some cases now so historically distant, remains such a significant determinant of educational development. It is clear, however, that its continuing impact should not be under-estimated.

4.2 Geo-Political Context

4.2.1 Political context

It is probably self-evident to note that the political context prevalent in a country can have a potentially major impact on educational development. Some of the countries in question have, for example, been one-party states and have only recently moved, or even now are in the process of moving, to multi-party systems. It is important to note, however, that the influence of the political system may be seen in many different ways. The following examples from the country studies serve as an illustration.

The impact of a positive political environment can be seen in the recent educational history of Uganda. The significance of the introduction of the NRM government in 1986 has already been noted. It is clear from the country study of Uganda that rapid progress has been made from that time. It is important to note also in this respect, however, the influence of a number of presidential initiatives which appear to have accelerated progress in education development and in other related fields. Equally important in this respect, is the level of external funding enjoyed by countries which have moved to multi-party democracies.

In the case of Togo on the other hand, the political context has acted as a serious constraint on development. Since its independence in 1960, the country has see-sawed between one-party and multi-party systems and has never fully attained political stability, incurring the wrath of its bilateral and multilateral partners, especially the European Union, which withdrew virtually all support in 1993. It was only in late 2007 that external support began to return following the elections in October 2007 which were judged to be both fair and transparent. The impact of the lack of external funding on education in general and teacher education in particular has been critical, resulting in the collapse of virtually *all* teacher education activities.

4.2.2 Geographical context

Some of the countries in the study are among the largest in Africa. Zambia covers a surface area of more than 750.000 sq km, while the coastline of Mozambique stretches for almost 2500 km. It is impossible to overestimate the challenges such a geography presents to those responsible for the delivery of education and the provision of governance generally. The studies, therefore, explored regional disparities in provision and indicated how countries have sought to address them.

4.3 Socio-Economic Context

4.3.1 The impact of socio-economic considerations

While the impact of both the historical and political contexts is undeniable, it is perhaps the impact of the socio-economic context which has a more immediate relevance to the preparation of teachers and to the delivery of a quality education service.

4.3.2 National economy

Mention has already been made of the positive correlation between the price of copper and the rate of expansion/development of the Zambian education system. It is not, however, only a declining economy which has a negative impact on educational development. Mozambique, for example, has enjoyed rapid growth during the decade from 1994, averaging 8.2% *per annum*. Government expects continuing growth of 7%-10% over the next five years. What may be good for the nation, however, is not necessarily good for education and for future development. With career opportunities other than teaching to consider, many young people, especially the most able, have been attracted away from education into more lucrative jobs. If sufficient numbers of students are to be recruited, it will be difficult to raise the already relatively low standards for entry. Indeed, it may be necessary to reduce even further entry requirements, if teacher targets are to be met. A vibrant national economy does not necessarily lead to education development in all its aspects.

4.3.3 Poverty

The population of many of the countries participating in the study is dominantly rural and many are poor. More than 85% of Ugandans, 80% of Zambians, and 71.4%² of Mozambicans live in rural areas. Uganda has experienced a fall in the number of poor over recent years – from 56% in 1996 to 31.5% in 2006 – while at the same time Zambia experienced the lowest growth rate (average 1% *per annum*) of all countries in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), although the country's economy has now begun to improve following debt relief. Meeting the needs of all under these circumstances represents a major challenge. The challenge is exacerbated in some countries by the number of people displaced by war (Uganda) or suffering the continuing effects of civil war (Mozambique), so that there are major discrepancies in poverty levels between regions.

4.3.4 HIV/AIDS

² Figure from the 2007 Census

Three countries in the study report on the impact of HIV/AIDS. Both Uganda and Zambia have seen some success in combating the growth of the disease. Infection rates in Zambia have fallen from 20+% in the late 1990s to 17% in 2007. The success experienced in Uganda is more dramatic, with infection rates falling from 18% in the 1980s to 6.7% in 2007. The situation in Mozambique is less optimistic, where there has been a steady increase in the incidence of the disease over the past decade. The current rate of infection stands at 16.1%. Both Togo and Ghana have relatively low rates of infection (3.2% and 2.3% respectively).³

It was not possible in any of the country studies to disaggregate data on teacher attrition due to HIV/AIDS from those on teacher deaths from all causes. It may be safe to assume, however, that HIV/AIDS is a, and probably *the*, major cause of teacher attrition by death. Indeed, in the *Strategic Plan 2003-2007* for Zambia notes the need for the careful planning of training provision and the development of a relief teacher system to counter the effects of attrition by the disease. The impact of the disease on all aspects of human development, but especially on education provision, cannot be overestimated. There are, for example, 700,000 orphaned children in Zambia, leading to increased drop-out rates and major challenges to all the caring professions. In Uganda, the *Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to Youth* requires every school to conduct assemblies with an AIDS message every two weeks and an *Education Sector Workplace HIV/AIDS Policy Implementation* has been established for all personnel in the sector, based on three basic principles: non-discrimination, confidentiality and gender equality.

4.4 Educational Context

Educational change in all of the countries involved in the study, with the exception of Togo, has been both rapid and extensive in recent years. In particular, countries have sought to realize EFA and the *Millennium Development Goals* (MDG). Such have been the pressures that in some cases, especially in Mozambique, planning has tended to be undertaken against a background of crisis, while other countries (e.g. Zambia) admit that their systems are still in transition. Change has often been accompanied by the reorganization of the ministry of education. In Togo, for example, the single ministry was divided, resulting in a ministry with responsibility for school education and another responsible for higher education and research. Whether the changes made are all beneficial to the delivery of the system remains questionable, while in other cases the structural reorganization has failed to address major challenges in the system. In Zambia, for example, extensive reorganization has failed to integrate the ministry of education with the ministry which has responsibility for TVET.

All the countries do demonstrate, however, an active planning environment. Most have current sector development plans, which include strategies for the development of teacher education to varying degrees. The focus of such plans naturally reflect the current circumstances of the country concerned, although the major thrust of such plans tends to be within the primary/basic education sub-sector. Indeed, in Togo, the focus of recent planning has been on pre-school education, in order to cater for children as young as two. It is evident from the planning in most of the countries, that there is also a discernible shift of emphasis from issues of *access* to issues *quality*. In Mozambique, however, issues of access, especially in the rural areas, and infrastructure remain dominant, although increasingly issues of quality – a new school curriculum has now been introduced – are now being addressed. Three of the countries in the study, Uganda, Zambia and Mozambique, also have a policy/strategy/development plan of varying kinds for the teacher education sub-sector.

In Ghana, Uganda and Zambia, there have been major initiatives to decentralize the provision of all aspects of education. In Ghana, developments have focused on decentralization to a number of independent and semi-independent agencies which are now responsible for the planning, delivery and quality assurance of education delivery at all levels, including teacher education. In Mozambique, on the other hand, given the country's recent history, there remains a continuing focus on access and the

³ Source: UNAIDS Country Profiles

supply of teachers, while at the same time the need to improve quality has been recognized. Resources have been re-allocated to address serious disparities between rural and urban areas and between and within regions and provinces.

With the exception of Uganda, the planning environment for the development of secondary education is not so evident in the country studies. Uganda has already introduced universal secondary education with automatic promotion after seven years of primary education under its *Universal Post-Primary Education and Training* (UPPET) program. It should be pointed out, however, that Uganda has one of the highest levels of private secondary schools in the region. In Zambia, parliament decided in December 2007 that secondary education would be free for all from the start of the new school year in January 2008. There appears, however, to be no planning basis for this decision. In contrast, Ghana's secondary education is provided on a cost-sharing basis.

While the planning environment generally might give rise to some optimism – Togo is the exception for the reasons presented in section 1.2.1 – it is important to note that there is a significant 'reality gap' between what has been planned and what is currently being implemented. In Zambia, for example, both the teacher education and the school curriculum have been reformed based on a competency model, while the planned revision of the examination system has not yet taken place and students are still examined essentially on the *content* of the curriculum. In Mozambique, a comprehensive and detailed strategy for teacher education was completed in 2004. Although the strategy has been approved, implementation of its provisions remains limited. It is important that the reasons for such 'reality gaps' are fully explored in order to ascertain whether there are unnecessary and unreasonable 'brakes' on the development process.

Finally, it is important to note two apparent weaknesses of current planning in the countries concerned. Both the training of teachers for technical and vocational education and the training of related sector professionals (inspectors, headteachers, mentors, pedagogical support staff etc.) appear to be relatively neglected in the sector plans as presented in the studies. The lack of emphasis on TVET appears, at least to some extent, to have resulted from its low status in the former colonial systems and from the trend in the newly independent states to emphasize the *academic* at the expense of vocationally oriented programs. In Uganda, for example, technical education was offered only in institutions with a religious foundation and was viewed as 'education for the poor'.

The current situation in Uganda serves to illustrate the minor role TVET has in the education systems of the country. Government recognizes the need for vocational education in its *White Paper* (1992), yet in 2006 only 2% of students in post-primary education were enrolled in 46 government TVET institutions. More positively, and somewhat surprisingly, of these students 32% were female. Even more surprising, perhaps, is that they are all following courses traditionally viewed as male-oriented – bricklaying, carpentry, joinery etc. – since these are the only ones available.

The provision of professional training for other related sector professionals is even more sparse. Country teams were particularly concerned about the lack of opportunities for the professional preparation of school managers, which it was felt resulted ultimately in the delivery of poor quality education, and about the lack of a clear professional and academic profile for teacher educators.

5. NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE DELIVERY OF TEACHER EDUCATION

5.1 Commonality

There is considerable commonality in the national frameworks for the delivery of teacher education in each of the five countries. All have developed a vision for education and some have moved towards a description of a ‘model teacher’. In many respects, however, Togo is again the exception. Although there is a well defined vision for education, for the reasons noted earlier there has been little change in Togolese teacher education for more than a decade. Indeed, preservice teacher education (PRESET) has been suspended since the EU withdrew its support to the sector in 1993. Since the suspension of support, *Coopération Française* has been alone in providing training for the untrained teachers in the schools.

5.2 National Vision and Policy

Most of the countries in the study have developed explicit visions for education, which have many features in common. In the case of Ghana, which has perhaps the most clearly articulated vision, the mission statement of the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports locates education at the centre of the national poverty reduction strategy. It speaks of maximizing the potential of all citizens to facilitate poverty reduction, to promote socio-economic growth and national development. The links between education and national economic growth are strong in the policy statements of all the countries in the study, which makes the relative lack of emphasis on TVET somewhat surprising.

National visions for education stress *inter alia*:

- Equity
- Enhanced quality and improved student achievement
- Relevance to national goals
- Increased participation of girls in education
- Combating the effects of HIV/AIDS

A few features are more country specific or common to just two or three of the countries in question. Noteworthy in this respect is the importance Togo places on the promotion of national languages and cultural values, perhaps indicating the strength of the continuing influence of the former colonial power. Rather than the model of the teacher, Togo defines the ‘product’ of the education process. S/he will be ‘*balanced, open-minded, capable of adapting easily to new situations, full of initiative, and able to transform the environment*’. The Togolese approach to a national vision is also unique in the stress it places on the ‘*democratic school*’.

The objectives of the sector development plan Uganda mention specifically the need to build administrative capacity at all levels of the system, while the Mozambican sector strategy seeks to strengthen institutions and the administrative framework for the effective and sustainable delivery of education.

5.3 Model of the Teacher

There is a general consensus among the countries about the kind of teacher required in the different phases of education. All promote a *classteacher* model in lower and middle basic classes, moving to a combination of *classteacher* and *semi-specialist* in upper basic classes. In secondary schools, a specialist approach is adopted, although there is no firm consensus about the number of teaching subjects a teacher should have. There appears to be a recognition, however, that a teacher with two

teaching subjects offers much more flexibility in teacher within-school deployment than a teacher with a single teaching subject. Indeed, in Mozambique some teachers in secondary schools, especially in the first cycle of secondary education, are appointed to teach within a domain or subject in which they would be expected to contribute to teaching in more than two subjects.

The objectives of teacher education, clearly defined in the studies of both Ghana and Uganda, seek to develop in teachers academic, professional and personal competences, including *inter alia*:

- Subject knowledge
- Facilitation of learning
- Innovation
- Reliability, honesty, and responsibility
- Motivation and dedication
- Reflection

5.4 National Strategies

Developments in all the countries except Togo are based on some kind of sector plan in which teacher education features to varying degrees.⁴ For example, in the *Ghanaian Education Reform (2007)*, the desired model of the teacher is described. Apart from the teacher's usual function in promoting learning, the teacher is also perceived as an agent of social change and a guardian of the fundamental human rights of the learners and of members of the local community. In the latest version of Zambia's sector plan (*Strategic Plan 2003-2007*), it is proposed that the qualifications of both basic and secondary school teachers should be *equally* recognized and should enjoy parity of esteem and that access to college should be increased for vulnerable groups. It is, however, Uganda which appears to have the most comprehensive approach to teacher education in its government documentation. Particularly noteworthy is the increasing consideration of post-primary teacher education. The focus of the *White Paper (1992)* was primary/basic education. With the publication of the *Education Sector Strategic Plan (2001-2014)* and, more especially, with its revised version (2007-2014), there is a noticeable shift of emphasis to include, in a more balanced way, secondary teacher education. The strategic plan and the *Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP)* both recognize teachers as the key to quality education provision.

Three of the countries involved in the study (Mozambique, Uganda and Zambia) have already developed specific teacher development strategies. They focus mainly on primary/basic teacher education, although a strategy for *secondary* teacher education in Uganda is now at an advanced stage of development. In Uganda the strategy is concerned with the professional development of teachers, while in both Zambia and Mozambique they relate to *all* sub-sector developments. Some elements of the Zambian strategy are being implemented, but in Mozambique, implementation of the strategy, by far the most detailed and comprehensive of the three, is limited. The pressure for increasing the number of even minimally trained teachers in Mozambique is certainly a major factor in this lack of progress and the mismatch between plans and practice.

Detailed planning for teacher education for the technical and vocational education (TVET) sub-sector appears to be largely absent in most of the countries. In Ghana, however, teachers for the sub-sector receive university training and, in the case of Uganda, the UPPET program provides a framework for both secondary and technical and vocational teacher education in general. In the other systems, Mozambique in particular, there is a recognition of the importance of TVET in government documents and of its place as an essential element of secondary education, but there is little or no training in practice and the provision is relatively ineffective. Interestingly, there were institutions formerly dedicated to the training of TVET teachers in Mozambique, but these were closed more than 15 years

⁴ Education Reform (2007) (Ghana); Strategic Plan 2003-2007 (Zambia); Education Sector Strategic Plan (2005-2009) (Mozambique); and Education Sector Strategic Plan (2007-2014) (Uganda).

ago. In the case of Zambia, responsibility for TVET lies with a different ministry from the ministry of education, so planned action, co-ordinated with the secondary education sub-sector, becomes difficult.

It is clear, however, that the competency-based program of teacher preparation is currently being implemented only in the training of primary/basic teachers. Post-primary teacher education programs remain essentially teacher-centered and ‘academic’ in their orientation. (See section 4.2.2).

5.5 Role of the Development Partners

It is clear from the country studies that external funding continues to play an important role in the development of the education sector. Increasingly, development partners are moving from *project support* to *program* and *budget support* mechanisms for the disbursement of funds.

The role of the development partners is dramatically highlighted in the case of Togo, where the withdrawal of EC support in the 1990s resulted in the total collapse of any kind of nationally planned teacher education system. Other countries too report the consequences of earlier project support. In Uganda, for example, support for the development of a national network of resource centers finished before there was national coverage. The network remains incomplete and the ‘gaps’ act as a serious constraint on the delivery of CPD opportunities through the resource centers. Similarly in Zambia, a national resource centre network was established with external support. Following the withdrawal of external funding, the network continues to function reasonably effectively for teachers in primary/basic schools, although some of the planned developments such as a national ‘credit’ system have not been operationalized. It has not been possible, however, to extend the centers’ activities to include the successful involvement of staff from post-primary institutions.

The lack of further development following the withdrawal of external support is a common occurrence and can probably be attributed to a number of factors. The failure to complete the Ugandan network of resource centers and the failure in Zambia to extend their function to include *all* teachers can probably be attributed mainly to a lack of adequate funding. In other similar cases, however, the lack of national ownership of the initiatives has also been a major factor in the ‘death’ of donor-supported initiatives once funding has been withdrawn.

6. INSTITUTIONAL LANDSCAPE

6.1 Structure of Teacher Education and Training Institutions

6.1.1 Overall Responsibility

Recent developments, in particular the introduction of EFA and the introduction of basic schools, which has often been accompanied by an extension of the phase from 7 years (primary) to 9 years (basic), have required extensive reforms to the teacher education institutional landscape. In Ghana, for example, responsibilities have been largely devolved to the teacher education providers as part of a more general trend towards decentralization, although the Ghana Education Service retains overall control of primary/basic teacher education. Universities now have responsibility for quality assurance, the certification of all teachers, curriculum development, human resource development, and policy analysis, in addition to the delivery of their courses.

Other countries have retained more control at the centre, while recognizing the importance of teacher education by extending the functions and improving the status of the ministry department responsible for teacher education. Both Uganda and Zambia administer teacher education through their teacher education departments. The brief for the department in Uganda is comprehensive, involving not only primary and secondary education, but also TVET, the *Education Standards Authority*, the *Uganda National Examinations Board*, and the *National Curriculum Development Centre*. In the case of Zambia, the functions of the department are more limited and its two units cover PRESET and inservice teacher education (INSET). In Togo it is the *Ministère des Enseignements Primaire et Secondaire* which has overall control of teacher education.

The links between the national ministries and the teacher education providers appear in most cases not to be strong. Ministries appear to have little or no control over teacher supply in the university sector. In Uganda the ministry does place a ceiling on enrolment in the primary teacher colleges and does seek to promote the study of the sciences in line with the ministry's science policy.

6.1.2 Teacher Education Providers

A general pattern of teacher education provision is evident in all of the countries involved in the study. Primary teachers tend to be prepared within primary teachers' colleges, while secondary teachers are generally trained within the university sector, although this distinction is often blurred, especially in countries where the supply of secondary school teachers is insufficient (eg Mozambique). In Togo there is a precise relationship between the institution and the phase of education for which its students are being prepared.

In some of the countries, it has been recognized that such a division between the training locations for teachers preparing to teach in the different phases can lead to a differential status for teachers. Mention has already been made of the Zambian intention that the qualifications of both basic and secondary school teachers should be recognized *equally*. Zambia is also currently in the process of affiliating its teacher education colleges to the University of Zambia, so that all Zambian teachers will ultimately receive a university qualification. Other countries (Ghana and Uganda) have already made considerable progress in locating *all* teacher education activities within the university sector – indeed Ghana intends to locate the current teacher training colleges in the university sub-sector – while in Mozambique and in Togo non-university teacher education, generally teacher education for the lower- and middle-basic years, tends still to be a direct ministry responsibility.

In the case of Mozambique the contribution to teacher supply made by the NGO *Ajuda de Desenvolvimento de Povo para Povo* (ADPP) should be noted. The government is establishing two teacher education institutions in each of the eleven provinces. ADPP already has an institution in nine of the provinces and will soon complete a college in the remaining two. It is important to note,

however, that the ADPP contribution to teacher supply is considered part of the wider government policy, whereby the private sector is allowed to train teachers within the approved framework of the national teacher education curriculum and programs. In the case of Mozambique, however, it has become evident that this policy option requires strong quality assurance mechanisms which are not currently in place, even for government teacher education institutions.

6.1.3 Match between the Educational Provision and the Needs of the System

With the restructuring of schools to respond to the needs of EFA and the introduction of basic schools, many education systems found a mismatch between the nature and functions of their existing teacher education providers and the changed needs of the system. In particular, the extension of the primary phase, 7 years in many countries, to the basic phase of generally 9 years, posed a major challenge since the “traditional” structure of teacher training colleges prepared teachers only for Grades 1-7 and Grades 8 and 9 had previously been part of secondary education provision.

The countries in the study have responded to this challenge in different ways. In Zambia, for example, the colleges of education, with one or two exceptions, have been devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers for Grades 1-7. Two of these institutions have now been identified for the training of teachers for Grades 8 and 9, while remaining colleges of education. Teachers for Grades 8 and 9, earlier lower secondary grades, have previously been trained in secondary teachers colleges. These colleges now have assumed responsibility, alongside the University of Zambia, for preparing teachers for upper secondary grades and they will achieve university college status in 2008. The resulting institutional landscape, while not providing a precise match with the various phases and stages of the Zambian education system, appears more effectively designed to cope with the anticipated increase of students in secondary schools.

The effectiveness of the new teacher education institutional landscape in Mozambique for dealing with increased numbers at the secondary level is perhaps less convincing. Primary education is delivered in two cycles (Grades 1-5 and Grades 6-7). The preparation of teachers for the first five-year cycle has been undertaken in the past by the *Centros de Formação de Professores Primários* (CFPP). These institutions have been neglected in many ways over a long period, in terms of infrastructure, materials, and human resource. CFPP were viewed as low status institutions and are being closed and replaced by the *Institutos de Formação de Professores* (IFP) through a program of refurbishment and construction. The theoretical function of these institutions is to prepare teachers for both cycles of primary education, while the universities prepare teachers for Grades 8-12. In practice, however, many students are deployed in secondary schools since the output of the universities is limited and, of those who complete their course of training, many are attracted to work outside teaching. There is a danger, perhaps, that IFPs could become “stretched” in the future unless they are able to focus on their intended function, in which case massive reform of teacher education provision in the universities would be necessary. The development reflects the provisions of the national teacher education strategy – the establishment of a single teacher education institution to help improve the status of the former CFPPs – although it does not necessarily address another issue raised in the strategy, the need for phase specialization, especially in early childhood education, within these institutions. There is a danger perhaps in all the countries that progress made recently in the provision of primary/basic teacher education will be undermined by the drive to open access too quickly to secondary education.

In the case of Togo, there remains a clearly defined relationship between the different kinds of providers and the age-range/phase structure of the delivery system, since little change has taken place within the system in recent years: *L'Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs et d'Institutrices de Jardins d'Enfants* prepares teachers for pre-school and offers INSET; *L'Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs et d'Institutrices* prepares teachers for primary schools and offers INSET; and *L'Ecole Normale Supérieure* prepares teachers for both the first and second cycles of secondary education.

6.1.4 Institutionalization of Inservice Teacher Education (INSET) and Continuing Professional Development

There is a confusion between *inservice teacher education* and *continuing professional development* (CPD) which requires clarification in the planning in some of the countries. The terms tend to be used interchangeably, whereas what is usually taking place is INSET, training teachers to implement an innovation in the sector such as a new school curriculum. CPD on the other hand should be used to describe those opportunities teachers have for their own personal professional development such as credit bearing courses leading to an advanced qualification and linked to a career path, possibly within the framework of a national qualifications framework. Much of the provision in all the countries falling under these headings takes the form of teacher *upgrading*, most frequently in the form of training for untrained teachers. Indeed, in the case of Mozambique, the only PRESET teachers receive is ‘on-the-job’ training, since many have been appointed to primary and especially secondary schools without any professional preparation of any kind.

Togo has perhaps gone further than any of the other countries, in theory at least, in seeking to institutionalize both INSET and CPD, with the establishment of *La Direction de la Formation Permanente de l’Action et de la Recherche Pédagogique* (DIFOP). The brief of DIFOP covers not only CPD for teachers, but also upgrading for other professionals, including administrators, and the improvement of quality in education delivery based on research.

Links between initial teacher education (ITE) and CPD are mostly lacking, although in both Uganda and Ghana teacher education institutions have a responsibility for the delivery of both modes. Within the post-primary sub-sector, both Uganda and Ghana seek to promote science and mathematics education in order to meet the demand for teachers.

INSET/CPD is most frequently delivered through a national system of resource centers. The networks were usually established as a result of *project* activity. When project funding ceased the effectiveness of the system tended to diminish and there is a need to revitalize the resource centre provision in some countries. In Uganda the network remains incomplete, although the system, where it is in place, is working well.

Zambia has established a *school-based* system of delivery for INSET/CPD. There are plans that this should be linked to a national credit system leading to higher qualifications, but this has not yet been realized. The limited links between the ministry and the University of Zambia act as a major constraint on this development. While accepting the national benefits of university autonomy, it could be argued that national ministries in some of the countries need to have more influence on enrolment to teacher education courses and their content, if the demand for post-primary teachers is to be met.

A major problem with both resource centre-based and school-based INSET and CPD provision, and indeed in distance learning – a major feature of provision in Mozambique in particular – is that it is mainly targeted in the countries involved in the study on primary/basic school teachers. It has been much more difficult to engage post-primary teachers in this form of teacher education provision.

6.2 Planned Reforms

There are clearly common trends in the reform of teacher education systems in all the countries involved. Togo and Mozambique, however, are focusing efforts to establish an appropriate base for development. Togo, with the return of external funding, has planned a comprehensive strategy for the reform of teacher education, both PRESET/ITE and INSET/CPD, which will redefine the activities and responsibilities of the teacher education institutions. Mozambique, despite having approved a comprehensive teacher education strategy, continues to deal with what is viewed as an ‘emergency’ situation and seeks to offer minimal training to its many un- or under-trained teachers.

Other countries are seeking to locate more teacher education activities within the university sector (Zambia, Ghana) and to encourage the preparation of more science and mathematics teachers (Ghana, Uganda). Ghana is encouraging its universities to train more technical and vocational education teachers, while Uganda is developing a vocational qualifications framework based on an act of parliament.

6.3 Accreditation and Award-Granting Bodies

There is a general trend in all the countries involved towards institutional accreditation and award-granting. In Togo, the institutions are already responsible for their courses and awards. In both Ghana and Uganda the universities are responsible for both, but in the case of Ghana this is supported by an external body for both institutional and course accreditation (*National Accreditation Board*). Zambia is seeking to involve the university much more in teacher education provision. The secondary teacher education colleges will receive *university college* status in 2008 and negotiations are taking place to affiliate the (primary) colleges of education to the university. Planning for a national qualifications authority is at an early stage. In Mozambique, the universities are autonomous, but there is a proposal for a national council for accreditation and quality.

7. TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

7.1 Multiple Course Provision

There is a lack of evidence of detailed and long-term planning in the teacher education sub-sector in most of the country systems studied, although change has often been rapid and extensive. The only country in which there has been little change over the recent past is Togo, where teacher education developments simply have not been possible following the withdrawal of external support. In all the other four countries, the studies report many developments and activities in the sub-sector, although the planning base for these is in some cases, at best, unclear and, at worst, seemingly absent.

Developments which have taken place appear to target teacher shortages generally, the need to offer often minimal training to untrained teachers, and the demand for upgrading opportunities by teachers. The result is a multiplicity of teacher education programs leading to trained or qualified status, with little evidence of any kind of single *national* program of initial preparation being planned. The problem is more acute in the primary/basic sub-sector. For example, in Mozambique in 2000 it was found that teachers teaching in grades 1-7 at that time had entered teaching through as many as 23 different routes.⁵ While such a multiplicity of course provision was not evident in the preparation of secondary school teachers in the country studies, there was little evidence, with the exception of Togo for the reasons cited earlier, of an initial teacher education course which was common to all secondary school teachers.

In Ghana, for example, there are 2-, 3- and 4-year course variants all of which lead to the same qualification (*Diploma*). These are delivered using a variety of modes including distance education, “sandwich” courses, as well as the usual full-time residential course. With such a wide variety of course provision – and Ghana is by no means exceptional in this respect – there must be important implications for quality assurance procedures. The wide variety of course provision in all the countries except Togo and the different “institutional interpretations” of the courses militate against the implementation of an effective system of quality assurance.

In some of the course provision, notably in Mozambique, the distinction between initial training and inservice training has become blurred. Courses for untrained teachers in the *Crescer* program, for example, are referred to as *inservice* provision or even *continuing professional development*. In effect, however, these courses might more appropriately be viewed as *initial* training, if not *preservice*, since the target students are teachers who, although already serving, have had no training whatsoever. The original planning of this kind of training, which has also been common in the recent past to other countries in the study, envisaged a close relationship between the courses and continuing inservice provision. In practice, however, this intended articulation between the two modes of teacher education has not materialized and the initiative has retained its original purpose of seeking to address an emergency or crisis situation.

7.2 Post-Primary Initial Teacher Education Course Provision

7.2.1 Course hierarchy

There is within course provision a rigid hierarchy which perpetuates differences between teachers in primary/basic education and those in post-primary education. These differences apply to the institutional location of the training, length of training, the end of course qualification, the salaries of teachers, and, perhaps most importantly the status these teachers enjoy in society. There is, however, no place in this hierarchy for teachers in the TVET sub-sector, which, despite a recognition of the importance of TVET, most often remains underprovided for and of relatively low status.

⁵ Study undertaken to inform the planning of Danida support to the education sector in Mozambique, Danida, 2000

Institutional training for lower and middle basic teachers tends to be undertaken in a *college of education* or similar institution. Traditionally, these have been under the direct responsibility of the relevant ministry, although increasingly they have become or are planned to become part of the university sector. Teachers for upper basic and lower secondary schools are more often educated in a university sector institution, although not in the universities themselves. Training for teachers at the upper secondary level is located within the universities themselves in all the countries involved in the study.

These differentials are perhaps most clearly seen in the Zambian system, although the general pattern of and trends in provision are seen in all the countries. In Zambia, teachers in lower and middle basic schools receive their professional preparation in the *colleges of education*, which remain the direct responsibility of the ministry although planning for affiliating them to the University of Zambia are now at an advanced stage. Teachers for upper basic and lower secondary schools follow their course at a *secondary teachers' college*, which will soon achieve *university college* status, while those for upper secondary schools have traditionally been trained in the university.

Similar differentials are apparent in the length of training students for each sub-sector receive, although in this case the differences are more blurred and less pronounced. Perhaps this trend is best illustrated by practice in Mozambique, where teachers for basic schools receive minimal training of 1 year, if indeed any, whereas, until recent plans to cut the period have been introduced, secondary school teachers have received 5 years of training.

There is also evident in all countries differential qualifications for the three levels identified. As a general rule, lower and middle basic teachers receive a *certificate* or its equivalent, upper basic teachers receive a *diploma* or its equivalent, and upper secondary teachers are awarded a degree. It should not be assumed, however, that in practice all teachers possess the qualification intended for the relevant phase of education. Teacher demand has often forced the authorities to deploy teachers who do not possess the appropriate qualification.

In most cases, the qualification gained by the teacher largely determines the salary s/he will receive. The fundamental criterion on which salary scales are established is the *qualification* a teacher has, rather than the *role* s/he undertakes. Teachers, therefore, often chase qualifications to improve their salaries through one of the many upgrading courses available.

Perhaps the most serious impact of this hierarchical provision is on the status of the teachers in society generally. Implicit in the structure is an undervaluing of the teacher in the earlier grades when compared with a teacher at secondary level, which is likely to impact upon the recruitment of good students to primary teacher education courses. With more emphasis likely to be given to the development of secondary education provision in the coming years, there is again a danger that some of the progress experienced in primary/basic education in the recent past will be undone as more of the better teachers in this phase seek to improve their conditions through 'promotion' to the secondary school.

7.2.2 Nature of course provision

Traditionally, most countries have prepared teachers with a single teaching subject in the belief that such a strategy would promote the academic excellence they were seeking in their graduates from secondary schools. With an increasing demand for secondary school places, however, there is a growing realization that a teacher with two teaching subjects allows for much more flexibility in the staffing of a school than one with a single teaching subject.

In the case of Togo, one of the two subjects is viewed as *major (la discipline dominante)*, while the other is the *minor subject (sous-dominante)*. While the Togolese country study recognizes the economic and teacher supply benefits of the two teaching subjects, it also questions the impact of the

model on the quality of education provision, suggesting that at the upper secondary level teachers could be overburdened and their competences too thinly spread.

Country studies are unanimous in their critique of the methodologies employed in the delivery of the courses. Courses tend to be excessively theoretical, with a continuing emphasis on the educational disciplines of psychology, sociology, philosophy, history etc. with insufficient links to classroom practice. There is also a general tendency to promote *subject knowledge* at the expense of *professional practice*, although this is understandable to an extent in countries such as Mozambique in which students enter teacher education courses with such poor academic qualifications. Poor entry qualifications are less of a problem in some of the other countries such as Uganda, but even in these cases the overly academic approach tends to dominate course delivery.

Most of the studies also make mention of the *teacher-centered* approach adopted in course delivery. Since most, if not all, of the countries have developed policy which seeks to promote a more *learner-centered* approach in the classroom, it is highly likely that students will be confused by the dissonance between what they are being taught and how they are being taught it.

7.2.3 School experience

It is generally recognized that time spent in school is a critical element in any course of initial teacher education. It is present in all course provision in each of the five countries involved in the study, although generally its potential benefits fail to be fully realized. Among the problems identified in the country studies are the following:

- Poor supervisory arrangements (Mozambique, Zambia)
- Lack of experience and training among school staff (mentors) in supervision (Mozambique, Zambia)
- Lack of a relationship between the teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum (Zambia)
- Mismatch between practice in the schools and in the teacher education institutions (Togo)
- School practice remains separate from or “tacked onto” the institutional course (Zambia)

It should be noted that Uganda has sought to integrate school practice much more into the overall course provision, but only in the case of those students training for work in primary schools. Uganda has two blocks of school practice, one in each year of the course, rather than the one which is common to most of the other countries. Students in Uganda also go into school over the period of a month in order to complete a child study.

Generally, however, there is a lack of integration of school practice into other aspects of the courses and there is a limited view adopted of this course element. Uganda, for example, in its requirement for a child study, is the only country which requires the student to do anything other than simply *practice* in the school.

7.3 Post-Primary INSET/CPD Course Provision

The opportunities for INSET and CPD in the countries involved in the study share three major characteristics. Firstly, they tend to be limited to primary/basic school teachers; secondly, they focus either on initiatives for training the untrained teachers in school or on upgrading for teachers, which often results for the successful in a move from primary/basic education to secondary education; and, thirdly, all the initiatives might more appropriately be described as INSET rather than CPD.

Most of the countries involved seek to offer at least minimal training for those untrained teachers practicing in schools. Mozambique has developed the *Crescer* program under the auspices of the ministry and located in the basic teacher education institutions. Uganda has introduced a three-year

inservice program for untrained teachers, based on its primary teachers' colleges and their associated co-ordinating centers. The demand for such courses can be seen in the 400%+ increase in the intake to this course between 2003 and 2005. Ghana too has extensive provision for training the untrained teachers, mainly in the form of a four-year distance education program.

Upgrading programs are also common in the countries involved. Zambia, for example, upgrades teachers from "certificate" to "diploma" level through a distance learning program, although this again is limited to teachers working in basic schools. Uganda has a similar course provision. While the upgrading often results in a move from primary school to secondary school for many of the teachers, Togo is unique among the countries involved in that it identifies specifically and offers the upgrading required by a primary school teacher if s/he wishes to transfer to or, as it is generally viewed, be "promoted" to the secondary school.

Opportunities for post-primary teachers are less common. The Uganda study reports an upgrading course for secondary school teachers which is significantly oversubscribed since it is the only way in which promotion in secondary schools, which is limited to deputy headships or headships, might be attained. In Mozambique too, a distance program, due to begin in 2008, has been planned and prepared to ensure that all secondary school teachers receive minimum levels of training. Mozambique has also sought to improve mathematics and science teaching in secondary schools through the inservice program *Programa de Formação de Professores em Exercício* (PROFOPE), although this has so far been available to few teachers. In all these upgrading courses, heavy reliance is placed on the distance education mode.

The opportunities for genuine CPD are less frequent. Togo is unique in having a unit in the ministry solely responsible for CPD (*La Direction de la Formation Permanente, de l'Action et de la Recherche* (DIFOP)), although activities have been severely limited because of the lack of external funding. The *Zambian School In-service Program for a Term* (SPRINT) has been successfully introduced into primary schools and offers the potential to satisfy teachers professional development needs, although it has mainly been used as inservice provision rather than CPD, since the planned credit system, which would allow teachers to build a professional qualification, has not yet been initiated. Moreover, efforts to introduce SPRINT into secondary schools have met with less success.

Uganda and Zambia in particular report a national system of resource centers which *could* provide an appropriate structure for the provision of both INSET and CPD. In Zambia this continues to support the SPRINT initiative, although both country studies report a dwindling effectiveness following the withdrawal of external support to the initiatives.

7.4 TVET

If there is a need for the further planning and provision of both initial teacher education and INSET/CPD for basic education and, in particular, secondary education teachers, the TVET sub-sector is characterized by an almost total lack of training opportunities in all the countries represented in the study.

In Ghana the universities are being encouraged to expand their current course provision in order to meet the needs of teachers in technical and vocational education institutions. There appear to be, however, no clearly defined strategies to ensure that this body of teachers receive either initial or inservice training. Uganda has made some initial moves to meet these needs. There is a recognition that training teachers for the TVET sub-sector is a critical issue and a Ugandan vocational qualifications framework is being established and some needs are being addressed through the a teacher development and management plan. The sub-sector is also benefiting from an EC-funded project to develop human resource in the health sector by targeting health trainers in TVET institutions.

Apart from these relatively minor initiatives there appears to be few training opportunities for TVET trainers. Indeed, the Mozambique study raises an even more basic constraint to the development of the sub-sector when it notes the absence of a strong link between the secondary school curriculum and the needs of the labor market. The secondary school programs, at least in Mozambique, have not been adjusted to reflect the changes in the labor market and the demand for competences relevant to a technology-driven global economy.

7.5 Educating the Teacher Educators and Other Sector Professionals

All the countries involved recognize the importance of teacher educators in the provision of quality education. Appointment to the position of teacher educator tends to be on the basis of academic qualification (see section 5.3), however, and little attention is paid to the appropriateness of the teacher educator's experience. Most are drawn from the body of secondary school teachers and there is a belief in all the countries concerned that teacher educators require a specific course of training.

Indeed, in Uganda a program leading to the award to Bachelor of Teacher Education (BTE) has been established drawing on an earlier diploma course at Kyambogo University. The university also offers a certificate in teacher education proficiency (C-TEP) for those already working as teacher educators, although this is limited to staff training teachers for primary schools in the primary teachers' colleges. While the developments in Uganda are not yet reflected in the other country studies, it is clear that all the countries view courses for intending teacher educators as the most effective way forward and are actively considering the establishment of such courses.

Training for other education sector professionals, in particular for headteachers and inspectors/advisers/standards officers whose role is so vital for the provision of quality in education delivery, remains largely absent. Where it is offered, it appears to be on an *ad hoc* basis. The very change in the terminology, however, from *inspectors* to *advisers* or *standards officers* indicate a major redefinition of the role of these professionals which they are unlikely to be able to fulfill without significant training opportunities.

8. PROFILES

8.1 Student Teachers

A major feature of the student teacher profile in the studies is the difference between the entry standards *planned* and the *actual* entry requirements applied. Teaching remains in most of these countries a relatively unattractive profession and the most able candidates are lost to other professions and jobs. The competitive market for students appears to be most keenly felt in Ghana and Mozambique. In Mozambique, entry requirements have been lowered, while in Ghana students have been required to follow access courses.

The problem is compounded in some countries (e.g. Mozambique), since not only have entry requirements been lowered, but also the length of initial teacher training has been reduced. It is assumed that initial teacher education programs will be complemented by inservice programs, but this requires a clear understanding and articulation between the two modes of provision which is often lacking.

In Mozambique, the problem is apparent at both primary/basic and post-primary levels. Entry requirements for primary teacher education courses are minimal. For post-primary, the issue is somewhat different. Post-primary teacher education is undertaken in the universities and selection is made after an entrance examination, but since the number of student places is so low the output of the courses cannot meet the demand for teachers. Indeed, many of the students who complete the course in the universities fail to enter the profession, choosing other career options. There are measures in the teacher education strategy for the provision of student incentives to improve recruitment, but these are not yet being implemented.

Togo has developed clearly defined entry requirements relating to teacher education for either of the two cycles of post-primary education. Since there has been no teacher education for more than ten years, however, these standards remain purely theoretical.

Ghana and Uganda have developed appropriate entry requirements, although, as noted earlier, Ghana especially has problems meeting recruitment targets without lowering the entry standards. Uganda has developed a career path based on qualification. A certificate holder with a specified grade or better can enroll for upgrading to diploma level and then, subject to meeting a defined standard, can continue onto a degree program in primary, secondary or vocational education.

8.2 Teachers

It is not surprising that, given the vagaries of the teacher education system in most of the countries, the teaching force is not homogeneous in terms of its qualifications and training. Mention has already been made (Section 4.1) of the 23 different routes through which teachers had entered teaching in Mozambique in the late 1990s. The route into teaching is no longer as varied, but in Mozambique there is nothing like a national ITE course for primary schools such as that in Zambia. Perhaps the most disturbing aspect of the teacher profile which is evident in most, if not all, of the countries involved, is the number of teachers at post-primary level who originally ‘trained’ – if less than a month’s training in some cases can count as professional preparation – to teach in primary schools. In the first cycle of secondary education in Mozambique, almost 80% of teachers are only ‘qualified’ to teach in primary schools.⁶ They have followed a two-year course of training following completion of Grade 10 or they have left school after Grade 12 and entered teaching without training. In the second cycle of secondary education (Grades 11 and 12) there are still more than 40% of teachers qualified to teach only in primary schools.

⁶ Source: Directorate of Planning (Ministry of Education) (2007)

The problem is not so acute in other countries – Uganda, for example, has an over-supply of secondary teachers in the humanities, but not in science and mathematics – but it is a problem common to all the countries in varying degrees. It is also important to remember in this respect that *no* teacher in Togo has received initial preparation for the past 15 years. The withdrawal of EU support to the education sector in Togo led to the creation of a new classification of teachers, *Enseignants Auxiliaires*. This body of teachers has essentially been supported exclusively through the support of *Coopération Française* and has had inferior conditions of service to the ‘trained’ teachers in the school. Salaries, for example, have been only 80% of the trained teacher’s, causing many to abandon the profession and exacerbating the problem of the supply of trained teachers even further. There is, however, a realistic hope that the situation will change rapidly following the elections in Togo in October 2007. External support is returning to the sector, but there remains the issue of the political will to put in place detailed plans for the preparation of teachers at all levels of the system.

The deployment of primary-trained teachers to secondary schools is, therefore, a common problem which has deleterious effects not only on post-primary schools, but also on the primary schools which have lost many of their best qualified teachers. It demonstrates the interrelatedness of the sub-sectors and is an indication, perhaps, of the dangers of an overly ambitious approach to increasing access to secondary education.

In terms of the gender ratio among teachers, there is a trend towards an equal balance between male and female teachers in primary schools in both Uganda and in Zambia, although male teachers still significantly outnumber female teachers in post-primary schools. In both countries, however, the number and proportion of female teachers in post-primary institutions is increasing. In Mozambique and Togo on the other hand, male teachers dominate at both the primary and post-primary levels.

8.3 Teacher Educators

It is generally acknowledged that teachers are the major key to quality education provision. The role of the teacher educator must, therefore, be crucial in this process. Given that, it is perhaps somewhat surprising that relatively little attention is given to the required professional and academic backgrounds, the selection and further training of teacher educators in the five countries.

Appointment as teacher educators, both for primary and post-primary courses, tends to be made on the basis of academic qualifications. In many countries those qualified academically to work in primary teacher education institutions are mainly secondary school teachers, with in the case of some countries (Ghana, Zambia) a minimum of 5 years’ teaching experience. In Mozambique, most, if not all, primary teacher educators are drawn from secondary schools, while in Zambia, although there is an official requirement that primary teacher educators should have primary teaching experience, this is regularly overlooked. Implicit in this practice is the widely held belief that the most important aspect of a teacher’s preparation is subject study and the need to master the *content* of the curriculum. It is, therefore, a practice which inhibits methodological change in the primary classroom, a planned development in many of the countries. It should also be noted that, once again, such a practice is detrimental to both the primary and post-primary sub-sectors; it draws (presumably good) teachers away from secondary schools and fails to introduce primary student teachers to contemporary primary practice.

In post-primary teacher education, the emphasis is even more on appointment by academic qualification. Some countries have introduced a requirement that all teacher educators should have teaching experience, but again this is regularly not applied and even new graduates are appointed to teacher education posts in the universities. In Ghana, the lack of suitably experienced and qualified applicants has forced universities to appoint fresh graduates to teach under the mentorship of an experienced colleague for an initial probation period of 2 years. It is not surprising, therefore, that many teachers at post-primary levels are seen as lacking in adequate pedagogical skills.

Appointment to positions in teacher education institutions appears to be undertaken centrally in most countries as part of the usual deployment procedures. In only one country study, Ghana, is there mention of a system involving advertisement of the post, applications from candidates and appointment as a result of interview.

A number of countries are exploring the potential of training courses for intending teacher educators. The development of such a course is on the agenda for both Mozambique and Zambia, but only for primary teacher educators. In Uganda, such courses are already being delivered. A diploma and a BEd program in teacher education are already being delivered, although these again are for those wishing to train primary school teachers. There are no preparatory courses for intending teacher educators within the secondary and vocational education sub-sectors.

8.4 Other Professionals

Appointees to other positions in the education sector in general and the teacher education sub-sector in particular – directors of institutions, headteachers, inspectors or education standards officers etc. – seem to be drawn exclusively from the teaching force in all the countries studied. The common criterion in all countries for promotion to these positions is again academic qualification. Moreover, there appears to be little training for these positions, although the training of headteachers is recognized as a major issue impacting upon the quality of education and a priority for future action (Mozambique). Some on-the-job training is offered to inspectors in Uganda and Ghana, especially in connection with their changing role in many countries from one based on *control* to one based on *support* and *guidance* for the teacher, but this is not yet institutionalized. There is a general underlying, implicit belief in all the countries that a good teacher will make an effective administrator.

In Ghana, however, plans are at an advanced stage to offer a university training course for intending inspectors and courses to prepare counselors and administrators for schools are already in operation. In Togo too, as part of its planned comprehensive reorganization of teacher education, the human resource development unit of the ministry will join forces with the *Ecole Nationale d'Administration* to prepare a modular provision specific to the needs of administrative personnel.

9. THE DEMAND, SUPPLY, RECRUITMENT AND DEPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS

9.1 Education Management and Information Systems (EMIS)

All five countries have developed EMIS. Four, however, report significant weaknesses in the systems, since the data available are incomplete. For example, all five countries have presented data on the prevalence of HIV/AIDS, but in none of the countries is it possible to identify rates of infection among teachers. There is, therefore, a lack of information on the potential impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on attrition rates in teaching profession and the causes of attrition generally are seldom disaggregated. (See section 9.2.2).

The Togo study also notes that, by the time the information is available, it is often out-of-date and its accuracy has already been overtaken by developments in the system. In Uganda, during the period 2000-2006, the proportion of schools responding to the annual EMIS survey ranged from only 52% to 80%.

It is apparent, therefore, that, although EMIS systems have generally been established, their reliability is questionable, which could lead to major decisions on, for example, the demand and supply of teachers' being taken on the basis of inaccurate data. Moreover, there is evidence that, even when data appear to be available, it is often not utilized to improve the management of teachers or to support decision-making in critical areas such as teacher deployment.

9.2 Demand and Supply

9.2.1 Overall situation

It is clear from the country studies that the demand for teachers continues to increase, not only for secondary school teachers, but also for primary/basic school teachers, especially in the upper grades. When reporting national teacher demand and supply data, the countries in the study fall into two groups. In the first (Mozambique and Togo), the national authorities are striving to meet the demand for trained teachers across the system. In Mozambique, initial teacher education course duration has been cut to only one year for both primary and secondary school teachers, while in Togo encouragement has been given to the private sector to train teachers since government activity has been seriously limited due to the lack of external funding. In 2007, more than 50% of teachers of the overall Togolese teaching force was graduating from private institutions. Both situations, but especially that in Mozambique, provide concerns about the potential impact of such measures on the quality of education delivery.

In the remaining countries (Ghana, Uganda, and Zambia), considerable progress in meeting the demand for primary/basic school teachers has been made, especially in the lower and middle sub-phases, and it is in the upper basic and secondary sub-sectors where efforts are now mainly being concentrated, although in Ghana there is a continuing demand for teachers at the primary school level. In Uganda, there is an approximate balance between the number of teachers lost annually from primary education and the number of new entrants to the profession. Projections suggest, however, that the average annual growth in the primary school population will increase up to 2015 to an extent that the supply of primary school teachers will fail to meet the demand. There is an actual surplus of graduates in the humanities subjects in Uganda, although it remains difficult to recruit teachers of science and mathematics at the secondary level. In Zambia, however, supply is forecast to outstrip demand for lower and middle basic school teachers, while the supply will be insufficient to meet the demand at the upper basic and secondary school levels. It is estimated that the demand for teachers up until 2015 will grow at an average annual rate of 20% for upper basic school teachers and of 30% for secondary school teachers.

The lack of detail in the studies about the demand and supply of teachers in the TVET sub-sector is perhaps indicative again of the relatively low priority afforded in practice to the sub-sector, despite official recognition of its importance. The Ghana country study does note that in TVET the demand and supply situation is complicated since most of the teachers in the sub-sector have no *professional* qualification.

In summary, the countries in the study are confronted with a challenge: to provide sufficient, trained teachers for post-primary education, while at the same time ensuring that this is not achieved at the expense of the recent gains made in teacher supply to the primary/basic sub-sector.

9.2.2 Attrition

Attrition among the teaching cadre is identified as an issue in three of the country studies. Attrition rates in both Ghana and Mozambique are running at about 4% and, in the case of Mozambique, are projected to rise still further. In the case of both countries, there are, however, no disaggregated figures for primary and secondary school teachers available in the studies. Between 2007 and 2015, it is estimated that Zambia will lose 4670 teachers per year. The annual output of trained teachers is no more than 6000, which leaves less than 25% of the annual output of teachers for expansion needs. In Uganda, rates are even higher. In 2005, the attrition rate among primary school teachers stood at 5.3%, although this did fall to 4.3% in 2006, due, at least in part, to a 33% salary increase. Attrition rates among secondary school teachers are even higher. It has frequently been in the region of 7%, although it fell to 6% in 2006, the year of the salary increase. In most cases attrition data are not disaggregated by cause, although in the case of Ghana the major reasons for attrition are given as retirement, study leave, and more attractive positions. Study leave also accounted for a high percentage (28.4) of cases of attrition among secondary school teachers in Uganda, while 24.2% of cases resulted from resignation or dismissal. More worryingly, perhaps, are the cases (11.5%) which resulted from a transfer to a *non-teaching* post. None of the countries involved in the study report the number of cases of attrition specifically due to HIV/AIDS.

9.2.3 Disparities

There are a number of disparities in teacher supply and demand reported in the country studies. These fall mainly under three headings: regional disparities, specific subject shortages, and gender.

The Ghanaian, Ugandan, and Zambian studies all note the imbalance of teacher supply between the urban and rural areas. In general, schools in the more desirable, urban locations are able to attract and retain more and better qualified teachers. This is supported by some telling statistics in the Ugandan study. In Kampala, for example, 60% of secondary school teachers are graduates, while in the more remote areas of the north and north east of the country the figure is only 11%.

The same three countries also report a shortage of teachers of science and mathematics and of languages (Uganda) and technology (Ghana), although in the case of Zambia there is a lack of detailed data to describe the extent of the problem. The supply of teachers for these subjects is even more acute in schools in rural areas because mathematics and science teachers can easily find a post in what is perceived to be a more desirable urban location. The Ugandan study cites an example of a school in a rural area in which science and mathematics are taught by secondary school drop-outs. It also notes that only 19% of student teachers are following science and mathematics courses, while it is estimated that these subjects should occupy approximately 33% of timetabled teaching time. Moreover, only 20% of university students are enrolled on mathematics and science courses, so that there is likely to be even greater shortages in the future.

There is no reason to suppose that Mozambique and Togo are not themselves suffering this shortage. Indeed, the general lack of teachers in these two countries suggest that the shortage of teachers in these

subjects may be even more critical than in the other three, where the overall demand and supply situation is probably better.

In those countries which report on teacher supply by gender, there is an increasing number of female teachers at both primary/basic and at post-primary levels. In the primary/basic sub-sector there are approximately equal numbers of male and female teachers in Uganda and Zambia, while at the post-primary level the number of female teachers has increased significantly during the past decade. In Zambia, for example, 28% of the high school teaching force was female in 2000. By 2006, this had risen to 39%.

9.2.4 Strategies to address the issues

A number of strategies are being or have been developed to address the demand for teachers at the secondary level. Specifically on the issue of shortage subjects, for example, it is now compulsory for secondary school students in Uganda to study mathematics and three science subjects.

In order to address the shortage of teachers generally at both the primary and secondary levels there is a strategy which appears common to all the countries in the study: increasing the student-teacher ratio (STR). In the case of Zambia, the danger of adopting such a strategy is limited. The STR in 2007 in Zambian secondary schools averaged 22, but there were instances where it was as low as 15. High schools will be able to make significant increases to their enrolments without the need to recruit additional teachers, if the STR was raised to 28.1 as proposed in the national *EFA Implementation Framework*. On the other hand, STR in lower and middle basic classes are rising to levels which could be viewed as posing a serious threat to the quality of education delivery (64 in 2007), which in effect means that more than 43% of teachers in these classes are working 'double shifts'. Once again there is some evidence that responding to the demand for increased provision of secondary education could have a serious negative impact on gains which have been made in the basic education sub-sector.

The impact of increasing secondary school enrolment in Uganda is less dramatic. During the period 2000-2006, student numbers rose by 57%. This was accompanied, however, by a 40% increase in the number of teachers (more than 2000 additional teachers each year) which resulted in a moderate increase in the STR from 17 to 19. Ghana also is seeking to address teacher demand, at least in part, through an increasing STR. In 2002 the STR in junior high schools stood at 18.1. By 2005, it had risen to 19.7 and it is projected to rise to 25.0 in 2015. The respective figures for senior high schools are 19.1 (2002), 19.8 (2005) and 22.0 (2015).

It should be noted that, if effective gains are to be made through the improvement of teacher utilization and deployment as described above, a reliable EMIS with disaggregated data is crucial in order to support those responsible for managing the system.

Perhaps the most worrying strategy being adopted in order to address the shortage of teachers at the secondary level is the redeployment of teachers in primary schools as secondary school teachers. Mention has already been made (section 4.3) of the opportunities primary school teachers in Togo have of following a course which results in their 'upgrading' to secondary school teachers. The Zambian study also notes instances of primary school teachers being deployed in upper basic classes or even within secondary schools themselves. It is likely that this practice is not limited to Togo and Zambia and that it is commonly found in all the countries involved.

9.3 Recruitment and Deployment of Teachers

All the countries involved in the study employ deployment procedures which are to differing degrees centralized. For most, it is an administrative process in which ensuring the match between the teacher and the school/role to be undertaken is of secondary importance. Only in Ghana are schools

themselves encouraged to appoint their own staff according to their needs according to a nationally determined establishment for each school.

In both Togo and Uganda, appointments to secondary schools are made on a competitive basis, although this is not possible in the shortage subjects highlighted in the previous section. Following the *concours* in Togo, the successful candidates are deployed by the regional authorities and teachers often resign after a short period having been placed in schools or areas where they do not wish to live. In Uganda, secondary teachers are deployed centrally, although primary school teachers are first allocated to the districts and then deployed to schools from the district offices.

The system of secondary school teacher deployment in Uganda compounds the disparities identified in the previous section:

- Geographical
- Shortage subjects
- STR

Although it is a major measure of the Mozambican strategy for teacher education, no country involved in the study has yet sought to establish a system of deployment to school which seeks to provide an improved match between teacher qualifications, experience and interests and the specific circumstances of the schools to which they are being deployed. Such a system would probably have to involve the advertisement of the post, followed by applications submitted by the candidates and, where feasible, interviews to decide upon the teacher to be appointed.

10. TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM

10.1 Conditions of Service

10.1.1 Teacher salaries: some common issues

The issue of teachers' salaries in the five countries is complex, but there are a number of relatively common features which emerge from the studies:

- Salaries are generally low in comparison with other jobs requiring similar qualifications
- Salaries are generally determined by academic qualification, taking little consideration of the role undertaken by the teacher
- There tends to be a significant differential between the salaries of primary school teachers and those of teachers in post-primary education
- There are some plans for performance appraisal, but little implementation
- There are few positions of responsibility in the school structure which could be could attract salary increases
- Promotional routes tend to be into secondary posts for primary school teachers or into administrative positions

10.1.2 Low salaries

All country studies report relatively low salaries for teachers. Salary levels are a major cause of the low morale noted in many of the studies (see, for example, Ghana and Togo). They cause teachers to look for a second source of income, often to the detriment of their performance in school. Additionally, however, salary levels pose two major threats to the education system itself. Firstly, recruitment to the profession becomes difficult with many of the better students lost to other professions and, secondly, they are seen as a major reason for attrition which is already increasing in some systems due to death by HIV/AIDS.

10.1.3 Criteria determining teachers' salaries

In all the countries the level of salary is largely or in most cases wholly determined by academic qualification. In Zambia, however, the performance of the teacher as measured in an annual appraisal acts as a trigger for progression on the incremental scale. Similarly, in Ghana teachers can be recommended for accelerated progression. In Uganda a 'scheme of service', which would allow for increased salaries for teachers, based on their classroom performance, has been planned since 2003. The scheme will be piloted in 2008.

10.1.4 Salary differentials

Closely linked to the emphasis on academic qualifications for determining salary levels are the differentials which exist between the salaries of primary school teachers and those of secondary school teachers. The Mozambique study notes a significant differential and the severe constraints that current salary levels impose on government in seeking to expand access to secondary schools. Yet, even with such relatively generous salaries for secondary school teachers, they still suffer from low morale and many are still leaving teaching for better paid jobs. In Uganda, the differential is perhaps even more pronounced. Even though university graduates spend only one year more in education than diploma holders, their salaries can be as much as three times higher. Perhaps not surprisingly, a proposal to reduce the salaries of teachers in post-primary education in order to lessen the differential received little support. It is now anticipated that the secondary teacher development management plan, which is under preparation, will propose mechanisms to link more closely the financial rewards teachers receive to the actual work and workload they undertake.

10.1.5 Within-school promotion

Schools, both primary and secondary, in all the countries are characterized by a ‘flat’ structure, in which the only opportunities for promotion within the school are to deputy headteacher and headteacher levels. The structure in secondary schools in a few cases allows a little more opportunity for in-school promotion with head of department positions. The Zambia study reports an increased opportunity for promotion in small rural schools because of the relatively high turnover of staff. It is evident, however, that the internal structure of schools in all countries acts as a major disincentive and provides little opportunity for career advancement. Schools in most countries adopt a ‘flat’ structure with few positions of responsibility available for those teachers wishing to seek in-school promotion.

10.1.6 Promotional routes

With absence of opportunity for promotion within the school, ambitious teachers have to look elsewhere. Teachers in all the countries are active in the academic ‘paper chase’, which they see as the most effective means of gaining promotion and increased benefits. Since salaries are largely tied to academic qualifications, however, such promotion often involves teachers moving out of the classroom and into better paid positions in administration. Many primary school teachers view ‘promotion’ to secondary schools as their best opportunity once they have undertaken the necessary academic upgrading. The negative impact of such practice has been noted elsewhere (see section 5.2). It is also important to note the implicit value placed on primary/basic education and the impact this will have on the teachers left behind in these schools.

10.2 Incentives

Incentives are often used in the countries in the study to alleviate the problems faced by teachers due to low salaries, and to improve the retention of teachers in the system. Unfortunately, in the cases of Mozambique and Togo, the incentives available to teachers are limited. The provision of housing for teachers appears to be a priority, although Mozambique has sought to address the problem of teacher recruitment in the rural areas with an addition to the salary which can vary between 20% and 100%, dependent on the distance of the school from an urban area and the category of teacher concerned. In Mozambique and in other countries, teachers also receive an allowance for ‘double shift’ teaching which can be as much as a 60% supplement for primary school teachers and 25% for headteachers. Teacher educators also receive an allowance for undertaking extra duties.

In the other three countries, incentives are varied. Ghana focuses its resources on the rural areas, while incentives are applied more generally in Uganda and Zambia. Incentives noted in the country studies include:

- In Ghana:
 - Provision of bicycles
 - Free housing
 - Shorter period of service to qualify for study leave

- In Uganda:
 - Secondary teachers can receive a supplement of up to 25% through funds raised by school fees
 - Pensions
 - Study leave with pay
 - Maternity leave with pay
 - Scholarships

- In Zambia:
 - Rural hardship allowances
 - Retention allowances
 - ‘Double class’ allowances
 - Extra duty allowances

While it is easy to understand the rationale for such incentives, it is equally important to recognize that their impact on the quality of education might be negative (‘double-class’ and ‘double shift’ payments, extra duty allowance etc.) as well as positive (easier access to study leave, scholarships etc.).

10.3 Professional Development Opportunities

Many of the incentive mechanisms described in the previous section would not be necessary if sufficient career and professional development opportunities were available to teachers. All of the countries in the study view the creation of professional development opportunities linked to an appropriate career structure as one of the most important strategies to address poor salaries. It is also central to the improvement of education delivery in the countries concerned.

As noted earlier, there is a lack of such opportunities currently and those which exist tend to be in the form of INSET, rather than CPD (see section 3.1.4). Evidence of the creation of a career structure for teachers is limited. In Togo, however, there is extensive action planned for the development of human capacity among practicing teachers, while the creation of a detailed career structure for all education sector professionals is a key feature of the national strategy for teacher education. In Uganda, the development of a career path for teachers has already been initiated. The teacher education department has been charged with identifying standards for recruitment, training and professional growth over a teacher’s career and with designing a matching promotional ladder. A key feature of this development is the preparation of detailed and specific job descriptions, roles and responsibilities for all teachers at all levels of the system.

10.4 Related Bodies

All the countries in the study have one or more unions representing teachers and other education sector professionals. There does, however, appear to be a paradigm shift in the roles undertaken by the unions. In Ghana, for example, while continuing to lobby for and negotiate improved conditions of service for teachers, unions are now involved in advocacy on behalf of the teaching profession, in providing courses to update their members’ knowledge, and in offering loans to teachers for cars and housing. In Uganda, unions sponsor and undertake research, promote quality education and gender equity; they conduct INSET for both primary teachers and primary teacher educators with support from the Canadian Teachers’ Federation, and they support the ministry in the implementation of the HIV/AIDS workplace policy. In Zambia, the teachers’ unions find themselves involved in the management of the system at the lower levels. They assist, for example, in the disbursement of loans and housing allowances. Zambian unions are also involved in teacher education, in the sponsorship of teachers for further study, and in the provision of housing allowances. Unions, therefore, are becoming more actively involved in the *professionalisation* of teachers, while retaining a major role as the guardian of their conditions of service.

All the countries have a body such as a teachers’ service commission, although it is named differently in the different countries. The role undertaken by these bodies varies, but it often involves the recruitment, appointment and discipline of teachers. The Ghana Education Service has a more extended role, acting on behalf of the ministry in the implementation of all approved national policies and programs relating to pre-tertiary education.

In both Uganda and Ghana, there has been an increase recently in the number of these bodies established to support the development of education generally and to help guarantee quality in the system. The National Council for Higher Education was created in Uganda to regulate and guide the establishment and management of higher/tertiary institutions and to ensure consistency of standards in the awards made both within and between institutions. The National Council for Tertiary Education adopts a similarly important role in Ghana. In addition, it is important to note the creation in Ghana under *Education Reform 2007* of a national teaching council – responsible for registering and licensing teachers and for all matters of professional standing and status – and a council for technical and vocational education, the function of which includes the recommendation of national policies, the facilitation of research and development in the TVET system, and the rationalization of the assessment and certification systems.

11. RESEARCH AND QUALITY

11.1 Research

The view of research presented in the country studies is limited. It is clear that it is viewed mainly as an activity carried out by the universities. In Uganda, however, there are a number of research studies which have been carried out, often with technical assistance, under the auspices of an evaluation co-ordination unit in the ministry. In Zambia too, the ministry has a limited research program which seeks to inform policy development, while Togo plays an active role in CONFEMEN research activities.

Much of the research undertaken tends to be academic and theoretical in nature and too often the researchers themselves have little or no experience of the classroom. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that it has made little contribution to improving classroom practice and to the planning of teacher. Ghana, however, has established a research centre in which the focus is on the provision of quality; Togo, in its contribution to CONFEMEN activities has sought to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of its schools and to improve national capacity in evaluation; and research efforts in Uganda have also targeted school effectiveness.

In none of the countries under consideration is there evidence of a developed research culture present throughout the system. Research has a limited definition and fails to include, for example, the teacher as a classroom researcher or course planning as a relevant research activity for teacher educators.

There are, however, a few activities described in the studies which suggest a broadening definition of research and an increased participation of sector professionals in the research community. For example, in Mozambique the strategy for teacher education seeks to identify and develop a clear link between research and quality in education; in Zambia, the notion of ‘teacher as researcher’ is a key principle on which SPRINT was developed, although this remains to be put into practice; and in both Togo and Mozambique action research is beginning to be introduced into teacher education courses.

In summary, research undertaken in the countries tends to be within a university setting; it is often overly academic in nature, and is not necessarily related to national educational needs. Most importantly perhaps, even where relevant research has been undertaken, its relevance is usually limited to primary/basic education. Post-primary education in general and TVET in particular appear to be neglected fields for research. It is crucial that, if, as seems likely, post-primary education is set for considerable expansion, a body of research is developed to provide a sound basis for sub-sector planning.

11.2 Quality

There is an almost total absence in the country studies of any discussion, or even reference to discussion, of what constitutes ‘quality’ in the different national systems. The Ghanaian study refers to ‘performance indicators’, although these are not described. The Ugandan study does make reference to a number of ‘pedagogic weaknesses’ implying a national view of quality in classroom delivery, but it fails to describe the mechanisms by which quality is assured. The weaknesses described, which are likely to be general across the countries involved include:

- Poor planning
- Non-participatory nature of classroom practice
- An approach which is authoritarian, teacher-centered, mechanical, repetitive, and focused on the recall of information
- Under-use of teaching aids and textbooks
- Low order questioning techniques

- Irregular marking
- Lack of systematized record keeping

The quality assurance mechanisms described in the studies share a number of common features. Firstly, it is evident that there is in most of the countries studied a lack of a fully-fledged, national system of quality assurance. Ghana, however, is the most obvious exception, where there is a system of both external quality assurance through a national accreditation board and institutional arrangements based on internal units within the institutions.

Secondly, even in the case of the Ghana, it is evident that here, as in all the other countries in the study, there is a clear division between the universities and other institutions. Universities are described as self-regulatory in all the countries, whereas quality assurance in teachers' colleges, secondary schools and like institutions remains the responsibility of what historically has been called an 'inspectorate'. Some interesting changes in the role of the inspectorate, however, are described. 'Inspectors' in Zambia have become 'standards officers' with less emphasis on the inspectorial aspects of their role and much more on the advisory. The Zambian study notes, however, the difficulties faced by many in making the attitudinal changes necessary to fulfill the new role effectively. Perhaps the most interesting change to the traditional inspector's role is taking place in Togo. The *Inspection Générale de l'Éducation* (IGE) was established by ministerial decree only in 2005. IGE has a much more extended role than that traditionally associated with the inspectorate. In effect, IGE is central to the development and implementation of national education policy in TOGO. Specifically, it participates in the validation of teaching programs for the professional development of teachers and other professionals, and in the recruitment, initial training and continuing professional development of all education sector professionals.

Thirdly and, it could be argued, most importantly, there is no mention of *internal* mechanisms to ensure quality outside of the university sector and it is *external* procedures which dominate practice. It would appear that schools and even tertiary education institutions such as the teachers' colleges have not been encouraged to develop and institute their own procedures for ensuring quality and that any linkages which might exist between research and quality are generally weak.

Indeed, quality itself remains an elusive concept; there is little *explicit* discussion of what might constitute 'quality' in each of the national contexts. It is perhaps not surprising, therefore, that there is an absence of clear benchmarks and quality assurance mechanisms against which quality can be assessed.

12. RECOMMENDATION AND SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

12.1 Recommendation

During the preparation of the country studies and of this synthesis report, it became apparent that there is a need for the further study of a number of issues which this present study has raised, but which it has not been possible to address fully, given the constraints of time and the original objectives of the study. Among these possible focuses for critical analysis, which have arisen during the course of the study preparation, are:

- Issues of gender in post-primary teacher education, teacher recruitment and teacher deployment
- Teacher education curricula
- Profile of teacher educators
- Teacher career paths
- Internal structure of schools to ensure career opportunities for teachers in the classroom

In particular, however, the issue of the management and funding of teacher education, originally a topic to be covered in the study, is viewed by the members of the country teams as a priority topic for further exploration.

It is recommended, therefore, that:

The members of the five country teams are re-formed as a reference group for teacher education in order to establish and implement an agenda for further analysis based on the findings of this study.

12.2 Major Findings

The major findings which have been derived from the five country studies are presented under the major section headings of the main body of this report. It is felt inappropriate that the study should result in a number of recommendations, with the exception of the recommendation for further study in the previous paragraph, since circumstances vary from country to country. The major intention in presenting these findings is to assist ministries by identifying some of the major issues facing teacher education in general and post-primary teacher education in particular, so that they are able, firstly, to assess the relevance of the various issues in their particular context and, secondly, to have guidance about how different countries are actually starting to address them.

12.3 Contextual Framework

- i. The impact of the national historical, geo-political, and socio-economic contexts on the development of education in all the countries cannot be overestimated.
- ii. There is evident in most of the countries a significant “reality gap” between what has been planned for and what is actually being implemented. It is important that the reasons for such a gap are explored in order to remove wherever possible the constraints on development.
- iii. While there is an active planning environment evident in the primary/basic sub-sectors, planning for increased secondary education provision is less well advanced.
- iv. Planning for TVET and for the training of other sector professionals remains largely absent despite official recognition of their importance.

12.4 National Framework for the Delivery of Teacher Education

- i. There is a general consensus in the studies about the desired national vision of education and about the intended model of the teacher.
- ii. It is clear, however, that current practice in the most part fails to reflect those aspirations.
- iii. Planning for the teacher education sub-sector varies from country to country, but, where it does exist, it focuses mainly on teacher education for primary/basic schools.
- iv. Planning for secondary teacher education is less well developed and planning is largely absent for TVET.

12.5 Institutional Landscape

- i. Planning for teacher education, especially secondary teacher education, continues to be undertaken in “crisis” mode in some of the countries and ministries often have little or no control over the teacher education providers.
- ii. EFA and the introduction of basic education in many countries have required extensive changes to the institutional landscape, which are yet often incomplete, resulting in a mismatch between the functions of the teacher education institutions and the structure of the national school system.
- iii. There is some evidence that opening access to secondary education too quickly might undo some of the gains made in recent years in the primary/basic education sub-sector.
- iv. There is widespread confusion between the various terms used to describe the different functions of teacher education (*preservice, initial, inservice, and continuing professional development*).
- v. INSET/CPD tends not to be institutionalized and there are few linkages between all forms of initial teacher education and all forms of INSET/CPD.
- vi. Resource centers have considerable potential for the institutionalization of INSET/CPD, but in some countries the network has lost its effectiveness following the end of external support.
- vii. There are growing trends towards institutional accreditation and award-granting, and towards locating all teacher education activities within the university sector.

12.6 Teacher Education Programs

- i. There is no single national teacher education course in any of the countries involved and in some there is a multiplicity of course provision reflecting the circumstances in which they were planned, often as a response to an emergency situation.
- ii. Such variety in the provision of teacher education programs makes effective quality assurance difficult.
- iii. There is a continuing bipartite provision, in which intending primary/basic school teachers are trained in (usually ministry-administered) colleges, while secondary school teachers are usually the product of the universities, leading to teachers in the two phases acquiring differential status.
- iv. In post-primary teacher education there is a trend towards preparing teachers with two, rather than a single teaching subject, a strategy which offers increased flexibility in the deployment of teachers.
- v. The content of the various teacher education programs tends to be theoretical, with a continuing emphasis on the educational disciplines (history, psychology, sociology, philosophy) and on *subject knowledge* at the expense of *professional practice*.
- vi. The methodology adopted in the teacher education institutions tends to be *teacher-centered*, often at odds with national policy which seeks to promote more *learner-centered* approaches.
- vii. Opportunities for INSET/CPD are generally limited to teachers in the primary/basic sub-sector, they focus on untrained teachers or on upgrading, and they are INSET, rather than CPD, in nature.

- viii. Having received upgrading, many primary school teachers, often the best, seek “promotion” to the secondary school.
- ix. The TVET sub-sector is characterized by an almost total lack of planned provision for training its teachers.
- x. There is an evident belief in all the countries that it is necessary and possible to *train* teacher educators, although such training opportunities are currently limited.
- xi. Training for other sector professionals is extremely limited and where it does occur, most notably for headteachers, it is on an *ad hoc*, rather than a planned, basis.

12.7 Profiles of Key Actors

- i. In most of the countries recruitment targets for teacher education institutions have been difficult to meet and institutions have often been forced to lower entry requirements.
- ii. Many teachers working in post-primary institutions originally trained for the primary/basic sub-sector.
- iii. There is a general under-supply of teachers for post-primary institutions and this is most keenly felt in science and mathematics.
- iv. Although the number of female teachers in secondary schools is increasing, male teachers remain the significant majority.
- v. Little attention has been given to the required professional and academic background of teacher educators and to their selection and training.
- vi. In the primary/basic sub-sector teacher educators are usually drawn from the secondary schools, depleting further the post-primary teaching force. Such a practice places value on *content* in the educational process and militates against methodological change in the primary school.
- vii. Secondary teacher educators often have little or no classroom experience – indeed some are recruited immediately upon university graduation – and they are appointed solely on academic qualification.
- viii. A number of countries are exploring the potential of training courses for teacher educators, but these are limited to primary teacher educators. There are no preparatory courses for secondary or TVET teacher educators.
- ix. Other professionals such as administrators, school managers and inspectors are all drawn from the teaching force and appointed mainly on the basis of academic qualification, and they receive little or no training for their new roles.

12.8 The Demand, Supply, Recruitment, and Deployment of Teachers

- i. Although EMIS is established in all the countries, its reliability is questionable as it often fails to provide a comprehensive and accurate planning base.
- ii. In general the demand for teachers continues to outstrip the supply, not only for the post-primary sub-sector, but also for the primary/basic sub-sector.
- iii. Information about the demand for and supply of TVET teachers is generally lacking in the studies.
- iv. High rates of attrition are reported, although the reasons for teachers leaving the profession are often unclear and there are no disaggregated statistics for attrition due to HIV/AIDS.
- v. There are disparities in secondary teacher supply reported, especially between urban and rural areas, in the provision of teachers in the shortage subjects, and in the gender of teachers in secondary schools.
- vi. Countries are seeking to address these and more general teacher shortages by promoting science and mathematics training, increasing the STR, and, most worryingly perhaps, by redeploying primary school teachers into secondary schools.

- vii. The recruitment and deployment of teachers is mainly a centralized, administrative process and there is little evidence of seeking to match teacher experience and interests to the specific needs of a school.

12.9 Teacher Professionalism

- i. Across all the countries, teacher salaries remain relatively low when compared with those available in similar jobs and professions.
- ii. Salaries are determined almost exclusively on the basis of academic qualification rather than the role undertaken, resulting in significant differentials between salaries in secondary education and in primary/basic education.
- iii. In order to compensate for the low salaries and to retain teachers in the profession, incentives have been introduced such as housing, rural allowances, “double shift” allowances, easier access to study leave etc..
- iv. Some of the incentives employed – for example, “double class” and “double shift” allowances and extra duty allowances – could result in teacher fatigue and, therefore, in a deterioration of the quality of education delivered, if teachers are allowed or encouraged to take on too many duties.
- v. Although the provision of professional development opportunities for teachers is viewed as a priority in all the countries, initiatives remain largely at the planning stage.
- vi. The role of the teachers’ unions has changed radically in some of the countries in the study. No longer are they exclusively concerned with lobbying for and negotiating teachers’ conditions of service, they have become an important partner in promoting teachers’ professional development.

12.10 Research and Quality

- i. Research undertaken in the countries tends to be within a university setting; it is often overly academic in nature, and is not necessarily related to national educational needs.
- ii. Where relevant research has been undertaken, its relevance is usually limited to primary/basic education. Post-primary education in general and TVET in particular appear to be neglected fields for research
- iii. There is little evidence of a developing research culture throughout the system.
- iv. There is little explicit discussion in the studies of what constitutes quality in the different country settings.
- v. In most of the countries, a comprehensive, national system of quality assurance has not yet been fully developed.
- vi. A heavy reliance is placed on *external* quality assurance procedures and institutions generally have not yet developed *internal* mechanisms to ensure quality.

ANNEX

GUIDANCE TO COUNTRY STUDY TEAMS AND AGREED FRAMEWORK FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE COUNTRY STUDIES

ASSOCIATION FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN AFRICA (ADEA)

WORKING GROUP ON THE TEACHING PROFESSION (WGTP)

**STUDY ON THE PROVISION OF TEACHERS AND EDUCATION PERSONNEL FOR
POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION**

Guidance for Country Study Teams

Introduction

The following pages offer *guidance* to the writing teams responsible for the preparation of the five country studies which will form the basis of a synthesis report. It is intended that this report will offer to policy-makers an indication of some of the major challenges facing ministries as they seek to cater for the increasing enrolment in post-primary education and, where possible, the ways in which countries are starting to address these challenges.

A proposed outline for the country studies and the agreed framework for the preparation of the studies are included in these guidance notes. While it is important that the basic framework offered for the preparation of the country studies is adhered to, it is recognized equally that each report must reflect the particular circumstances of that country. Teams are encouraged, therefore, to use their knowledge and experience to make any amendments to this framework which they feel are necessary, while seeking at the same time to ensure that the intention behind the development of the framework – to provide an effective means of comparison – is maintained.

Some Basic Principles

There are a number of basic principles which should be borne in mind during the preparation process:

- i. The focus of all studies will be on the preparation of post-primary teachers, although it is likely that a wider perspective will be required at times
- ii. The study should also take account of the preparation of other professionals in the sub-sector, including institution managers, inspectors/advisers, pedagogical support personnel, mentors, counselors etc..
- iii. The reports should focus both on initial teacher education (preservice) and on continuing professional development (inservice)
- iv. Country teams should ensure that there is a *description* of the topics covered, and not only an *analysis*, so that comparisons between the current situations in each country might be compared.
- v. The reports should also consider all the different modes of delivery which are employed

Next Steps

The country studies will be presented at the second workshop which will be held in Maputo, Mozambique from 3-7 December 2007. In order to make effective preparations for that workshop, country writing teams should submit a draft of their reports, including the basic country statistical data, to both facilitators⁷ and to all members of the study teams by Friday 16 November **at the latest**.

Requests for advice and clarifications can be made at any time to either or both of the facilitators. Carlos Lauchande will be responsible for handling the statistical data and will be responsible for the study's literature review. David Webb will have responsibility for the main body of the report.

⁷ Please address all correspondence to all the following address: lauchand59@gmail.com, david.webb@telia.com, and webbuk@yahoo.com.

PROPOSED OUTLINE FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE COUNTRY STUDIES

COVER PAGE⁸

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⁸ Format to be agreed at the December workshop dependent upon the requirements of the relevant ministry of education.

	STUDY AREAS ⁱ	KEY SUB TOPICS ^{DD} ⁱⁱ	POSSIBLE CONTRIBUTORY TOPICS/CONTENT ⁱⁱⁱ	MAJOR ISSUES ARISING ^{DD} ^{iv}
1	CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK	i. The Historical Context ii. The Political Context iii. The Socio-Economic iv. The Educational Context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brief general discussion of the various contexts in which education has developed Basic Data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impact of historical, political, socio-economic factors on education^v
2	NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE DELIVERY OF TEACHER EDUCATION	i. Main components of the National Vision, Policy and Strategy for Education ii. The Teacher Education Sub Sector iii. Post-Primary Education ^{DD} ^{vi}	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An increasing focus from sector-wide visions, policies, and strategies to teacher education in general and post-primary teacher education in particular Global perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The impact of the recent development emphasis on basic education Reality gap/political will Ownership/consensus/donor's role
3	INSTITUTIONAL LANDSCAPE	i. Structure of Teacher Education and Training Institutions ii. Institutional Reforms – Completed and Planned iii. The Roles and Responsibilities of Teacher Education and Training Providers iv. Accreditation and Award Granting Bodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linkages between initial teacher training colleges, universities and ministries Accessibility and utilization of teacher resource centers/centers of excellence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infrastructure Organization Appropriateness of the match between the institutional provision and the needs of the system Level of autonomy of the institutions Types/status/levels of the institutions Relationship between the institutions/affiliation/awarding bodies Resource centers (role, utilization) Distribution of institutions (coverage) Relationship between TVET and secondary education
4	TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS	i. Initial Teacher Education Course and Continuing Professional Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nature, curriculum, duration and qualification) Mode of delivery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match between practice in schools and training institutions. Mode of delivery

		Provision ii. Initial Teacher Education for Post-Primary Teachers iii. Continuing Professional Development for Post-Primary Teachers iv. Preparation of Teacher Educators v. Teaching and Learning Approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross cutting issues (values, gender, peace, HIV/AIDS, conflict resolution) • Theory and practice • Subject specialization • Expected competencies • The role of school practice • Links between initial and continuing professional development • Function/potential of resource centers/centers of excellence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mobility across modes • Accreditation for distance programs • Cross cutting issues (values, gender, peace, HIV/AIDS, conflict resolution) • SEN/Inclusive education • Theory and practice • Subject specialization • Expected competencies • The role of school practice(duration, process, supervisors, simulation of theory in practice) • Links between initial and continuing professional development • Function/potential of resource centers/centers of excellence • Recruitment and preparation of teacher educators
5	PROFILES	i. Students ii. Teachers iii. Teacher educators iv. Other professionals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entry requirements to post-primary courses • Qualification, experience and level of training of teacher educators • Qualifications, experience and training of other professionals (administrators, inspectors, etc) supporting teacher education and training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality/level of recruits into teaching • Trained/untrained • Mismatch between humanities and sciences/output and demand • Gender • Profile of teaching profession by age/experience • Teacher educators • Adequate preparation of other professionals (school managers, inspectors/advisors, mentors, counselors)
6	TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND	i. Information systems ii. Teacher supply iii. Demand for teachers iv. Recruitment and deployment of teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevance and accuracy of data • Utilization of data • Projections • Subject specialization/qualifications/sex/rural/urban • Linkages of supply and demand issues with the training process • Deployment • Centralization / decentralization • Teacher mobility/attrition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profile of data collectors (skills) • Subject specialization • Truthfulness of the data reporting • Shortage of qualified/trained teachers at post primary level • Distinction between trained and qualified • Teacher attrition especially relating to HIV/AIDS • Recruitment and deployment (decentralization, urban, rural, gender, hard to reach, adjustment of staff ceiling/establishment/payroll) • Teacher transfers

7	TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM	i. Conditions of Service ii. Career Path and Professional Development Opportunities iii. Role of Related Bodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary structures • Retention (bonding, incentives, teacher re-engagement, hard to reach areas) • Licensing/registration • Sanctions • Promotion policies • Training policies (up grading) • Staff appraisal • Teacher unions • Teachers Professional Bodies/ Associations • Teaching Service Commissions • Teachers' status symbol • Teachers' Code of Ethics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Timely payment • Centralization / decentralization • Salary structure/qualification/performance/teacher portfolio/appraisal • The role of the teachers' unions (professional/ conditions of service focus) • Teaching Service Commission/teacher professional bodies
8	RESEARCH AND QUALITY	i. Research culture and nature of research ii. Quality measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevance (Action Research, Curriculum research) • Agencies/institutions for quality assurance (internal and external) • Certification, validation, accreditation • Monitoring and evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality assurance in private institutions • Relevance of research (income generation) • Location of research/teacher involvement • Role of universities in certification, accreditation and validation • The role of other national examination bodies

9	MANAGEMENT AND FUNDING	i. Institutional Management ii. System Management iii. Funding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building and professional development • Supervision • Teacher Resource Centers/Centers of Excellence, • Staff appraisals • Funding Trends • Funding Sources • Funding modalities • Prioritization • Private sector partnership • Decentralization • Efficiency and effective use of funds 	
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ⁱ Those responsible for the preparation of the country studies should follow the framework provided by the identified *Study Areas*.

ⁱⁱ The key sub-topics are viewed as essential to the framework and, as such, relatively non-negotiable, although those preparing the country studies should be prepared to make minor changes in order that they match the specific country circumstances

ⁱⁱⁱ The content of this column should be viewed as offering guidance to the study writers. *In no way*, should they be seen as definitive nor complete.

^{iv} Each country group should identify those issues which are most important in the specific country circumstances. Those listed here are those considered major and applicable to each country situation.

^v Issues highlighted in **bold** are those which members of the workshop considered most important.

^{vi} Post-Primary Education should be defined as Secondary Education and Technical and Vocational Education throughout the country studies
