HEART
HEALTH & EDUCATION ADVICE & RESOURCE TEAM

Helpdesk Report: Attracting and Retaining Teachers

Date: 13.11.13

Query: Produce a report focused on attracting and retaining teachers

Enquirer: Human Development Department, DFID

Content

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1. Introduction

This helpdesk report is on the topic of "attracting and retaining teachers" and aims to address the questions:

- What works to attract competent people into the teaching profession?
- What works to retain teachers and ensure that they attend school regularly and teach effectively?

The focus of the report is on DFID tier 1 and tier 2 countries (see annex 1) but relevant evidence is also drawn from broader contexts. The report is structured into sections covering the issues of teacher recruitment, retention, attendance and effectiveness. In reality, these issues are closely inter-linked and impact on one another. The following provides an overview of the sections of the report:

2. Overview papers

This section includes papers which take an integrated approach to addressing the issues of teacher recruitment, retention, attendance and effective teaching and explore the inter-relationships between these issues. Bennell and Akyeampong's (2007) study of teacher motivation in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia identifies four key areas which will have a positive impact on teacher recruitment, retention, attendance and effectiveness. These are:

1) Better incentives for rural teachers
2) Improved conditions of service
3) Attractive career structures

4) **Increased teacher and school accountability.**

Bennell's (2004) review of teacher motivation and incentives also recommends improving teacher status through increasing minimum entry requirements to teacher training; developing "communities of practice" for professional growth and giving teachers wider responsibilities including supervision and community relations.

Rogers and Vegas (2013) identify a range of incentives that they say can, together, work to attract, retain and motivate effective teachers. These include: social prestige and recognition; job stability; pensions and other non-salary benefits; professional growth; adequate teaching facilities and materials; salary differentials and other monetary benefits.

3. Recruitment: What works to attract competent people into the teaching profession?

Mulkeen (2010) identifies four inter-related dimensions of teacher policy related to recruitment of competent teachers: supply, distribution, quality and cost. He argues that measures to improve teacher supply or improve deployment may require recruitment of teachers with lower entry standards, with implications for quality. Conversely, measures to improve quality by raising the certification requirements, such as requiring a degree for secondary teaching, may reduce supply.

In the context of increasing primary and secondary enrolment, rapidly growing systems may end up with a few highly qualified, high-cost teachers, many untrained teachers and increasing class sizes. Countries may, therefore, need to plan to use teachers with lower formal qualifications. The qualifications required must be realistic and affordable, and the consequences of less than optimal staffing patterns must be clearly recognised (Verspoor 2008).

Kingdon et al's (2013) systematic review identifies that contract teachers (also known as para-teachers) who have been widely used to address teacher shortages, are generally more effective in improving student outcomes than regular teachers. Vegas (2007) reports that the strategy of hiring teachers with less than full credentials has had mixed results.

Studies in Malawi (Mtika and Gates 2011) and Tanzania (Towse et al 2002) which examined the reasons for students choosing teaching as a career, identified a number of negative images of teaching including seeing teaching as a 'last resort', low status, low-paid job; failure to follow a desired career and seeing it as a springboard to an alternative career. Other trainees identified their motivation for teaching as a sense of vocation. Improved working conditions are recommended to improve these negative images of teaching as a career.

Strategies recommended in the literature to recruit competent teachers include:
- **Increased teacher compensation:**
  As average teacher salaries in Chile more than doubled over the past decade, higher-quality students entered teacher education programmes (Vegas 2007). But in the context of Education for All, a fairly direct trade off exists between increasing teacher pay and increasing access to education (Bennell 2004).
- **Broader criteria for selection into teacher training:**
  Broader selection criteria, including both academic performance and interview, offer an opportunity to draw into teaching more of those who want teaching as their career, more of those who are willing to work in rural areas, and more students from linguistic and ethnic minorities who are underrepresented in teaching (Mulkeen 2010).
- **A minimum academic requirement for teaching:**
  Jarousse et al (2009) recommend a minimum threshold of 10 years of certified schooling for a primary school teacher. They recommend assessing the candidate's actual level with tests. Verspoor (2008) states it is important that teachers be

educated to a higher level than the level at which they are teaching. Each level of education above, that also improves quality, but to a smaller extent.
- **Emphasis on hiring women teachers:**
  Women teachers are as effective as their male colleagues in the teaching profession and have a positive impact on keeping girls in school (Jarousse et al 2009).

Recruitment of teachers to work in remote areas can be a particular challenge and a number of promising practices regarding this are identified including:
- **Recruiting unqualified teachers locally** and providing good quality in-service training (Mulkeen 2010).
- **Location-specific** rather than central teacher recruitment (Mulkeen 2010).
- **Targeted incentives** for teachers in remote areas (Mulkeen 2010).
- **Special provisions for teachers in rural or remote areas** including decent housing, preferably free or at a subsidised rent and special travel facilities (Mpoksa and Ndaruhutse 2008).
- **Non-salary incentives to work in rural areas** such as accelerated access to professional development opportunities and tenure (Mpoksa and Ndaruhutse 2008).

4. Retention: What works to retain teachers?

Some of the strategies identified in the literature to retain teachers include:
- **Increased teacher remuneration:** which addresses the pull of alternative employment (Mulkeen 2010, Jarousse et al 2009, Chapman 1994).
- **Increased benefits** (health, retirement etc) (Chapman 1994).
- **Mentoring and induction:** Schools providing mentoring programs for new teachers appear to have lower rates of staff turnover (Mulkeen 2010, Cooper and Alvarado 2006, Chapman 1994).
- **Autonomy:** Schools which allow teacher more autonomy in planning and delivering the curriculum are found to have lower rates of attrition (Mulkeen 2010).
- **Support for professional development:** Schools which encourage and support staff professional development are likely to see improved retention (Mulkeen 2010, Jarousse et al 2009, Chapman 1994). Cooper and Alvarado (2006) recommend developmentally-staged supervision and support for teachers that enables them to move along the developmental continuum.
- **Development of the teacher career structure** (Mulkeen 2010) and promotion (Jarousse et al 2009).
- **Incentives and awards** (Mulkeen 2010, Chapman 1994)).
- **Provision of good working conditions** (Cooper and Alvarado 2006, Jarousse et al 2009, Kayuni and Tambulasi 2007). This includes good facilities and also social conditions- the school's culture, the principal's leadership, and relationships among colleagues (Moore Johnson et al 2012).
- **Recruit individuals with higher initial commitment to teaching**, determined through an admissions interview at the time individuals apply to enter teacher training (Chapman 1994).
- **Recruit more women teachers:** Attrition among women is likely to be lower because of their limited range of alternative employment opportunities in many countries (Chapman 1994).
- **In remote areas, recruit individuals with stronger ties to their community** (Chapman 1994).
- **Provide adequate textbooks and instructional materials** (Chapman 1994).
- **Increase community support of teachers** (Chapman 1994).

5. Teacher attendance: What works to ensure teachers attend school regularly?

Strategies identified in the literature to improve teacher attendance include:

- **Reinforcing the supervision and monitoring of teachers and head teachers** (Jarousse et al 2009, Rogers 2005). In Uganda, the absenteeism rate fell from 27 percent in 2004 to 19 percent in 2006, following increased measures to monitor attendance (Mulkeen 2010).
- **Technical approaches allowing objective monitoring of attendance** (Rogers 2005). A randomised evaluation in India found that linking teacher compensation to attendance, by verifying attendance with objective impersonal means (such as photos taken with tamper-proof date and time stamps), was effective. Teacher absences fell by half, from 42 percent to 21 percent (Banerjee and Duflo 2011).
- **Deduction of pay for absence without permission** (Mulkeen 2010, Banerjee and Duflo 2011) or changes in incentive structures (Rogers 2005).
- **Increase teacher compensation:** to reduce the need for teachers to carry out supplementary employment. To be effective, increases in salary have to be coupled with clear policies that limit outside work and place clear requirements on teacher attendance (Chapman 1994).
- **Upgrading school infrastructure:** Teachers are less likely to be absent at schools that have better infrastructure, and that are closer to a paved road (Kremer et al 2005, Rogers 2005).
- **Increasing local control:** for example by giving local institutions like school committees new powers to hire and fire teachers (Rogers 2005, Chapman 1994).
- **Focus on raising attendance of children** as teacher and student attendance are mutually reinforcing (Banerjee et al 2012).

6. Teacher effectiveness: What works to ensure teachers teach effectively?

In this section, a range of strategies to ensure that teachers teach effectively are discussed, including:

- **Teacher incentives:** For example, an evaluation of a randomised teacher-incentives programme in Kenya found that teachers increased their effort to raise student test scores by offering more test-preparation sessions. Similarly, an evaluation of a performance-based pay bonus for teachers in Israel concluded that the incentive led to increases in student achievement, primarily through changes in teaching methods, after-school teaching, and teachers' increased responsiveness to students' needs (Vegas and Umansky 2005).
- **Improved equipment and textbooks** (Michaelowa 2002, Barrett et al 2007).
- **Ensuring teachers' voice and participation in decision-making processes** (Mpoksa and Ndaruhutse 2008).
- **Teacher training and professional development** (Barrett et al 2007, Towse et al 2002). Examples of effective child friendly teacher training approaches; (Chance 2013, UNICEF 2012, Plan International 2008); a cluster approach to professional development in Guinea; and a distance learning in-service training project in Malawi are described (Mpoksa and Ndaruhutse 2008).

7. Teacher recruitment, retention and effectiveness in fragile and conflict-affected contexts

This section includes literature which examines the particular issues related to teacher recruitment, retention and effectiveness in fragile and conflict-affected contexts.

2. Overview Papers

Teacher Motivation in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia
Bennell, P, Akyeampong, K. 2007. DFID Educational Paper No. 71. DFID, London.
http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/PDF/Outputs/PolicyStrategy/ResearchingtheIssuesNo71.pdf

This report synthesises the main findings and recommendations of an international research project on teacher motivation and incentives in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. A total of 12 studies were undertaken in the following countries: Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Zambia, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan. In each study, 10-20 interviews were conducted with key education stakeholders, relevant documentation and statistical data was analysed. In 6 countries, surveys of primary schools were also conducted.

The most critical finding that emerges from this study is that very sizeable proportions of primary school teachers, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, have low levels of job satisfaction and are poorly motivated. In South Asian countries, teachers in rural schools feel disadvantaged. But, teachers who work at schools in their home areas tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues who are 'strangers' in the locality. This is because locally based teachers are more likely to have supportive extended family and social networks, be known to the community, and have higher levels of commitment to promoting education and development activities in the area. In nearly all the case study countries, no sizeable differences exist between the motivation levels of qualified and unqualified teachers. Private school teachers, particularly those catering to the upper end of the market, are usually much better motivated than their colleagues in government schools, as result of higher pay, better working and living conditions, and more effective management.

The study explores the key determinants of teacher motivation in developing countries:

Accountability: The degree to which teachers are properly accountable to their clients (children and parents) and their managers (head teachers and district and national level managers) has a powerful influence on teacher motivation levels. The higher level of accountability of non-formal 'community' schools to parents and the host communities is a key reason for their success.

Conflict and security: War, insurgency and insecurity have had a major impact on teacher motivation and commitment in countries such as Sierra Leone and Nepal.

The policy environment: The pursuit of Universal Primary Education can have de-motivating effects when teacher recruitment does not keep pace with rapidly increasing enrolments, as has generally been the case. Workloads and class sizes have increased appreciably in many countries as a direct result of the UPE policy.

Pay: The overwhelming consensus from the stakeholder and teacher interviews in all but two of the 12 case study countries is that teachers are seriously underpaid and that this, more than anything else, is the key factor undermining teacher morale and motivation.

Vocational commitment and occupational status: The low and declining status of the primary school teacher is identified as a major factor contributing to low occupational status and poor motivation in all the country reports. Teaching is very much regarded as 'employment of last resort' by most school leavers and university graduates.

Working and living conditions: All of the 12 country case studies highlight the huge impact that working and living conditions have on teacher morale and motivation and thus their classroom performance. The key factors are workload (number of pupils and working hours), general classroom conditions, collegial and management support, location, living arrangements and distance to work. The high cost of travel contributes to teacher absenteeism and lateness in urban schools.

Teacher management: Teacher motivation depends critically on effective management. Teacher management is most crucial at the school level, where the importance of teachers'

work and their competence in performing it are crucially influenced by the quality of both internal and external supervision.

What should be done?
Four key areas are identified as priorities through the country reports:
1. **Better incentives for rural teachers:** In the short term, the provision of good quality housing with running water and electricity for teachers is probably the most cost-effective way of attracting and retaining teachers at hard-to-staff rural schools. In most countries, rural allowances would have to be at least half of basic pay in order to staff schools with qualified and able teachers.
2. Improved conditions of service: The core of the teacher motivation crisis, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, is that teacher pay is seriously inadequate. Most primary school teachers are simply unable to meet their basic household needs. Primary school teacher salaries in most countries in Anglophone Africa should be at least doubled. Given the strong commitment of the international community to the attainment of the EFA goals with acceptable learning outcomes, serious consideration should be given to how teacher's pay in these countries can be supplemented using external funding.
3. Attractive career structures: career structures for primary school teachers need to be urgently introduced in most countries with regular promotions based on clearly specified and transparent performance-related criteria. Teachers who work at hard-to-staff rural schools should also be given accelerated promotion and/or preferential access to qualification upgrading opportunities.
4. Increased teacher and school accountability: Teacher accountability to school management and to parents and the community as a whole should be increased.

Teacher motivation and incentives in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia
Bennell P. 2004. Knowledge and skills for development, Brighton.
http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0708/doc15160.pdf

This paper focuses on teacher motivation and incentives in low-income developing countries (LICs) in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. In particular, it assesses the extent to which the material and psychological needs of teachers are being met. This includes overall levels of occupational status, job satisfaction, pay and benefits, recruitment and deployment, attrition, and absenteeism.

Given the enormous financial implications of reversing the growing impoverishment of teachers in many LICs, it is perhaps not surprising that this problem has not been adequately acknowledged and addressed by both governments and donors. A fairly direct trade-off exists between increasing teacher pay and increasing access to basic education. Thus, the overwhelming pressure has been to curtail the growth of the teacher salary bill and increase the efficiency of teachers. This has further lowered the morale of teachers in some countries. Education reforms focus on improving teacher competence, the learning and working environments, and greater decentralisation, all of which can improve teacher motivation. But, many reform programmes also try to increase the workload of teachers and ignore or pay insufficient attention to pay and other conditions of service.

Some key lessons and recommendations concerning teacher motivation, incentives and staffing:
Improving teacher status and motivation
- Much higher standards of recruitment and certification are urgently needed in many LICs in order to improve the image and performance of the teaching profession. A key initiative is enhancing the status and performance of primary school teachers by upgrading the qualifications of serving teachers from certificate to diploma levels and generally increasing minimum entry qualification requirements.

- Professional growth tends to be most rapid when teacher are encouraged to work collegially. The 'new professionalism' replaces autonomy and isolation with 'communities of practice' based on a shared vision and the provision of peer advice and feedback. Teacher job satisfaction is also improved by giving them wider responsibilities than just class teaching, including supervision, professional development, and community relations.
- In theory, more learner centred teaching methods should increase job satisfaction and motivation. However, teachers with limited education and training may not be able to cope with large and rapid changes in classroom practice, which can lead to lower motivation.

Teacher compensation

Successful collaborative work among teachers should be rewarded. Financial incentives are often more effective when directed at entire teaching teams as opposed to individual teachers.

The link between academic and professional qualifications and teacher pay needs to be progressively weakened. Ideally, each country should have a multiple, market-driven pay structure for teachers according to subjects and location. This is much easier to achieve under a decentralised system. Pay increases need to be made strategically and not across the board.

More and better teachers for quality education for all

Kirk, J., Dembele, M., Baxter, S., (eds) 2013. Chapter 4 - No more cutting class: Reducing teacher absenteeism and providing incentives for performance. Rogers, F. H., Vegas, E. http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/mbt_chapter-4.pdf

Halsey Rogers and Vegas identify nine types of incentive that they say can, together, work to attract, retain and motivate effective teachers.

- **Internal motivation.** The opportunity to educate children, and thereby improve their well-being, can serve as a powerful incentive to attract individuals into the teaching profession. Though its presence is important to many teachers, most people would agree that idealism alone is not sufficient to produce adequate performance.
- **Social prestige and recognition.** This can motivate people to become teachers.
- **Job stability.** The threat of losing one's job can act as a powerful incentive, though it is virtually absent from the teaching profession in the region. In many countries, the prevalence of union contracts strongly protect teachers' jobs, which may serve to attract potential teachers to the profession.
- **Pensions and other non-salary benefits, such as health insurance.** Reliable government pensions that provide for a decent living after a teacher retires can attract people to the career as well as create an incentive for teachers to remain in their jobs. Although not sufficiently researched, pensions may be one of the more influential incentives encouraging people to work as teachers.
- **Professional growth.** The presence of opportunities for advancement throughout a career can serve to motivate teachers to excel in their work. Unfortunately, this type of teacher advancement ladder is largely absent in the teaching profession in many developing countries.
- **Non-salary job characteristics, such as the availability of adequate facilities and materials with which to teach.** In many countries, the lack of such basic infrastructure makes teaching a difficult, often unattractive profession to qualified professionals.
- **Sense of mastery in one's job.** People who feel that they can be capable and effective as teachers are more likely to choose to become teachers.

- **Having to satisfy clients and respond to supervisors** can be a strong incentive for performance on the job.
- **Salary differentials and other monetary benefits.** Differences in salary and over-all compensation exist between teachers and non-teachers and among teachers themselves. Changes in the salary differential between teachers and non-teachers can make teaching a more or less attractive profession to highly qualified individuals. Among teachers, salary differentials may be based on seniority, training, characteristics of the school or its students, performance or other variables. In most countries, teacher salary differentials are based almost exclusively on training and years of service; they are rarely based on performance.

3. Recruitment: What works to attract competent people into the teaching profession?

Teachers in Anglophone Africa: Issues in Teacher Supply, Training, and Management
Mulkeen A. 2010.World Bank: Washington, DC.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/13545/52278.pdf?sequence=1

This book is a synthesis of eight case studies conducted in Eritrea, The Gambia, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Uganda, Zambia, and Zanzibar between 2006 and 2008. The synthesis examines the issues of teacher supply, deployment, training, and management. The case-study countries face multiple challenges in teacher policy. These can be grouped into four major areas:
1) **Supply:** More teachers need to be trained, particularly in specific subjects.
2) **Distribution:** More and better-qualified teachers are required in remote schools.
3) **Quality:** To improve the quality of learning outcomes, the quality of teaching must be improved. This may involve recruiting better-educated teachers, provision of better training and continuous professional development, and improved support, management, and supervision systems.
4) **Cost:** These challenges must be met within constrained budgets.

These four dimensions of teacher policy are closely interrelated. Measures to improve teacher supply or improve deployment may require recruitment of teachers with lower entry standards, with implications for quality. Conversely, measures to improve quality by raising the certification requirements, such as requiring a degree for secondary teaching, may reduce supply and exacerbate deployment problems by drawing in more teachers from urban backgrounds. Any measure involving financial incentives, accelerated promotion, or increased training or supervision has cost implications. Developing the right teacher policies is likely to require difficult trade-offs between these four dimensions. While no single response will be appropriate in every case, the case studies suggest a number of promising practices including:

- **Planning for teacher supply through teacher training:** realistic targets regarding applicants' entry qualifications.
- **Recruiting unqualified teachers locally and providing good quality in-service training.** This can help address the problem of teacher shortages in remote areas. Building the capacity of local people seems a better long-term solution than providing subsidies to encourage teachers from other areas to move to places they consider undesirable.
- **Location-specific rather than central teacher recruitment.**
- **Broader criteria for selection into teacher training:** Broader selection criteria, including both academic performance and interview, offer an opportunity to draw into teaching more of those who want teaching as their career, more of those who are willing to work in rural areas, and more students from linguistic and ethnic minorities who are underrepresented in teaching. A teacher training college in Malawi, operated

by the NGO Development Aid From People to People (DAPP), and similar colleges in Mozambique and Angola have experienced success using this approach.
- **Targeted incentives for teachers in remote areas:** In The Gambia, following the introduction of a carefully targeted hardship bonus of up to 40 percent of salary, experienced teachers began requesting transfers to hardship schools.
- **Specific interventions to improve teacher performance in maths and science.**

At the Crossroads Choices for Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
Verspoor, A. 2008. The World Bank, African human development series.
http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPEDUCATION/Resources/444659-1210786813450/Secondary_Education_At_the_Crossroads.pdf

This synthesis report summarises analytical work sponsored by the World Bank and other African and international partners. It is important that teachers be educated to a higher level than the level at which they are teaching. The evidence suggests that better-educated teachers achieve better results. Ideally, it may be desirable to have an all-university educated secondary teaching force, but, in the medium term, most African countries will be unable to find and finance sufficient teachers with university degrees, especially in a context of increasing secondary enrolment. Rapidly-growing systems may end up with a few highly qualified, high-cost teachers, many untrained teachers, and increasing class sizes. The alternative of constraining enrolment growth is rarely feasible. Countries may, therefore, need to plan to use teachers with lower formal qualifications, particularly at the junior secondary level. Whatever qualifications are required, they must be realistic and affordable, and the consequences of less than optimal staffing patterns must be clearly recognised. Failure to take into account the quality of teachers actually employed can lead to unrealistic expectations in curricula, and it tends to reduce the perceived need for in-service supports for teachers.

Are contract teachers and para-teachers a cost-effective intervention to address teacher shortage and improve learning outcomes?
Kingdon K, Aslam M, Rawal S, Das S. 2013. EPPI-Centre Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.
http://www.dfid.gov.uk/r4d/pdf/outputs/systematicreviews/Parateachers2013Kingdon.pdf

Contract teachers(also known as para-teachers) have been increasingly used in large parts of Africa, South Asia and Latin America in the last few decades with the view to addressing rising student numbers by progressively financially constrained governments. The primary objective of this systematic review (SR) is to understand whether contract teachers and para-teachers are a cost-effective intervention to address teacher shortages and improve learning outcomes. Using stringent guidelines and procedures provided by the EPPI-Centre, a set of quantitative and qualitative studies is arrived at for in-depth review to address the key questions posed in this SR.

On the whole, it can be concluded that the evidence indicates that contract teachers are generally more effective in improving student outcomes than regular teachers, although the research indicates that these findings are often context-specific. This is coupled with the fact that all of the studies that look into the question of relative efficiency of contract teachers state categorically that they appear to be a more cost-effective means of imparting learning. However, it should be noted that there is a dearth of research on this front and most of the work on costs appears to be an appendage to the principal aim of answering the question of relative effectiveness. Similarly, rigorous evidence on whether contract teachers help alleviate teacher shortages is limited despite the fact that theoretically one would expect this not to be questionable as contract teachers policy is mainly instigated to overcome the teacher shortage problem.

Teacher Labour Markets in Developing Countries
Vegas E. 2007. The Future of Children; 17 (1) 219-232.
http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/future_of_children/v017/17.1vegas.pdf

Vegas surveys strategies used by the world's developing countries to fill their classrooms with qualified teachers. Severe budget constraints and a lack of teacher training capacity have pushed developing nations to try a wide variety of reforms, including using part-time or assistant teachers, experimenting with pay incentives, and using school-based management. The strategy of hiring teachers with less than full credentials has had mixed results. One successful programme in India hired young women who lacked teaching certificates to teach basic literacy and numeracy skills to children whose skills were seriously lagging. After two years, student learning increased, with the highest gains among the least able students. As in the US, says Vegas, teaching quality and student achievement in the developing world are sensitive to teacher compensation. As average teacher salaries in Chile more than doubled over the past decade, higher-quality students entered teacher education programmes.

Experiments with performance-based pay have had mixed results. In Bolivia, a bonus for teaching in rural areas failed to produce higher-quality teachers. And in Mexico, a system to reward teachers for improved student outcomes failed to change teacher performance. But Vegas explains that the design of teacher incentives is critical. Effective incentive schemes must be tightly coupled with desired behaviours and generous enough to give teachers a reason to make the extra effort.

School-based management reforms give decision making authority to the schools. Such reforms in Central America have reduced teacher absenteeism, increased teacher work hours, increased homework assignments, and improved parent-teacher relationships.

Recruitment of rural teachers in developing countries: an economic analysis
McEwan, P. 1999. Teaching and teacher education; 15: (8), 849-859.
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0742051X99000256

Monetary and non-monetary incentives for rural teacher recruitment are a prominent feature of developing-country education systems. Despite the widespread use of incentives, there is little theoretical or empirical evidence on their effectiveness. This paper interprets incentive policies within the framework of the economic theory of compensating differentials. The discussion clarifies the implicit assumptions of incentive policies and aids in organising further empirical work on their effectiveness. Existing evidence on compensating differentials, mainly in the United States, shows that teachers tend to trade off monetary wages against non-monetary aspects of their jobs, such as geographic location and class size.

If you pay peanuts do you get monkeys? A cross-country analysis of teacher pay and pupil performance
Dolton P, Marcenaro-Gutierrez O. 2011. Economic Policy 26: 5–55.
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1468-0327.2010.00257.x/abstract

Why are teachers paid up to four times as much in some countries compared to others and does it matter? Specifically, is the quality of teachers likely to be higher if they are paid higher up the income distribution in their own country, and are pupil outcomes influenced by how well their teachers are paid? This paper considers the determinants of teachers' salaries across countries and examines the relationship between the real (and relative) level of teacher remuneration and the (internationally) comparable measured performance of secondary school pupils. Aggregate panel data on 39 countries published by the OECD is

used to model this association. The results suggest that recruiting higher ability individuals into teaching and permitting scope for quicker salary advancement will have a positive effect on pupil outcomes.

What Do Secondary Trainee Teachers Say about Teaching as a Profession of Their "Choice" in Malawi?
Mtika P, Gates P.2011. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies* 27(2) 424-433.
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0742051X10001630

This interview-based qualitative study is concerned with the recruitment of secondary teachers in Malawi. This study shows a range of perspectives for pursuing a teacher training course: failure to follow a desired career, springboard to other careers, to upgrade, and teaching out of vocation. It shows that trainee teachers held a range of images about teaching: its ability to enhance knowledge; low pay with no incentives, low status profession, and lack of trust of male trainee teachers. Efforts aimed at creating better working conditions might change some of the negative images that trainee teachers have about the teaching profession. This may go a long way in supporting the retention of early career teachers.

Further empirical research is required to further validate the findings from small scale studies such as this one. Nonetheless, teacher educators, policy makers and the government need to consider these findings in order to better understand the complexity of trainee teacher recruitment and retention in the teaching profession in Malawi.

Non-graduate teacher recruitment and retention: some factors affecting teacher effectiveness in Tanzania
Towse P, Kent D, Osaki F, Kirua N. 2002. *Teaching and teacher education* 18 (6), 637-652.
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0742051X02000240

Since students generally perform better if taught by well qualified, trained and motivated teachers, recruiting better qualified young people is a pre-requisite to improving the quality of educational provision. Ongoing economic reforms in Tanzania have left teaching as one of the few salaried careers open to secondary and tertiary leavers. This study considered the rationale of non-graduate students for choosing teaching as a career, perceptions of the job and future aspirations. Findings, which will inform the Sector Development Programme, indicate that although many initially regarded teaching as a 'last resort', low-status, low-paid job, the majority intended to become classroom teachers. Questions remain, however, as to their motivation, commitment and overall effectiveness. For a quarter of the sample (slightly more males than females), teacher training appears to provide a useful springboard to an alternative career, with public life and administration frequently mentioned.

Preparation, recruitment and retention of teachers
Cooper J, Alvarado A.2006. IIEP Education Policy Series 5. UNESCO.
https://smec.curtin.edu.au/local/documents/5_Cooper_web_151206.pdf

The preparation, recruitment, and retention of teachers are interrelated, but typically there is no policy framework that links them together in a coherent fashion and that is connected to national and state educational goals and standards. The purpose of this monograph is to identify issues that summarize research findings and best practices related to the preparation, recruitment, and retention of quality teachers. It was designed to help policymakers make decisions about how best to prepare teachers, recruit outstanding candidates to teaching, and retain them in the teaching profession.

Recruitment issues internationally typically fall into one of five categories: (a) flexible entry routes; (b) new forms of initial teacher training; (c) courses for candidates from other fields (that is, career switchers); (d) recruiting qualified teachers from other countries; and (e) increasing incentives, such as higher salaries and job sharing. In developing countries these issues tend to be more centralized than in such countries as the United Kingdom, Australia, and the United States, where recruitment is often handled at either the school or local area level. The importance of well-prepared teachers for student learning is unquestionable. Better prepared teachers are more academically able, are rated as more effective by principals, supervisors, and colleagues, and enter and remain in teaching in greater numbers. In contrast, less well prepared teachers have more classroom difficulties, are rated less effective by evaluators and colleagues, and leave at much higher rates at earlier points in their careers. Whether prepared in traditional or alternative teacher education programmes, well prepared teachers are the foundation for ensuring that high quality teachers are working in all classrooms. As mentioned earlier, the ultimate determiner of whether a teacher is "high quality" is student achievement. If the teacher is consistently successful in helping students to achieve at or above expected levels of academic performance, then he or she can be considered effective and of high quality. Research shows that having a sequence of quality teachers can help students overcome the deficits of their home environments.

Universal primary education in Africa: the teacher challenge
Jarousse J, Bernard J, Améléwonou K, Coury D, Demagny C, Tagne B, Husson G, Mouzon J, Ledoux B, Ndem A, Reuge N. Pole de Dakar: Education Sector Analysis. 2009. UNESCO.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186643e.pdf

The very first step to be taken when looking at recruitment is the estimation of teacher needs. Each country must be capable of estimating its needs in teachers and of planning their recruitment on an annual basis. As far as the academic level of teachers is concerned, while everyone agrees that there is a minimum academic requirement for teaching, there are often diverging opinions about what that minimum is. The studies conducted on the African continent argue in favour of a minimum threshold corresponding to 10 years of certified schooling for a primary school teacher, although this may need to be revised in country-specific situations. The level of schooling cannot be taken alone, as people who have qualified from lower secondary education have different levels of knowledge that may not always be satisfactory for teaching. It is therefore important to assess the candidates' actual level with the aid of tests.

Another dimension to be taken into account in this hiring process is that of gender. Women prove to be as effective as their male colleagues in the teaching profession and also that they have more specifically a positive impact on keeping girls in school. Thus, the argument of effectiveness in pursuing the goal of UPE should be added to the argument of equal treatment for men and women. Giving special attention to the recruitment of female teachers must therefore be an integral part of the teacher strategy for UPE. The process of candidate selection must of course be rigorously respected and this is one of the important aspects to be taken into account in recruitments. The processes should be assessed on a regular basis to ensure that they are still relevant and to allow for their improvement in line with the changing educational context.

Managing Teachers: The centrality of teacher management to quality education. Lessons from developing countries
Mpoksa C, Ndaruhutse S.2008. VSO/CfBt.
http://www.vsointernational.org/Images/Managing_Teachers_tcm76-20998.pdf.
UNESCO (1966) recommended special provisions for teachers in rural or remote areas including decent housing, preferably free or at a subsidised rent and special travel facilities. This approach can also be used to attract underrepresented groups such as females or

ethnic minorities into teaching. There are implications here for the management of teachers at district and system level in the form of offering active encouragement and incentives to create a stable teaching workforce. An example is non-salary incentives to work in rural areas such as accelerated access to professional development opportunities and tenure (see Box 15 on page 46). Non-salary benefits can also enhance teacher motivation for all teachers (see section 4.2.1 below for more details). These can include low interest loan schemes to allow teachers to buy and maintain their own housing in the event that free housing is not a condition of service. Other non-salary incentives that can be employed to enhance teacher motivation and encourage teachers to remain in the profession, particularly those in hardship posts, include:

- Policies for placing teachers in schools near to their extended families, in the communities where they were brought up in
- Food and clothing allowances
- Free health insurance (for teachers and their dependants), including access to antiretroviral treatment for teachers or members of teachers families living with HIV and AIDS
- Subsidised travel, which can take the form of discounted bus or train fares; loans to enable teachers to purchase annual travel passes; loans to allow teachers to purchase bicycles or motorcycles; or the provision of free bicycles.

4. Retention: What works to retain teachers?

Teacher attrition in Sub-Saharan Africa: The neglected dimension of the teacher supply challenge. A review of literature
Mulkeen A. 2010. International Task Force on Teachers for EFA. UNESCO.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001881/188197e.pdf

At least part of attrition is potentially responsive to policy changes**.** Voluntary resignation of teachers is in part a function of the labour market, and the relative attractiveness of alternative employment opportunities. In addition, teacher attrition is in some cases a response to unhappiness with deployment, poor management and factors such as unreliable delivery of pay. In addition committed teachers are motivated by the success of their students and de-motivated by conditions which make success impossible. A variety of policy measures are likely to have an impact on attrition, including: better deployment policies, greater use of local recruitment, improved teacher conditions of work, improved reliability of payment, and improved management at school level.

Much of the discussion has focused on addressing the pull of alternative employment through increased teacher remuneration. However, it may also be possible to address some of the other factors, through reducing the push factors, and increasing the attractiveness of teaching as a profession. Possible actions include:

- **Mentoring and induction:** Schools providing mentoring programs for new teachers appear to have lower rates of staff turnover.
- **Autonomy:** Schools which allow teacher more autonomy in planning and delivering the curriculum are found to have lower rates of attrition.
- **Support for professional development:** Schools which encourage and support staff professional development are likely to see improved retention.
- **Development of the teacher career structure** is another promising avenue for encouraging teacher retention.
- **Incentives and awards:** In sub-Saharan Africa, there have been some attempts to retain teachers by offering rewards for excellence in teaching, with mixed results. A scheme in Kenya offered incentive prizes ranging from 21% to 43% of monthly salary for teachers whose students achieved high performance in examinations. The impact of the financial incentives on teachers' practices was to increase the number of

preparatory sessions for the exams. However, this scheme could result in teachers encouraging cheating at exams, or provide an incentive for teachers to ask for transfers to "better" schools. In Ghana an annual award for the best teacher in each region has been reported to have a positive impact on morale of teachers. In The Gambia teachers were reported to be motivated by a Best Teacher Award organised by the Gambia Teachers Union.

Preparation, recruitment and retention of teachers
Cooper J, Alvarado A.2006. IIEP Education Policy Series 5. UNESCO.
https://smec.curtin.edu.au/local/documents/5_Cooper_web_151206.pdf

Although salaries can make a difference in terms of teacher recruitment, teachers generally report the importance of good working conditions in making a decision to stay in teaching. A number of school organizational factors play a crucial role in teacher turnover, including inadequate support from school administration, student motivation, and discipline problems, and limited teacher input into and influence over school policies. These factors also affect the motivation and commitment of those teachers who stay at the school.

It takes several years to become an effective teacher. Unfortunately, many novice teachers leave the profession much too early. The following recommendations are intended to change this pattern. The first is funding research on models of developmentally-staged supervision and induction. Support for teachers that enables them to move along the developmental continuum is also important. The second is funding the development of effective mentor/induction programmes and quality assessments of these programmes. Because student learning is the ultimate goal of classroom instruction, the assessment of mentoring programmes must include the monitoring of student learning.

Universal primary education in Africa: the teacher challenge
Jarousse J, Bernard J, Améléwonou K, Coury D, Demagny C, Tagne B, Husson G, Mouzon J, Ledoux B, Ndem A, Reuge N. Pole de Dakar: Education Sector Analysis. 2009. UNESCO.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186643e.pdf

How can it be hoped to keep motivated and dynamic teachers in the profession without a clear vision of their career prospects? In a quantitative study on this aspect in sub-Saharan Africa, teacher satisfaction is shown to be partly connected to working conditions. Indeed, having to teach in overcrowded classrooms, in rural areas and in schools without electricity all have a negative effect on teacher satisfaction. Moreover, the teacher's level of studies after the general certificate of upper secondary education (Baccalauréat) has a significant and negative impact on teacher satisfaction.

One plausible explanation is the gulf between the professional aspirations of these teachers and the reality of teaching. Another result is to do with the limited role of the level of salary on teacher satisfaction. Without overlooking the role of salary, this result does show that salary is not enough in itself for teacher satisfaction and therefore suggests that the subject of teacher motivation should be tackled from a broader perspective and more particularly within the framework of career advancement opportunities.

Aside from pay, which is still a major issue for social dialogue, the opportunities open to teachers for promotion and personal and professional development are also important. The modern concept of a teacher's professional development is not limited to salary progression but encompasses continuing training possibilities throughout his/her professional career, with a multiple objective. Firstly, the aim is to enable the teacher progress in his/her professional practice and so enhance the effectiveness of his/her teaching. Of course, the training courses that the teacher has successfully attended must be taken into account in his/her career

progression to reinforce the motivating effect. It should not be forgotten that it is not only training that is important but also the implications of training on classroom practices. So, contrary to what is observed in the vast majority of countries at the present time, the quality of the instruction delivered by the teacher should be one of the key criteria when making decisions on promotion.

One of the major obstacles for teachers in their career is the lack of opportunity for promotion. Promotion is automatic within the same grade, but is rarely so from one grade to another and even less so for access to promotional posts (senior teacher, deputy head and head teacher, pedagogical advisor, etc.). The reasons are to do with the limited number of posts available and the promotion processes, which are in many cases competitive, even though the lack of transparency in these processes is a recurrent problem in many countries and the objectivity of decisions is sometimes questioned. There are a limited number of promotional posts due to the pyramidal structure of jobs in the schooling system. In Zambia, 83% of teachers in primary schools are employed at the basic level, 8% as senior teachers, 4% as deputy heads and 5% as head teachers.

Teacher policies that tackle the profession of teaching as a whole are therefore required in order to attract and retain motivated teachers. It is up to each country to conduct the necessary reforms by counterbalancing resources with local needs (OECD, 2005). It appears clearly here that the professional development of teachers is not of secondary importance. Besides the fact that it addresses their professional ambitions and may therefore facilitate a social consensus in the often crisis-prone education systems, continuing professional development also comes over as a factor of effectiveness for the education systems contributing to the achievement of UPE.

Teacher Turnover in Malawi's Ministry of Education: Realities and Challenges
Kayuni H, Tambulasi, R. 2007. *International Education Journal* 8 (1), 89-99.
http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ841708

One of the most serious problems in the teaching profession is teacher turnover. Governments are finding it difficult to retain teachers in schools. In Malawi, this problem is profound and overwhelming, even by sub-Saharan standards. This paper heavily relies on secondary data derived from general trends and observations of several research findings as well as government publications, newspapers and several academic papers. The authors argue that main cause of teacher turnover in Malawi can be attributed to general poor working conditions. The paper further argues that retention measures derived by the Malawi government may take time to bear fruits and it is unlikely that they can seriously affect teachers positively because they do not address the basic immediate needs of teachers.

Fix It and They Might Stay: School Facility Quality and Teacher Retention in Washington, D.C.
Buckley J, Schneider M, Shang Y. 2005. Teachers College Record.
http://www.tcrecord.org/content.asp?contentid=11852

The attrition of both new and experienced teachers is a challenge for schools and school administrators throughout the United States, particularly in large urban districts. Because of the importance of this issue, there is a large empirical literature that investigates why teachers quit and how they might be induced to stay. The quality of school facilities are considered as an important factor in the teacher decision to stay or leave. The authors investigate the importance of facility quality using data from a survey of K-12 public school teachers in Washington, D.C. They find in the sample that facility quality is an important predictor of the decision of teachers to leave their current position, even after controlling for other contributing factors.

How Context Matters in High-Need Schools: The Effects of Teachers' Working Conditions on Their Professional Satisfaction and Their Students' Achievement
Moore Johnson S, Kraft M, Papay J. 2012. Teachers College Record.
http://www.tcrecord.org/content.asp?contentid=16685

Retaining effective teachers is a particular challenge for schools that serve high proportions of low-income and minority students. Recent large-scale quantitative studies provide evidence that teachers choose to leave schools with poor work environments and that these conditions are most common in schools that minority and low-income students typically attend. The authors found that measures of the school environment explain away much of the apparent relationship between teacher satisfaction and student demographic characteristics. The conditions in which teachers work matter a great deal to them and, ultimately, to their students. Teachers are more satisfied and plan to stay longer in schools that have a positive work context, independent of the school's student demographic characteristics. Furthermore, although a wide range of working conditions matter to teachers, the specific elements of the work environment that matter the most to teachers are not narrowly conceived working conditions such as clean and well-maintained facilities or access to modern instructional technology. Instead, it is the social conditions—the school's culture, the principal's leadership, and relationships among colleagues—that predominate in predicting teachers' job satisfaction and career plans. More important, providing a supportive context in which teachers can work appears to contribute to improved student achievement. The authors found that favourable conditions of work predict higher rates of student academic growth, even when schools serving demographically similar groups of students are compared.

Reducing teacher absenteeism and attrition: causes, consequences and responses
Chapman D. 1994. The Management of Teachers. UNESCO. IIEP.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000991/099192eo.pdf

This paper examines causes and potential solutions to teacher absenteeism and teacher attrition. A key argument is that the causes and conditions that affect these practices vary from country-to-country. It offers a framework for education and government decision-makers to use to select and evaluate possible solutions to high turnover and absenteeism within the context of their own country situations. To a great extent, high levels of teacher absenteeism and attrition can be explained by low teacher morale which, in turn, is due largely to (a) a lack of financial and other incentives for teachers, (b) inappropriate recruitment and promotion policies, and (c) weak administrative support for teachers (e.g., late pay cheques, poor communications, etc.)

Possible strategies to reduce teacher attrition include:

1. Recruit individuals more likely to remain in teaching:
- Recruit individuals with higher initial commitment to teaching**:** determined through an admissions interview at the time individuals apply to enter teacher training.
- Recruit more women teachers: Attrition among women is likely to be lower because of their limited range of alternative employment opportunities in many countries.
- Recruit individuals with stronger ties to their community: A teacher retention strategy used by some countries is to emphasise the recruitment of teachers from remote communities, so that teachers see their assignment as an opportunity to be in their home location.

2. Strengthen teacher training: pre-service and in-service training.
3. Improve the financial rewards for those who enter teaching.
- Increased government salary for teachers: Low salaries is the most frequent reason teachers give for leaving teaching. Qualified teachers leave teaching at the point that

compensation differs significantly from what they could make in other jobs. Raising teachers' salaries is the single most direct and effective way to reduce attrition.

- Allow and support alternative income producing opportunities for teachers such as private tutoring. This can create the problem that these alternative activities come to compete with the teaching responsibilities.
- Salary increases for longevity.
- Merit pay.
- Increase benefits (health, retirement etc).
- Subsidise housing.

4. Improve the quality of teachers' worklife.

- Increase the status and prestige of teaching: For example, special days honouring teachers, special awards for teachers and, most importantly, the continuing acknowledgement of the importance of teachers in the speeches and public pronouncements of key public figures can all help enhance the status and prestige of teachers.
- Increase community support of teachers: Community support can range from the personal acknowledgement and respect of community members to direct financial subsidies that supplement their government salary. Research on teacher attrition has consistently found that recognition and approval of family, friends, supervisors, and community people are important ingredients in teachers' job satisfaction and their decision to remain in or leave teaching.
- Quality of first teaching experience: Research on beginning teachers has found that the quality of their first teaching experience is a key predictor of their retention in teaching. position. This finding suggests that (a) well designed and supervised student teaching experiences within pre-service training programmes and (b) special programmes within schools to protect and support new teachers can help improve long-term career retention of teachers.
- Provide adequate textbooks and instructional materials.
- Provide more effective school level supervision.

5. Increase professional integration and involvement.

- Encourage implementation of teacher support groups.
- Involve teachers more effectively in curriculum and instructional materials development.

5. Teacher attendance: What works to ensure teachers attend school regularly?

Universal primary education in Africa: the teacher challenge
Jarousse J, Bernard J, Améléwonou K, Coury D, Demagny C, Tagne B, Husson G, Mouzon J, Ledoux B, Ndem A, Reuge N. Pole de Dakar: Education Sector Analysis. 2009. UNESCO.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186643e.pdf

Teacher absenteeism is a common problem faced by education systems. Different measures aimed at reaching the cause of absenteeism have been implemented in countries to reduce the phenomenon. Reinforcing the supervision and monitoring of teachers and head teachers is a priority in many countries. In Madagascar, within the framework of the AGEMAD programme, the Ministry of Education has experimented closer supervision of pupils and teachers in 15 school districts; it is planned to extend this to all 111 districts by 2010. The development of school improvement plans known as *Contrats programme de réussite scolaire* (CPRS) may also be a relevant tool in the management and control of teachers and pupils. The Gambia has set up "cluster monitoring" supervision units. These units systematically check the teacher attendance register kept up by the schools, on their visits. Each unit is in charge of a limited number of schools and has some means of transport at its disposal for making regular school visits. These monitoring units have greatly contributed to

improving the situation: they constitute, in this respect, a conceivable solution for monitoring schools and improving quality (World Bank, 2007b).

Applying sanctions for unjustified repeated absence can also be considered as an option. Withholding salary is used in this framework by some countries. In Zambia, the district authorities can temporarily block absent teachers' salaries, whether these are paid in cash or electronically. However, the introduction of direct transfers has limited the range of these sanctions, as several months are now needed for them to take effect. In The Gambia, for similar reasons, salary sanctions are rarely employed: in 2006, there were 295 cases for 2 400 teachers. However, the measure seems effective: once the salary has been blocked, the teachers at fault reappear (World Bank, 2007b). On a parallel, some people recommend developing codes of good conduct for teachers. These codes clarify expectations in terms of good conduct and performance. This type of document has been useful in making teachers more conscious of these issues in South Eastern Asia (Hallak and Poisson, 2005 quoted by Patrinos and Kagia, 2007)

Teachers in Anglophone Africa: Issues in Teacher Supply, Training, and Management
Mulkeen A. 2010.World Bank: Washington, DC.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/13545/52278.pdf?sequence=1

Monitoring of teacher attendance**:** In Uganda, the absenteeism rate fell from 27 percent in 2004 to 19 percent in 2006, following increased measures to monitor attendance. In The Gambia, it was reported that church-run schools had higher teacher attendance than government schools, because managers routinely monitored attendance and deducted pay from teachers who were absent without permission. Also in The Gambia, teacher absenteeism decreased following the introduction of cluster monitors, who visited schools on a regular basis.

Why Aren't Children Learning?
Banerjee A, Duflo E. 04/01/2011.Development Outreach. World Bank Institute.
http://wbi.worldbank.org/wbi/devoutreach/article/1068/why-arent-children-learning

A randomised evaluation in non formal schools in Rajasthan, India found that linking teacher compensation to attendance, by verifying attendance with objective impersonal means (such as photos taken with tamper-proof date and time stamps), was effective. Teacher absences fell by half, from 42 percent to 21 percent. And, students learned more: test scores rose by 0.16 standard deviations, and children were 50 percent more likely to pass the exam allowing them to join formal schools (Duflo et al. 2010a). Another evaluation in India found that basing teacher pay on student performance was highly effective at improving student learning (Muralidharan and Sundararaman 2009). In Kenya, teachers hired on short contracts, under supervision by the school committee, were much more likely to be present then regular teachers, and their students had higher test scores than those of regular teachers, even though the contract teachers had no prior teaching experience (Duflo et al. 2010b).

Teacher motivation and incentives in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia
Bennell P. 2004. Knowledge and skills for development, Brighton.
http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0708/doc15160.pdf

Detailed ethnographic, school-based research is needed in order to unearth the incidence of absenteeism that can be directly attributed to opportunistic behaviour, which is symptomatic of sub-optimal teacher motivation. Formal and informal penalties and sanctions for absenteeism also need to be carefully analysed. Establishing the reasons for absence is

critically important since this determines the type of interventions that are needed to reduce teacher absenteeism e.g. high levels of sickness among teachers, excessive term-time leave entitlements, more school-based or cluster based in-service training, greater punishments for non-authorised leave (fines, loss of pay, salary increments etc), better communications.

Without good quality time series data, it is clearly not possible to assess the impact of education reforms that seek to directly reduce teacher absenteeism. It is essential therefore that this data is collected on a regular basis. Reducing security of tenure will probably not decrease teacher absenteeism in most countries. Teacher leave entitlements during term time should be abolished or heavily restricted. Similarly, the time allocated to non-education related external duties should be reduced, especially in India.

Teacher absence in India: a snapshot, Journal of the European Economic Association
Kremer M, Muralidharan K, Chaudhury N, Hammer J, Rogers F. 2005. 3 (2-3) 658-667.
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1162/jeea.2005.3.2-3.658/abstract

25% of teachers were absent from school, and only about half were teaching, during unannounced visits to a nationally representative sample of government primary schools in India. Absence rates varied from 15% in Maharashtra to 42% in Jharkhand, with higher rates concentrated in the poorer states. The authors do not find that higher pay is associated with lower absence. Older teachers, more educated teachers, and head teachers are all paid more but are also more frequently absent; contract teachers are paid much less than regular teachers but have similar absence rates; and although relative teacher salaries are higher in poorer states, absence rates are also higher. Teacher absence is more correlated with daily incentives to attend work: teachers are less likely to be absent at schools that have been inspected recently, that have better infrastructure, and that are closer to a paved road. The authors find little evidence that attempting to strengthen local community ties will reduce absence. Teachers from the local area have similar absence rates as teachers from outside the community. Locally controlled non-formal schools have higher absence rates than schools run by the state government. The existence of a PTA is not correlated with lower absence. Private-school teachers are only slightly less likely to be absent than public-school teachers in general, but are 8 percentage points less likely to be absent than public-school teachers in the same village.

Missing in Action: Teacher and Medical Provider Absence in Developing Countries
Rogers F.2005. Research Brief. World Bank.
http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEARCH/0,,print:Y~isCURL :Y~contentMDK:20661217~pagePK:64165401~piPK:64165026~theSitePK:469382~isCURL: Y~isCURL:Y~isCURL:Y~isCURL:Y,00.html

This report is based on a research project in six countries: Bangladesh, Ecuador, India, Indonesia, Peru and Uganda. It talks about reasons for absence and how to reduce absence. It is important to know what factors are correlated with lower absence, so that countries can explore possible interventions. One obvious intervention is raising pay; in the multi-country sample, however, there is little evidence that pay strongly affects absence. By contrast, the authors do find evidence suggesting that facilities with better infrastructure have lower absence. Teachers are extremely unlikely to be fired for absence, so that their decisions about whether to go to work are influenced more by their working conditions than by fear of losing pay. In the study in India it was found that *teacher absence is correlated with daily incentives to attend work*: teachers are less likely to be absent at schools that have been inspected recently, that have better infrastructure, and that are closer to a paved road. Strategies to reduce absence could include:
- Increasing local control: for example by giving local institutions like school committees new powers to hire and fire teachers

- Upgrading school infrastructure
- Increasing the frequency and bite of inspections
- Changes in incentive structures
- Technical approaches allowing objective monitoring of attendance
- To experiment more with systems in which parents choose among schools and public money follows the pupils.

Reducing teacher absenteeism and attrition: causes, consequences and responses
Chapman D. 1994. The Management of Teachers. UNESCO. IIEP.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000991/099192eo.pdf

Possible strategies to reduce teacher absenteeism include:
- **Increase teacher compensation:** to reduce the need for teachers to carry out supplementary employment. To be effective, increases in salary have to be coupled with clear policies that limit outside work and place clear requirements on teacher attendance.
- **Increase allowances and other benefits** for teachers with good attendance records.
- **Change government policies that lead to absenteeism:** Reduce the legitimate need of teachers to leave their teaching post by creating more responsive schemes for example for the distribution and cashing of pay cheques, distribution of textbooks, and servicing other needs that previously required a teacher's absence.
- **Strengthen school-level supervision.** Clarify headmasters job descriptions to include enforcement of teacher attendance policies.
- **Create incentives and sanctions that can be applied at the school level.**
- **Decentralise authority over teachers:** Community councils provide a means of organizing and communicating local sanctions for teacher absenteeism. These councils can support the headmaster by (a) creating financial (or other types of) incentives for good attendance, (b) aiding the headmaster in judging the legitimacy of the reasons offered for chronic absenteeism, and (c) bringing interpersonal pressure to bear on offending teachers.
- **Strengthen school record keeping systems.**

Managing Teachers: The centrality of teacher management to quality education. Lessons from developing countries
Mpoksa C, Ndaruhutse S.2008. VSO/CfBt.
http://www.vsointernational.org/Images/Managing_Teachers_tcm76-20998.pdf

Teacher absenteeism is a significant problem in many developing countries due to legitimate reasons such as personal illness (including HIV and AIDS); caring for sick relatives (especially true in countries with high HIV prevalence rates); attending funerals; undertaking training; and the need for assistance in local government activities. Jishnu et al (2005) highlight in their study of teachers in Zambia that illness accounts for 60% of teacher absences. However, in many cases teachers are also absent because they are holding down several jobs (including teaching in private schools as well as public ones, or offering private tuition); they need to travel between urban areas where they live and rural areas where they may teach; they need to follow up administrative issues such as late payment or non-payment of salaries; or because they are farming to help provide for their families and survive as well as teaching (this is especially common in rural areas).'In most countries, low pay forces teachers to find additional sources of income. Secondary income activities create divided attention and loyalty to teaching and impact negatively on the quality of schooling. In Pakistan, teacher absence – especially among female teachers – was worse in rural areas, where there is greater physical insecurity, harassment and poorer facilities in schools, which

significantly hamper the teacher's ability to perform effectively and make schools unattractive work places. Female teachers discussed transport difficulties and the fact of commuting from urban areas with unknown men in buses as reasons for absenteeism (VSO Pakistan, 2005).

Student and Teacher Attendance: The Role of Shared Goods in Reducing Absenteeism
Banerjee R, King E, Orazem P, Paterno E. 2012. Economics of Education Review 31.5: 563-574.
http://www.econ.iastate.edu/research/working-papers/p12167

A theoretical model is advanced that argues that, if teacher and student attendance generate a shared good, then teacher and student attendance will be mutually reinforcing. Using data from the Northwest Frontier Province of Pakistan, empirical evidence supporting that proposition is advanced. Controlling for the endogeneity of teacher and student attendance, the most powerful factor raising teacher attendance is the attendance of the children in the school, and the most important factor influencing child attendance is the presence of the teacher. The results suggest that one important avenue to be explored in developing policies to reduce teacher absenteeism is to focus on raising the attendance of children.

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6. Teacher effectiveness: What works to ensure teachers teach effectively?

Improving Teaching and Learning through Effective Incentives: What Can We Learn from Education Reforms in Latin America?
Vegas E, Umansky I. 2005. World Bank.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/8694/33266.pdf?sequence=1

Education policymakers have three main options for improving teaching quality: 1) teacher training and professional development; 2) teacher incentives that impact teachers and how long they remain in the field; and, 3) incentives that affect the work teachers do in the classroom. This study focuses entirely on the second and third options. Though previous studies have addressed questions related to teacher quality and incentives in Latin America, this study is the first to focus on the impact of various policy reforms affecting teachers on teacher quality, and student achievement in multiple Latin American countries.

Evidence suggests that changes in teacher-incentive structures can affect who chooses to enter and remain in the teaching profession, as well as their daily work in the classroom. For example, an evaluation of a randomised teacher-incentives programme in Kenya found that teachers increased their effort to raise student test scores by offering more test-preparation sessions. Similarly, an evaluation of a performance-based pay bonus for teachers in Israel concluded that the incentive led to increases in student achievement, primarily through changes in teaching methods, after-school teaching, and teachers' increased responsiveness to students' needs. Because teachers respond to incentives, education policymakers can improve the quality of teaching and learning by designing effective incentives to attract, retain, and motivate highly qualified teachers. But how teacher incentives are designed and implemented also matters. In various cases, teachers have been found to respond adversely to incentives by, for example, not collaborating as much with other teachers, excluding low-performing students from exams or classes, providing students with the answers to the tests.

Inside Decentralization
Umansky I, Vegas E. 2007. World Bank Research Observer, 22.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/4410
This article contributes to the understanding of how decentralization reforms can improve learning and shows how education reforms, even when not conceptualised as affecting teacher incentives, can generate important changes for teachers that, in turn, affect student

learning. The goal is to broaden the conception of how education reforms affect teachers by influencing teacher incentives and to explore how to design and implement these reforms to maximise their beneficial effects on teaching and learning. This article shows that education reform design should consider the potential impact on teaching quality, even when reforms are not specifically intended to alter the incentives that teachers face. The author finds that greater teacher autonomy in implementing projects and designing teaching plans is associated with better student outcomes when school decision making power is close to the level of the teacher.

Teacher job satisfaction, student achievement and the cost of primary education in Francophone sub-Saharan Africa
Michaelowa K. 2002. HWWA Discussion Paper 188.
http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/bitstream/26273/1/dp020188.pdf

Low teacher motivation and its detrimental effect on student achievement are central problems of many education systems in Africa. Using standardised data for student achievement in Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar and Senegal, this paper analyses the empirical links between various policy measures, teacher job satisfaction and primary education outcomes. It appears that there is only very limited evidence for the effectiveness of intensively debated and costly measures such as increasing teachers' salaries, reducing class size, and increasing academic qualification requirements. Other more simple measures such as improved equipment with textbooks are both more effective and less costly. It also appears that teacher job satisfaction and education quality are not necessarily complementary objectives. Especially those measures ensuring control and incentive related working conditions for teachers, significantly increase student achievement while reducing teacher job satisfaction.

Initiatives to improve the quality of teaching and learning: a review of recent literature
Barrett A, Ali S, Clegg J, Hinostroza J, Lowe J, Nikel J, Novelli M, Oduro G, Pillay M, Tikly L, Yu G. 2007. EdQual Working Paper No.5. DFID.
http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/PDF/Outputs/ImpQuality_RPC/workingpaper5.pdf

This paper reviews recent literature relating to the quality of teaching and learning processes within schools in low income countries. One of the key areas covered is enabling teachers including the provision of teaching and learning resources. Quality education requires well-educated and trained teachers. Those countries that have to expand the most rapidly to meet EFA targets also tend to have the greatest shortage in teachers. As a region, sub-Saharan Africa faces the greatest challenge. In response, large-scale distance education programmes for unqualified and under-qualified teachers are being initiated across Africa. However, evidence of their effectiveness is yet to emerge. Teachers and learners need resources such as textbooks. The evidence from large-scale school effectiveness studies on the importance of textbooks and other resources is reviewed. It is argued that the three-way relationship between learner, teacher and materials lies at the heart of the education quality and that all examples of successful initiatives described in the paper involved materials carefully designed to meet learners' needs in their particular environments and related training for teachers.

Managing Teachers: The centrality of teacher management to quality education. Lessons from developing countries
Mpoksa C, Ndaruhutse S. 2008. VSO/CfBt.
http://www.vsointernational.org/Images/Managing_Teachers_tcm76-20998.pdf.

Ensuring teachers' voice and participation in decision-making processes (Section 4.1.4)

If quality in education is to be achieved, major management decisions should be taken at as local a level as is practical. Traditionally the restructuring of education management is 'top-down. The authors argue for a more participative approach to change. As a necessary underpinning for these ideas, they opt for the creation of a national teaching council. Participation has been used as a tool for improving education quality in Uganda. Participation that is meaningful begins by identifying the relevant stakeholders for the subject being discussed. Once stakeholders have been identified then participation can take place. Teachers are always remembered as implementers of education policies and directives, but it is common for governments and district and school-level education managers to forget that teachers are stakeholders in their own right.

Strong participation builds teachers' self-confidence and lifts their status in the eyes of the community, as highlighted by the Teacher Empowerment Project in India, and moves teachers from the periphery into the very centre of the education process. In order for any group of stakeholders to participate in decision-making processes they need a facilitator, who will enable them to meaningfully participate and also help to motivate them to be part of the process. Teachers also need to be facilitated to voice their issues and suggest ways forward. Ideally then, it is teacher managers that should play this role of facilitator. Managers therefore need to be trained to be able to respond to the teachers' voices and consolidate policy directions in an empowering way. Involving the teachers in the day-to-day management of the school and giving them the feeling they are working as a team motivates them, while being leant on too much or too little contributes to the de-motivation of teachers. Regular staff meetings are considered very important. They create a team spirit and give teachers an opportunity to voice and hear about each other's issues and achievements. The headteacher plays a central role in this, though it is recognised that transparency in headteacher nominations along with headteacher training is essential to achieve this.

A Cluster Approach to CPD in Guinea (Box 21)

Faced with the challenges of growing student numbers, curriculum reform, teacher quality, unqualified teachers, the movement towards child-centred learning, and a growing understanding of the centrality of the teacher in the education process, in 1999 Guinea instigated a cluster approach to CPD as part of its Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels project. This expanded rapidly to the point where, by 2004, 25,000 teachers were meeting bi-monthly in 1,342 clusters. Roundtable discussions and lesson observations, taking place in meetings held by school cluster members on a rotating basis and chaired by respected local professional leaders, led to an atmosphere of professional collaboration and shared problem solving. Experiences were shared in a supportive environment, which promoted experimentation with innovation teaching practice and the development of open and co-operative partnerships where it was considered to be good and not bad to seek support for improvement in members' teaching skills.

This has transformed the way teachers talk about teaching, and provided a catalyst for mutually rewarding professional relationships. As well as this success in professional network-building, the participatory and process-orientated nature of the sessions, which have been led by master teachers, external advisers and teachers themselves, has enabled participants to experience for themselves alternative pedagogies. The project has had particular success in isolated rural communities who had previously felt unsupported and alienated in their need for support in implementing new teaching methodologies. The project is a good example of how decentralisation can work to build local human and social capital.

In-Service Teacher Training in Malawi (Box 22)

The Malawi Integrated In-service Teacher Education Project is a mixed college- and school-based programme designed in response to the demand for teachers brought about by universal free primary education. The majority of trainees are untrained teachers, and they

undergo a two-year skills-based programme, most of which is school-based supervised distance learning. Although the programme had many problems, including its suspension due to funding difficulties, there are a number of examples of good practice which indicate that school-based training is possible even in very resource-poor environments. These included the use of locally-written, well-illustrated student teacher handbooks, which outlined the structure of the course and stimulated discussion; zonal seminars for trainees, where practical and relevant skills were exchanged; and the enabling of successful mentoring between experienced teachers and trainees. Follow-up evaluation of the trainees once in teaching posts indicated that small but positive increases in teaching performance had been achieved, which suggests that greater integration between teacher training programmes and schools can result in better quality of teaching. This approach also has the potential to produce an output of new or trained teachers that more closely matches demand, although the project did demonstrate that there were significant capacity and cost restraints to maximising this potential.

Chance: Education for Nepal.
Child friendly Teacher Training Project. Monitoring and Evaluation Report Phase One: Feb 5th 2013
http://www.educationfornepal.org/wp-content/uploads/Child-Friendly-Training-Phase-One-Report.pdf

Chance works in Nepal to raise the quality and standard of education offered to children attending local Government and Community Schools through the implementation of a child-friendly teacher-training programme. Local Nepali teachers from 64 government and community-managed schools in Kaski District, Central Nepal have been trained in child-centred education and methodology. Each group of teachers received a week's intensive training and monthly Mobile Support Meetings are held on rotation in each cluster of schools. Four programme schools and one out-of-programme school were visited to review the progress made from the initial round of teacher training and monthly mobile support meetings.

The quality of pupil/teacher interaction was very high in all lessons observed by teachers who had completed the training and clear evidence of support and commitment amongst the teachers interviewed towards child-friendly, child-centred teaching methods was noted. All School Management Committee members interviewed reported positive changes in the way their children were being taught and felt the overall ethos and approach of their particular school had improved and the teachers reported high levels of satisfaction with the training provided and were extremely grateful for the opportunity to take part in it. This was reinforced within all Head Teachers interviews.

Interim Report on the UNICEF-COL Child Friendly Schools Project
http://www.col.org/progServ/programmes/education/teachEd/Documents/Interim-Report_UNICEF-COL_Aug2012.pdf

UNICEF and the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) have been working in partnership since 2008 to mainstream Child Friendly School (CFS) models and approaches into the pre-service and in-service teacher education curricula in ten countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Trinidad and Tobago, and Zambia). Feedback from the programme indicated general satisfaction with the programme and that the training had enabled them to acquire new skills and knowledge and made an impact on their perceptions and professional practice.
The successful implementation of the CFS project requires the early identification of a local CFS champion who will serve as the focal point throughout the duration of the project. The "CFS champion"/focal point played crucial roles in ensuring good communication, effect

coordination of CFS activities and sustaining strong staff motivation. There is huge potential to reach and impact tens of thousands of teachers and student teachers using the project's materials and trained teacher educators. It is estimated that the 718 nomadic teachers trained under this project would reach more than 13,000 nomadic children.

Child-friendly approach delivers soaring exam pass rates
31st March, 2008
http://plan-international.org/what-we-do/education/child-friendly-approach-delivers-soaring-exam-pass-rates/

In collaboration with KAPE (Kampuchean Action for Primary Education), Plan trained 40 primary school teachers to improve teaching quality, motivation and morale. Teachers learned new ways to make their classrooms child-friendly – such as abandoning corporal punishment and allowing children to sit in groups, instead of the traditional row formation. Teachers were also introduced to a 'student centered' teaching approach, which encourages children to do more study and explore on their own through small surveys, group discussion and group presentations – helping them to socialise and build a team spirit. School exam pass rates have increased from 5% to 97% over the last 2 years in Dambae district, Cambodia.

Non-graduate teacher recruitment and retention: some factors affecting teacher effectiveness in Tanzania
Towse P, Kent D, Osaki F, Kirua N. 2002. *Teaching and teacher education* 18 (6), 637-652.
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0742051X02000240

Recurrent training is of paramount importance for sustained improvements in the quality of educational provision. Students and experienced teachers alike must abandon the current notion that having completed their initial training they are trained for all time; both need to acknowledge that training is an ongoing process throughout their careers. This underlines the need for a radical change in their perception of professionalism. One way of promoting this would be through the introduction of a career structure based on professional development.

Empowering effective teachers: readiness for reform
Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation Issue Brief
https://docs.gatesfoundation.org/Documents/empowering-effective-teachers-readiness-for-reform.pdf

One barrier to major systems change is the lack of robust, multidimensional measures of teacher effectiveness. Great teaching, after all, is multidimensional and should be viewed through multiple lenses. Teachers should know what the expectations are for good teaching and what they can do to improve their practice. In autumn 2009, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation launched the Measures of Effective Teaching project to study multiple measures of teacher effectiveness—including videotaped classroom observations, student surveys, tests of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, and other test- and non-test-based data—and compare the measures to nationally recognised teaching standards. These data will help determine ways in which effective teaching can be measured fairly and consistently.

7. Teacher recruitment, retention and effectiveness in fragile and conflict-affected contexts

More and better teachers for quality education for all

Kirk, J., Dembélé, M., Baxter, S., (eds) 2013. Chapter 3 - The drive towards UPE and the transformation of the teaching profession in French-speaking Sub-Saharan Africa. Dembélé, M., Mellouki, M.
http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/mbt_chapter-3.pdf

Even in stable conditions, the number of teachers is not a static figure: rather, it is a snap-shot of a set of dynamics affecting the movements of men and women into, out of and within the ranks of the teaching profession. The challenge is greater in contexts of fragility—and especially post-conflict reconstruction, where teacher management systems often have to respond to a wide variety of teacher levels and backgrounds, including, for example, volunteer teachers who may not even have completed their own education and experienced teachers returning from refugee camps in neighbouring countries. This chapter on teacher recruitment and retention draws on case studies from Senegal, Mali and Niger, and focuses on the differences seen between contract teachers and civil-servant teachers.

Teacher attrition seems to be a problem in Mali and in Niger, even though the case studies do not give an indication of the scope of the problem. In Mali's case report, one can read: Instability is a key characteristic of contract teachers. They very often disappear without a trace as soon as another job opportunity comes by. Whether they are recruited by the State or by local authorities, contract teachers are a volatile and precarious group. Their instability was vehemently decried not only by the heads of school districts and regional offices of education but also by the international technical and financial partners (e.g. Care Mali, The World Bank, Plan International and others) who support Mali's education development efforts. According to them, teacher attrition is due, among others, to low salaries, the decline of teachers' social status, the loss of prestige of teaching as a profession, and the fact that contract teachers have no career plan.

In Niger, the researchers reported that the Regional Directors of Basic Education have little difficulty managing the professional files of tenured teachers—that is, civil servants. Managing contract teachers is a much more difficult task because of their lack of stability, which, according to the regional directors, is due to the fact that these teachers are in precarious situation, and to delays in payment of their stipends.

The widespread recruitment of contract teachers (with or without formal preparation) has undoubtedly helped increase access to primary education, as expressed in terms of gross enrolment in Mali, Niger, Senegal and, more recently, Burkina Faso. Based on the data presented in this chapter, one can, however, raise questions about the consequences of such teacher recruitment policies on the quality of education and the dynamics of the teaching profession. In particular, one must be worried about higher attrition rates among contract teachers compared with their civil service counterparts, as this may lead to a situation where youth and relative inexperience are constant characteristics of the teaching force. It becomes difficult in such a situation to envisage how novices can be well mentored by more experienced colleagues, especially in contexts where there is little or no support from mid-level staff in decentralised units (i.e. pedagogical advisers and inspectors), as is the case in the countries participating in this study. In such circumstances, one can be sceptical about making school-based teacher preparation programmes—which are gaining in prominence—work well.

It is by retaining effective, experienced teachers that one can ensure the accumulation of collective expertise in the profession. This expertise contributes to enhancing student learning both directly and indirectly through the quality mentoring that newcomers to the profession receive by design or informally.

Building Effective Teacher Salary Systems in Fragile and Conflict-Affected States
Winthrop R, Dolan J, Golden A, Ndaruhutse S.2012. Policy report. CfBT.
http://www.brookings.edu/research/reports/2012/10/fragile-conflict-states-winthrop

An effective and efficient teacher salary system is one of the most important elements of a high quality education system in any country. Teacher pay is directly linked with expanding access to schooling and while it may not have a direct impact on specific learning outcomes, an education system's ability to pay its teachers well and on time is closely linked with positive results such as teacher recruitment, retention, satisfaction and morale, as well as class size; factors that have themselves been connected with education quality (Sommers, 2005). Ensuring teachers are paid in full and on time is also only fair to teachers as many, particularly in contexts of state fragility and armed conflict, educate other people's children at enormous sacrifice to themselves and their families.

Establishing and maintaining an effective teacher salary system is not easy in any country but in fragile and conflict-affected states (FCAS) it is frequently a major barrier to rebuilding the education system. There are numerous examples, particularly in contexts plagued by state fragility and conflict, where teachers are either not paid at all, or if they are paid, their salaries are frequently not paid in full and often weeks, if not months, late.

The lack of effective teacher salary systems both denies young people their rights to an education and also hinders the 'peace dividend' that usually comes with quickly restoring equitable access to education. Governments must determine how much teachers are paid and establish a system to increase compensation based on experience and performance. They must also establish appropriate mechanisms to ensure that funds transferred through the system are not lost or leaked and they must maintain adequate teacher and education information management systems as well as payroll and financial transaction records. Managing these systems can be especially difficult in FCAS where the government often has limited capacity and resources to ensure that these mechanisms are in place and are functioning properly.

Understandably, external donor assistance is frequently sought for teacher pay problems. Indeed, the thrust of much of the call for donor support of teacher salaries is for increases in aid channelled directly into paying salaries (Commission for Africa, 2005; Bennell, 2004 and Global Campaign for Education, 2008). However, if a teacher salary system is not effective, any existing or additional funds that are given to pay teachers, either from national governments or external donors, are likely not to reach teachers. Hence, this report argues that policymakers need to have a dual focus – not only on increasing national and international resources for teacher salaries, but also on supporting teacher salary systems and the individual parts within them to ensure that resources reach their intended destination.

Template for a case study on teacher compensation: South Sudan
Ombaka, M.2007.INEE: New York.
http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/doc_1_NRC_in_DRC-Mary_Ombaka.pdf

The Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) were working with teachers initially working as volunteers in community supported schools but taken over by the government after signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). NGOs were involved in paying teachers' incentives before the government took over the responsibility of paying teachers' salaries in 2006. In 2006 when the government took over the responsibility for teachers' salaries, there were no structures for an efficient implementation of a salary scheme. Teachers' salaries in most states were in arrears of 3-6 months or more.
Challenges faced and how these were overcome:
- Teachers were not happy with the amount of money that was remitted as an incentive. As a result, there was lack of motivation leading to chronic absenteeism; lateness and lack of discipline among teachers and learners alike. During the rainy season, most schools would start at 11am because teachers cultivated their farms in the morning. It was hoped that the situation would improve with introduction of a government salary.

- The NRC had to make do with ill qualified teachers because people with better qualifications joined NGOs and other government sectors that paid better salaries. Although teacher training was constantly conducted to improve those who remained, there was very high turnover, due to demand of trained teachers elsewhere.
- Constant monitoring of teachers to support and strengthen them at school level helped. The NRC recognised excelling teachers by asking them to facilitate in the refresher training workshops that were organised for all trained teachers. Although this was not a tangible incentive, most were motivated for the esteem and recognition this approach gave them.
- The teachers' kits that NRC distributed made life in the classroom much easier for NRC supported teachers compared to their counterparts who had no textbooks, chalk and other teaching and learning materials that enhanced the teaching atmosphere.

Unfortunately many teachers in South Sudan do not feel motivated. They regret that after volunteering their services during the conflict period, the government had neglected them when it had the capacity to pay their salaries. Despite numerous teachers' training activities going on, most well qualified and trained teachers are leaving the teaching force to join other government sectors that pay better.

Roundtable on teacher compensation in fragile states, situations of displacement and post-conflict return
INEE.2006. Final report from meeting held on 11 October 2006 in Washington, DC.
http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/doc_1_TCompReport.pdf

In-Service Teacher Training as Compensation in a Situation of Internal Displacement: Darfur, Sudan. Presenter: Jill Zarchin, Education – Field Coordinator, UNICEF Sudan.
As a result of a shortage of teachers there were 2,400 volunteer teachers working in primary schools in IDP camps and host communities throughout Darfur in 2006. The majority of the volunteer teachers were secondary school graduates with a willingness to teach primary school but limited or no previous teaching experience. The volunteer teachers are all participants in an in-service teacher training programme that links a modest stipend ($50-$60 per teacher per month) to participation in the training programme. The programme, which began in July 2005 and was initiated by UNICEF in close collaboration with the MoE and NGOs, has made it possible to keep volunteer teachers from quitting, recruit new volunteer teachers for new classrooms, reduce class size and increase the knowledge and skills of the volunteer teachers.

Highlights from Working Group on Teacher Motivation
What motivates individual teachers varies, including money, altruism, professional development, identity and well-being. Another common denominator, substantiated in a VSO study, is success as a motivation: as students learn or change their behaviours even incrementally, teachers are motivated to continue the process and a "success cycle" is established, benefiting both students and teachers. Respect is another shared motivational factor—teachers want to feel valued and respected beyond, or apart from, monetary endorsement.

Enhancing teacher productivity may be as important as motivating performance. Many teachers are by nature motivated, especially those who opt to work in emergency situations. What remains in the success equation is to enhance their ability to be productive. This could entail furnishing them with sufficient and up-to-date teaching materials, providing opportunities for further professional development or organising support groups. Furthermore, teachers are themselves dealing with the effects of the crisis and teachers need more emotional support in dealing with this as well as helping learners to cope. There is often an initial assessment at the outset of an emergency, but no continuous or follow-up assessment. Recurring costs such as teacher compensation are typically underfunded. This

gap may cause issues when an area goes into the reconstruction phase, setting up a compensation base that cannot be sustained or does not factor in the teachers' ongoing needs

8. Annex: DFID tier 1 and tier 2 countries

Tier 1 (DFID bilateral)		Tier 2 (Non DFID bilateral)
Afghanistan	**Transition candidates**	Benin
Bangladesh	Ghana	Burkina Faso
DRC		Burundi
Ethiopia	**Graduation in Progress**	Central African Republic
Kenya	India	Chad
Liberia	South Africa	Comoros
Malawi		Côte d'Ivoire
Mozambique	**Bilateral Exceptions**	Eritrea
Myanmar	Kyrgyz Republic	Guinea
Nepal	Tajikistan	Guinea-Bissau
Nigeria	Occ. Palestinian Terr.	Haiti
Pakistan		Honduras
Rwanda		Lesotho
Sierra Leone		Madagascar
Somalia		Mali
South Sudan		Mauritania
Sudan		Niger
Tanzania		Papua New Guinea
Uganda		Republic of Congo
Yemen		Senegal
Zambia		The Gambia
Zimbabwe		Togo

9. Experts contacted

Experts contacted who were able to respond within the timeframe:
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