

QUALITY IN EDUCATION

TEACHER EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT



A literature review of research and studies on pre- and in-service teacher training in a global development context, including a brief special focus on the respective roles of school and community in the provision of quality education

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UDDANNELSES

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1. Introduction

In spring 2014, the Danish Education Network undertook an investigation of the nature of its member organisations' work with quality education. Although the Network's members work in different ways and in different contexts with quality education, the investigation revealed two common areas of particular concern to Danish organisations: (1) quality in teacher education and professional development; and (2) the contribution of the relationship between schools, families and local communities to quality education for children and young people.

This literature review focuses on these two areas of interest, with particular emphasis on teacher education and professional development. Through references to relevant research and studies, it identifies and defines factors that affect teachers' education and their work to provide children and young people with a school education of high quality. It refers to texts that both explore these topics and suggest ways of tackling the challenges that face teachers and education systems globally. At the end of each section, there is a list of texts for further reading. These lists obviously cannot mention every possible relevant text but focus on texts that are particularly useful for work with teacher education and professional development in the South.

2. Background

Ever since the *Education for All* (EFA) movement was launched in 1990 and followed up in 2000 by the *Dakar Framework for Action* on EFA, there has been a gradually increasing awareness of the importance of a focus on the quality of the education offered to children, young people and adults at all levels.

'Improving quality and learning is likely to be more central to the post-2015 global development framework. Such a shift is vital to improve education opportunities for the 250 million children who are unable to read, write, or do basic mathematics, 130 million of whom are in school. ... To solve the

learning crisis, all children must have teachers who are trained, motivated and enjoy teaching, who can identify and support weak learners, and who are backed by well-managed education systems.' (UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report summary 2013/14:12 & 30)

In other words, ensuring access to education is not sufficient. Many more children are now in school than was the case in 1990 or 2000, but they are not all learning enough. There is a huge range of factors that contribute to raising the quality of education, including the quality of teachers and their work and, increasingly, there is a focus on what needs to be done to ensure that teachers are able to provide the high quality teaching that is demanded of them.

'There are examples of education excellence without accountability, or common standards, or digital technology. But there are no instances of educational excellence without high-quality teachers and teaching.' (Hargreaves and Shirley 2009, in *NORRAG News 50*, 2014:25)

'Teacher education and professional development are the cornerstones of quality education. Whatever the education system, quality can only be achieved if teacher education and professional development are coherently organized across the life-course or career trajectory of teachers, and if they respond to evolving social values such as human rights, gender equity, economic justice, sustainable livelihoods and healthy lives.' (Education International & Oxfam Novib, *Quality Educators: An International Study of Teacher Competences and Standards*, 2011:8)

'If we want schools to produce more powerful learning on the part of students, we have to offer more powerful learning opportunities to teachers... Unless teachers have access to serious and sustained learning opportunities at every stage in their career, they are unlikely to teach in ways that meet demanding new standards for student learning or to participate in the solution of educational problems.' (Feiman-Nemser 2001, in Burns, M. and Lawrie, J. (eds), *Where it's needed most: Quality professional development for all teachers*, INEE 2015:7)

'A child has a right to an education that is appropriate to their learning needs and prepares them for their future life. To deliver this, teachers need to be qualified and motivated, but this on its own is not enough. A child's ability to benefit from a good quality education also depends on parent and community involvement. School management and education policy must support child-centred education and be accountable to children, teachers, parents and the community.' (VSO, *VSO and Education 2007-2012*:4)

The above quotations illustrate the central importance of teachers and teaching in the achievement of the quality education that children have a right to receive. They also demonstrate that the quality of teachers and of the teaching they do in classrooms around the world cannot be seen in isolation from other factors that continually affect their working environments.

3. Teacher recruitment and retention

There is a chronic shortage of teachers and in particular of qualified teachers in most parts of the developing world. This situation is at least partially the result of increased pupil enrolment at primary school level over the last few decades, particularly notable after the removal of or subsidisation of school fees as a consequence of the EFA/MDG campaigns. For example, Herman Kruijer (in *Learning How To Teach*, Education International 2010:19) estimates that the higher numbers of pupils attending school has resulted in an increase in the average teacher-pupil ratio in sub-Saharan Africa from 41 up to 45 pupils per teacher between 1999 and 2006, an indication that numbers of teachers have not kept up with the rise in pupil attendance.

Estimates as to the numbers of teachers needed in the education system in order to fulfil EFA targets vary. For example, GCE's 2006 estimate (quoted in Moon/UNESCO 2007:5) is that between 14 and 22.5 million extra teachers will be necessary and that many more existing teachers will need (further) training for EFA to be achieved. The Education For All Global Monitoring Report 2013/14 states that 5.2 million teachers are needed in order to achieve universal primary education by 2015 and 20.6 million will be needed by 2030 (UNESCO 2013/14:186).

Other estimates e.g. Buckler & Gafar (in Moon 2013:116) indicate that Sub-Saharan Africa, the worst-affected region, lacks 1.2 million primary school teachers to fill existing vacancies. In addition, about 4 million unqualified or very underqualified teachers (some with as little as two weeks' job preparation) are working in schools. These teachers are variously referred to as contract teachers or 'para-professionals' in the literature.

UNICEF (2012, in Moon 2013:24) estimates that, in Uttar Pradesh in India alone, there are 921 schools without one single teacher.

Whatever the precise figures, the lack of teachers to meet the need for universal primary school education leads to at least three major problems:

1. Low quality of the education provided, simply because there are not enough teachers to go around, leading to, for example, schools without teachers (in particular in rural, isolated or poor regions that have difficulty attracting teachers), schools with teachers who lack skills in the local language or in cultural awareness, or schools with very high teacher-pupil class size ratios.
2. The extensive employment of unqualified or underqualified teachers, also leading to a low quality of education, as these teachers do not usually have sufficient subject or pedagogical knowledge to meet educational needs. Furthermore, as these so-called para-professional teachers are often very poorly paid, their presence on the teacher labour market lowers the status of the teaching profession, thus making it even more difficult to attract able candidates into teacher education and close the missing teacher gap.
3. Pressure on pre-service teacher training courses which have neither the necessary resources to train the numbers of teachers required nor the flexibility to offer training options that cater for the needs of their potential students, e.g. young people who cannot afford to leave their local area (and perhaps their work there) to move to the nearest teacher training institution.

Teacher retention is generally seen as at least as important an issue as teacher supply. A lack of data and low levels of precision in monitoring systems make it difficult to access reliable information on the subject, among other things to distinguish between teacher migration (moving to other teaching jobs in other geographical areas) and real teacher attrition (leaving the profession altogether). However, there are some published statistics. For example, in Zambia, a third of rural teachers and a quarter of urban teachers move job every year (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007, in Moon 2013:24).

Frustratingly, it appears that improving the qualifications of primary teachers can lead both to increased migration to other jobs in the education sector, such as better paid positions in secondary schools, and to increased attrition rates, as teachers take advantage of their better qualified status to find employment in completely different fields (Dladla & Moon in Moon 2013:23).

Further reading

Kruijer, Herman (2010), *Learning How To Teach* (Education International)

Moon, Bob (2007), *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (UNESCO Working Paper)

Moon, Bob (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development: A global analysis* (Routledge)

UNESCO (2013/14), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14 – *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all*

4. The best teaching candidates

The 2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report states that ‘the first step to getting good teachers is to attract the best and most motivated candidates into the profession’ (UNESCO 2013/14 summary: 38). This sounds straightforward enough, but the characteristics that constitute ‘best’ and ‘motivated’ are not always clear in this context.

For example, the MUSTER project (University of Sussex 2003:20) points out that the selection of students for teacher education is often done on an imprecise basis. The most common criteria for admission relate to levels of academic achievement, which the MUSTER research showed were not necessarily the best selection criteria; interviews, aptitude tests and language tests would be valid supplements to conventional academic results. Given that most attempts to raise the level of teacher training entrants currently happen through the raising of traditional academic entrance requirements, a change of approach, accompanied by a consideration of procedures needed to take other factors into account, would probably be a good idea. The 2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO 2013/14 summary: 38) gives an example of entry requirements to teacher training in Egypt, which consist initially of both good academic results from secondary school and an assessment interview, after which there is an additional entrance examination to establish whether the potential student teacher has the right characteristics to become a teacher.

Some countries have different routes of entry into teacher training, which may vary according to the background and experience of applicants. The 2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report takes as an example the recruitment of teachers from minority cultural/ethnic groups to teach in their own communities. In many countries, these groups are marginalised, also in terms of the quality of the primary and secondary education that they receive, making it difficult for them to gain access to

further or higher education, including teacher training. Cambodia, for instance, has tackled the problem by making academic requirements for teacher education more flexible in remote areas where upper secondary education is not available, thereby increasing 'the number of teachers who understand local culture, are motivated to stay in remote areas and can teach in the local language' (UNESCO 2013/14:235).

Since teaching in many countries is not a job which confers high status, a large proportion of the students entering teacher training are not academically very highly qualified, as the academically most successful students tend to apply for medical, engineering or similar studies that result in more prestigious jobs (UNESCO 2013/14 summary: 38). In cases where the start level of student teachers' academic skills is seen to be too low, governments should consider whether there should be subject upgrading courses at teacher training institutions or access programmes at secondary school level and which options would be most (cost-)effective (MUSTER project, University of Sussex 2003:20). The 2013/14 EFA GMR (UNESCO 2013/14:187) makes a similar recommendation.

As for those who are accepted into teacher training, it is important to take into account the different starting points that these students have at a more personal level: their attitudes to teaching and reasons for choosing the profession, their previous experience of school and teaching, their age (not all are direct school leavers) etc. These characteristics have an influence on their learning needs and the curriculum should be flexible enough to accommodate this. In the article 'Critical thinking for development: Representations in the GMR' (NORRAG News 50, 2014:46), Rebecca Schendel points out that all teachers (and student teachers) have a teaching philosophy, however subconscious it might be. In their own teaching, they will inevitably be inclined towards an approach that reflects a mixture of this philosophy and a tendency to teach as they themselves were previously taught. These factors contribute to the formation of their professional and personal identities. Therefore, developing appropriate knowledge and skills for their new teaching jobs requires much more than simply acquiring a new set of tools; it involves a process of information and reflection that takes place in a context of respect and integrity that allows for initial resistance and/or feelings of disorientation.

High standards are necessary for entrants to teacher education, but diversity is also essential. The teachers of the future will meet a wide range of schools and pupils and there have to be teachers who are qualified to do so. The GCE 'Every Child Needs A Teacher' report (GCE ECNAT 2012:25) states: 'Attention should [also] be paid to gender balance and to diversity and inclusivity in teacher recruitment, including in terms of linguistic, ethnic, religious and regional identity, and disability. This is a crucial condition for ensuring quality education for all girls and boys.'

Similar emphasis is found, for example, in the 2013/14 EFA GMR report (UNESCO 2013/14 summary: 39), where it is pointed out that the diversification of the teaching force could require more flexible entry qualifications than currently exist. In addition to flexibility in entry qualifications, the effectiveness of this diversification of the teaching force also requires the introduction of incentives for teachers to take jobs in the slums or poor rural areas where most disadvantaged students live but where most teachers normally do not wish to work. Incentives could, for example, be improved housing (often an issue for teachers who work away from their own home area) or extra bonuses or allowances of different kinds (UNESCO EFA GMR 2013/14:187).

Further reading

GCE (2012) *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT)

Moon, Bob (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development: A global analysis* (Routledge)

NORRAG News 50 (June 2014)

University of Sussex (2003), MUSTER project report

UNESCO (2013/14), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14 (and report summary)

5. Teacher qualifications

There is general agreement on the characteristics of teachers who are involved in quality education. Martial Dembélé and Bé-Rammaj Miaro-II (in Moon 2013:186) claim that ‘mature’ teachers:

- *Know their subject matter;*
- *Use pedagogy appropriate for the content;*
- *Use an appropriate language of instruction, and have mastery of that language;*
- *Create and sustain an effective learning environment;*
- *Find out about and respond to the needs and interests of their students and communities;*
- *Reflect on their teaching and children’s responses and make changes to the learning environment as necessary;*
- *Have strong work ethics;*
- *Are committed to teaching;*
- *Care about their students.*

John Hattie (2012:23) is much more specific. He writes that what he calls ‘powerful, passionate, accomplished teachers’ do the following:

- *Focus on students’ cognitive engagement with the content of what it is that is being taught;*
- *Focus on developing a way of thinking and reasoning that emphasizes problem-solving and teaching strategies relating to the content that they wish students to learn;*
- *Focus on imparting new knowledge and understanding, and then monitor how students gain fluency and appreciation in this new knowledge;*
- *Focus on providing feedback in an appropriate and timely manner to help students to attain the worthwhile goals of the lesson;*
- *Seek feedback about their effect on the progress and proficiency of all their students;*
- *Have deep understanding about how we learn; and*
- *Focus on seeing learning through the eyes of the students, appreciating their fits and starts in learning, and their often non-linear progressions to the goals, supporting their deliberate practice, providing feedback about their errors and misdirections, and caring that the students get to the goals and that the students share the teacher’s passion for the material being learnt.*

The 2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report looks at some of these qualities in the context of improving teacher education to benefit all children (UNESCO 2013/14:236ff).

However, although there might be general agreement on the qualities that we look for in good teachers, there is considerably less certainty about the best way to attain these competences. The next section provides a review of ways of tackling initial teacher education.

Further reading

Hattie, John (2012), *Visible Learning for Teachers* (Routledge)

Moon, Bob (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development: A global analysis* (Routledge)

UNESCO (2013/14), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14

6. Pre-service teacher education

Evidence is not conclusive as to how pupil attainment (in school) is affected by the level of teachers' formal qualifications. There is some evidence that pupils' learning increases in direct proportion to the level of formal qualifications that teachers have (see, for example, Oxfam Novib 2001:13 and UNESCO GMR 2005). However, there is also significant research that points to the way teachers teach in practice in the classroom as being the decisive factor, rather than the level of formal qualifications in itself or the number of years of teaching experience that they have. For example, a study of teachers in the Punjab (Aslam & Kingdon in Moon 2013:12) showed that, when both teacher qualifications and teaching strategies were investigated, it was revealed that 'the way teachers teach is more significant than fixed characteristics such as qualifications'. Similarly, the 2005 EFA Global Monitoring Report states that: 'What goes on in the classroom, and the impact of the teacher and teaching, has been identified in numerous studies as *the* crucial variable for improving learning outcomes. The way teachers teach is of critical concern in any reform designed to improve quality' (UNESCO 2005:152).

Lee Nordstrum (in Moon 2013:40-41) argues that, if it is true that formal teaching qualifications are not the most relevant criteria for a high-quality education, then the logical conclusion must be that a lot of money is being spent, and possibly wasted, both on expensive pre-service teacher training institutions and on higher salaries for qualifications and/or experience that do not in fact make the desired difference. Seen from this point of view, these resources could with advantage instead be allocated to, for example, alternative forms of teacher education and professional development. He claims that what he calls 'seniority pay' undermines teaching excellence in the sense that it does not compensate teachers who work in more challenging than average contexts (e.g. very remote or poor schools), it does not reward exceptional teaching performance and it does not encourage those with most potential to enter teaching (in Moon 2013:41)

The MUSTER project report (University of Sussex 2003:16) concludes that: 'The costs of existing methods of training are such that simple expansion of existing capacity is often not financially viable.' In other words, in the sub-Saharan African context the project investigated, the need for qualified teachers cannot be fulfilled through the traditional channels of pre-service teacher training. This point of view is supported by, for example, the 2005 and 2011 EFA Global Monitoring Reports (e.g. UNESCO 2005:21/22 and UNESCO 2011:83), which criticize existing programmes of pre-service teacher education for not producing enough new teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills for the job.

However, the fact that pre-service teacher training is clearly not living up to its role of producing enough highly-qualified teachers for school systems in the developing world does not mean that pre-service teaching training or the institutions that provide it are a bad idea in themselves. They have to adapt to be able to provide education that will raise the quality of teaching and results in schools.

The MUSTER project (University of Sussex, 2003:16ff) analysed current teacher education across a range of countries and came to some general conclusions that seem to be applicable in more than just the context of one specific country situation.

First of all, at policy level, many countries do not have realistic or financially sustainable plans for teacher education that can meet current teacher requirements. Nor do they link pre-service teacher training with the essential continual professional development that teachers require throughout their professional lives. Furthermore, relationships between different levels of authority need to be clearer, with established lines of administrative control and accountability and degree of autonomy.

Bob Moon in the report 'Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers' (UNESCO 2007:12-13) refers to the lack of a stable policy basis for development as one of the major challenges facing teacher education. He sees six problem areas as particularly relevant:

1. The majority of training resources are going into long pre-service teacher education programmes which train only a minority of the teachers needed, resulting in the parallel recruitment of much less well-qualified teachers to the profession;
2. Primary teachers tend to use their teaching qualification as a stepping stone to work either in secondary teaching or in a completely different kind of work altogether. This means that resources are not actually going into the improvement of primary education in the long term;
3. The status of primary school teaching is low in many countries, both in terms of salaries and general respect and standing in society;
4. In many countries, the curriculum of teacher education still centres on traditional disciplines of subject knowledge and education theory, often with very little connection to practical pedagogical considerations as to how these disciplines can be integrated into the daily classroom practice of teachers;
5. While there are places where teachers can follow qualification upgrading courses while working in schools, these tend to focus almost exclusively on the individual teacher and very little on the potential that the teacher's qualification upgrading could have on colleagues and on the development of his/her school or local district as a whole;
6. A brake on the potential of teacher education to offer high-quality training to the large numbers of people who need it seems to be a lack of ability to move beyond traditional pre-service, campus-based provision. There is a need to explore the potential of, for example, open and distance learning.

Secondly, at the level of curriculum, it appears that better use could be made of pre-service teacher training. For example, the MUSTER project (University of Sussex 2003:21ff) lists factors such as: (1) the need to match the curriculum to student teachers' needs and to previous levels of attainment in their subjects; (2) the need to reduce the size of the curriculum to content that is realistic for the students with their levels of previous knowledge to cover meaningfully; (3) the need to acknowledge and integrate students' attitudes to and previous experiences of the teaching profession; (4) the methodologies used (including how to combine theory, practice and personal experience in a constructive way); (5) ways of assessment that combine theory and practice; (6) the need to design curricula for specific contexts such as bilingual education, very large classes etc.; and (7) the need for a clarification of the overall aims of teacher education and the kinds of teachers it should produce and a corresponding adjustment of the curriculum. The GCE ECNAT report (2012:28) states that research by

Education International and Oxfam shows that teachers are often not aware of national standards for improving the quality of teacher training even when they exist.

In terms of content/curriculum, the GCE ECNAT report (2012:28) emphasises 'core teacher competencies, including knowledge, teaching skills and attitudes.' For them this means the study of school subject areas, pedagogical methods and sensitivity to learners' educational needs. They also point out the need for training in, for example, children's rights, gender sensitivity, and respect for diversity, especially in school situations with considerable inequality, where teachers need a knowledge and understanding of gender and diversity in order to respect the children they teach and promote respect among the children themselves.

Most research and reports from practice focus on the balance between theory and practice in teacher education. According to Bob Moon (UNESCO 2007:9), 'attempts to balance theory and practice have, at different times in different places, dominated debate about the function and purpose of teacher education.' David Hawker (in NORRAG News 50:43) states that teacher training is too theoretical, 'with not enough good practical instruction and not enough time spent in schools actually learning the skills of teaching.' While his opinion is generally that there should be more emphasis on teachers learning throughout their careers, he still thinks that pre-service teacher training programmes should focus on improving this balance. Similarly, Herman Kruijer in the 'Learning how to teach' report (Education International 2010:30) has found that pre-service teacher education tends to focus on theory in the form of both subject knowledge and pedagogical theory to a much greater extent than in-service education. His conclusion is that, in this situation, where teacher training is not school-based, there is a risk that theory will not be integrated into practice, especially where the theory is generalized and not necessarily specifically geared to the context of the classrooms that new teachers are going to work in.

Moon (UNESCO 2007:23) suggests that the following three strategies are necessary in order for pre-service teacher training to produce teachers who can deliver quality education:

1. Curriculum reform: more focus on 'core classroom skills' that incorporate teachers' daily work with their pupils;
2. Reduction in the length of pre-service training: shorter initial training with more opportunities for continuous professional development during teachers' careers, a policy that would give resources to train more teachers;
3. Exploitation of technologies: access to teacher training will be improved if available information and communication technologies are exploited more effectively.

The MUSTER project (University of Surrey 2003:28) sums up the various approaches to teacher training that appear to exist across the globe. There are seven 'modes' which span from conventional full-time college-based training with no preceding experience at one extreme, to mentored pre-training experience followed by wholly school-based training on the job leading to mentored distance support at the other.

The variety of models of teacher training that are used indicates that a long period of full-time study at a teacher training institution is not necessarily the only option. Alternative training modes appear to offer opportunities for, for example, increased focus on the integration of pedagogical and/or subject theory into the real life of classroom practice, more account taken of student teachers' own points of

departure, and an acknowledgement of the need for continued professional development after initial teacher training has ended.

Further reading

GCE (2012), *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT)

Kruijer, Herman (2010), *Learning How To Teach* (Education International)

Lewin, Keith & Stuart, Janet (2003), *Researching Teacher Education: New Perspectives on Practice, Performance and Policy – Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER)* (University of Sussex)

Moon, Bob (2007), *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (UNESCO Working Paper)

NORRAG News 50 (2014)

7. Teacher professional development (also known as in-service training)

We have already seen that there has traditionally been an emphasis on pre-service teacher education, with a tendency to a lack of connection between pre-service training and professional development and often a lack of professional development altogether. The 2005 EFA GMR (UNESCO 2005:162-3) states, for example, that: 'Education policy has long put more priority on initial teacher training than continuing in-service education ... Balancing time and money spent on initial training and ongoing professional support is a critical policy question'. Similarly, Bob Moon in UNESCO's Teacher Education report (2007:15) recognises that almost all teacher training focuses on pre-service education, while professional development tends to remain at much lower levels of funding, quality and coordination.

It is widely acknowledged in research that teacher professional development is essential throughout a teacher's working life in order to maintain and upgrade classroom skills. Kenneth King (in NORRAG News 50:17) writes: 'In the absence of in-service training, or prior training that encourages reflection on practice, teachers continue to teach as they were taught to do in their pre-service formation or as they learned in earlier schooling. Interventions, such as improved textbooks, smaller classes, and in-service training that increases teachers' subject knowledge, will have little or no impact on actual practices.' In other words, without the skill of reflection on classroom practice, other forms of input are likely to have very limited effect. If these other forms of input are not to be wasted, the way resources are used has to be (re-)considered.

Bird, Moon & Storey (in Moon 2013:29) point out that teachers themselves identify a lack of opportunities for professional development as problematic. This includes not only teachers who have received some form of pre-service training but also those who are unqualified or have very little qualifications and work in classrooms with almost no formal back-up whatsoever.

David Hawker (in NORRAG News 2014:43) gives priority to pre-service teacher training but points out that it is not enough, especially for students who start from a low level of attainment. Professional development is essential to ensure that these new teachers reach a level where they can deliver quality education. He adds that evidence from countries with successful education systems indicates that professional development is particularly important in the first few years of a teacher's career. This is when teachers are in the process of establishing their professional identities and is the period of time where they can make constructive use of relevant input that will stay with them for the rest of

their working lives. It is also a way of accustoming teachers to a norm of continuous professional study and improvement.

The EFA GMR 2013/14 (UNESCO 2013/14:245) emphasises the importance of teacher professional development in contexts where teaching methods are being updated to move away from traditional approaches to more participatory, critical methods: 'Without training, teachers can find the shift to learner-centred pedagogy demanding, particularly in schools with few resources. In rural India, for example, primary school teachers experienced tensions in what they saw as the handing over of greater classroom control to pupils. Teachers need ongoing support to help them adapt to new approaches.' The report includes examples from various parts of the world.

In the report 'Using Technology to Train Teachers' (InfoDev 2005:30), Edmond Gaible and Mary Burns define high quality Teacher Professional Development (TPD) in the following way: 'TPD is the tool by which policy makers convey broad visions, disseminate critical information, and provide guidance to teachers. Effective TPD begins with an understanding of teachers' needs and their work environments – schools and classrooms. TPD then combines a range of techniques to promote learning; provides teachers with the support they need; engages school leadership; and makes use of evaluation to increase its impact. Essential techniques include mentoring, teamwork, observation, reflection and assessment. TPD programs should engage teachers as learners, typically involving the process of 'modelling'.

Herman Kruijer in 'Learning how to teach' (Education International 2010:7) emphasises the importance of mentoring and continuous in-school evaluation and research in professional development, as well as the provision of suitable materials for teaching and learning and the capacity building of stakeholders at different levels.

Gaible and Burns (InfoDev 2005:30ff) describe three broad types of teacher professional development:

1. Standardised TPD: This is the approach that is used with large teacher populations, possibly across great geographical distances and, as the name implies, it tends to have a 'one-size-fits-all' philosophy;
2. Site-based TPD: Groups of teachers in a school or region work together intensively to promote significant changes in their classroom practice;
3. Self-directed TPD: This is independent learning, which the teacher has sometimes decided on him/herself, using available resources and often without outside support.

These three approaches do not need to be mutually exclusive and elements of all three can complement each other in one professional development programme. However, Gaible and Burns (InfoDev 2005:31) recommend that all professional development programmes should build on site-based TPD since it will always reflect the conditions that teachers work in and the needs that they experience. They also include (InfoDev 2005:19) a rough guide as to how teachers' pedagogical skills can be classified: basic, intermediate and advanced skills, which can help teachers themselves and others identify relevant goals for professional development. For example, basic skills include being able to teach basic language and arithmetic skills using traditional ways of teaching, while advanced skills include knowing how to build on students' previous knowledge, teach students analytical skills and use a variety of teaching approaches.

When Hanbing & McCormick (in Moon 2013:70) advocate what they call 'school-based' professional development, they also emphasise the above-mentioned characteristics of site-based TPD. As an example, they describe how, in many Asian countries, school-based professional development takes the form of lesson studies (a type of action research) or joint planning, both of which are completely grounded in classroom practice and the context in which the teachers work. They add (Moon 2013:84 and 128) that many standardised professional development programmes do not take account of the fact that teachers intimately know their own classrooms and teaching contexts, with the unfortunate result that these programmes seldom allow teachers to enter into ongoing enquiry or reflection about their own teaching. In particular, they refer to teachers working in poor, remote rural areas where pedagogical theories and academic study can seem worlds away from their everyday teaching lives, making it essential that professional development provides an opportunity to draw these worlds together through supportive reflection on the challenges of their classrooms. Banks & Dherman argue (in Moon 2013:87) that: 'Participatory programmes which encourage and promote interactive training through an ongoing dialogue between teachers and other stakeholders, including teacher educators, material developers, examiners, administrators and publishers, may be the key to successful teacher development'. They also mention that this may be an important factor in encouraging teachers to stay in teaching because they will more likely see themselves as important contributors to the system in that role, rather than use their qualifications to leave the profession for other jobs.

Similarly, VSO (*VSO and Education, 2007-2012:8*) emphasise that their work with teachers involves 'long-term accompaniment' by volunteer professionals who function as mentors, facilitating reflection on their teaching practices and the possible relationships between potential new practices and their own contexts.

The report 'Learning how to teach' (Kruijer, Education International, 2010:33) takes up the subject of mentors, underlining how important a role they have in the training and professional development of, in particular, unqualified and underqualified teachers. They can both provide necessary knowledge and facilitate the process of reflection on and integration into classroom practice. The report makes the point that it is therefore of the utmost importance to train and pay mentors adequately so they are in a position to make use of participatory and active learning methods in their work with teachers.

David Hawker (in NORRAG News 50, 2014:44) emphasises the importance of well-structured mentoring in professional development programmes that are more self-guided than standardised programmes usually are. In a challenging teaching context, it can be difficult for teachers to maintain momentum and find sufficient time and motivation for reflection processes, which is where skilled mentors can make a huge difference.

According to the 2013/14 EFA GMR (UNESCO 2013/14:244), 'the countries that achieve the highest scores in international learning assessments such as PISA and TIMSS emphasize mentoring of all newly qualified teachers, supported by additional resources targeted to their schools. Time is allocated to enable new teachers and their mentors to participate in coaching and other induction activities, and for training of mentors.'

The GCE ECNAT report (GCE 2012:29) draws attention to the phenomenon of 'communities of practice' which incorporate specific training sessions into an ongoing programme of professional development that allows new input to be reflected upon and integrated into the professional contexts

of the teachers who belong to the community of practice. One good example of this is the 'Spiral Model' developed in the late 1990s in South Africa by the Danish organisation IBIS' project 'Learning for Sustainability' in collaboration with teachers, facilitators and staff from the South African Ministry of Education and Training. The model emphasises long-term professional development in which teachers work in 'clusters' (groups of colleagues from the same or nearby schools) to reflect on and analyse their own and each other's classes and plan future teaching.

Burns & Lowrie (INEE 2015:69ff) devote an entire chapter in the book *Where it's needed most: Quality professional development for all teachers* to the topic of teacher collaboration and ways of promoting it. They conclude (2015:79) that 'when schools create the time, space and emotional and logistical supports for productive collaboration among teachers, the benefits include greater consistency in instruction, more willingness to share practices and try new ways of teaching, a greater *esprit de corps* among teachers and more success in solving problems of practice.... [T]eacher collaboration and community building deepen teachers' knowledge, build their skills, improve instruction and narrow the achievement gaps in math and science among low and middle-income students.'

The 2013/14 EFA GMR (UNESCO 2013/14:246) notes that 'the key role that teacher educators play in shaping teachers' skills is often the most neglected aspect of teacher preparation systems.' In many countries, for example, it is not seen as necessary for teacher educators to have close contact with the schools for which they are preparing their students, which obviously makes it difficult for them to respond to new requirements from the school system. In general, most teacher educators have very little specific training.

Burns & Lowrie (INEE 2015:104) write: 'The competencies required for a good teacher educator are similar to those for good teachers – specialized content knowledge and in-depth knowledge of good instructional and assessment practices, for example. But the competencies required for effective teacher educators also include in-depth knowledge of effective professional development programs, of evaluation and monitoring and of coaching and mentoring.' They go on to explain possible models for the training of teacher educators and furthermore emphasise that the improvement of teacher education systems involves, in addition to a focus on individual teacher educators, also institutional and structural decisions concerning resources, standards and the official definition of what a 'good teacher' really is.

Further reading

Burns, M. & Lowrie, J. (2015), *Where it's needed most: Quality professional development for all teachers* (INEE)

Gaible, Edmond and Burns, Mary (2005), *Using Technologies to Train Teachers* (InfoDev)

GCE (2012), *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT)

Kruijer, Herman (2010), *Learning How To Teach* (Education International)

Moon, Bob (2007), *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (UNESCO Working Paper)

Moon, Bob (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development* (Routledge)

NORRAG News 50 (2014)

UNESCO (2005), EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005

UNESCO (2013/14), Global Monitoring Report, 2013/14

VSO, *VSO and Education, 2007-2012*

8. New technologies

As mentioned above, Bob Moon (UNESCO 2007) mentions three issues that he sees as being of particular importance to teacher education and professional development, one of which is the exploitation of the revolution in information and communication technologies (ICTs) that has taken place over recent years. He gives several examples (UNESCO 2007:16-17) from sub-Saharan Africa of cases where communications technologies have been put to good use, such as Mindset (www.mindset.co.za), SchoolNet (www.school.za), the African Virtual University based in Nairobi (www.avu.org) and the TESSA (Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa – www.tessaprogramme.org) network, all of which offer tools and support for local developers.

As Moon states in another publication (*Opening Learning and ICTs: A Radical Solution To Preparing Teachers To Meet The Universal Basic Education Challenge*, Open University 2004:10): ‘Open and distance learning, with new forms of ICT, gives the flexibility for learners to study at a time and place which is convenient to them rather than a timetable or schedule predetermined by institutional organizational requirements’. Well-designed, school-based open and distance learning programmes can provide the flexibility and relevance to their daily working context that both qualified and unqualified teachers need in order to improve their teaching and learning outcomes for their pupils. It is important to note that distance-learning study should still have a school-based practical component in order to lead to sustainable teacher professional development.

The 2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO 2013/14:247) recommends distance learning as one way of training large numbers of teachers at a relatively low cost. An example from Malawi is described, where trainees receive three weeks of orientation, after which they spend two years at their assigned schools, simultaneously completing self-guided learning modules from a local teacher training college.

Moon (2004:12) claims that, even in the most remote communities, some members of teacher education projects can access online support somewhere at least some of the time (while admitting elsewhere that there are still what he terms ‘digitally isolated communities’, often in rural locations with indigenous populations). Not only does this give access to knowledge and ideas that anyone is free to exploit in a way that is relevant to them, it also (Moon 2004:13) reconceptualises the traditional view of the ‘weakness’ or ‘helplessness’ of (in this case) Africa, offering opportunities for greater equality of exchanges of ideas and experience.

Banks & Dheram (in Moon 2013:88) mention two particularly relevant effects of the use of ICT in teacher education/professional development that they have observed in India: (1) It makes teacher learning ‘local’ because the use of ICT allows professional development to take place within the teacher’s school and in his/her own classroom. Evidence shows that this is much more likely to make a difference to the way in which teachers teach in their day-to-day work than if their professional development takes place in course form at a local education centre or somewhere even further away from their teaching lives; (2) The use of ICT in profession development enables learning to become a communal experience and therefore more likely to become a part not only of one teacher’s classroom practice but of the school’s pedagogical practice generally. There is less likely to be a focus on an all-knowing tutor and more likely to be an exchange of ideas among a group of teachers who meet, either physically or via Web 2.0 technology such as Twitter or Facebook, and help each other develop and

improve their teaching. Social networking has made learning less formal and more social, creating a potential revolution for higher education all over the world.

There is also evidence (Buckler & Gafar in Moon 2013:124) that the use of mobile phones between teachers and tutors on in-service training courses increases interaction, improves relationships and reduces the drop-out rate.

Gaible and Burns (InfoDev 2005:7ff) offer an organised assessment of various types of technology from the point of view of teacher professional development, covering computers, radio and internet, television, video recordings, and online TPD as an overall concept. Their assessments include the strengths and limitations of each technology, a cost profile and other considerations that could be relevant.

Burns & Lowrie (INEE 2015:131ff) explain how ICT can be used to gain access to content, professional development and professional development communities, providing criteria for the effective use of ICT and giving examples of the ways in which various technologies, from Interactive Radio Instruction to mobile phones to what they call 'serious gaming' can support teacher professional learning. They conclude: 'ICT has the potential to genuinely support teacher professional learning because it can bring models of good practice, provide quality resources and encourage dialogue between knowledgeable peers. It can be an impetus or catalyst to re-assess current or heavily embedded practice in teacher development, as it can create energy to review previously held assumptions by offering an alternative approach. ICT can help access difficult to reach locations and more efficiently improve teacher learning (and therefore child-learning) in remote areas.'

Further reading

Burns, M. & Lowrie, J. (2015), *Where it's needed most: Quality professional development for all teachers* (INEE)

Edmond Gaible and Mary Burns (2005), *Using Technologies to Train Teachers* (InfoDev)

Bob Moon (2004), *Open Learning and ICTs* (Open University)

Bob Moon (2007), *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (UNESCO Working Paper)

Bob Moon (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development* (Routledge)

UNESCO (2013/14), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*

World Bank: *ICTs for teacher training* -

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTGENDER/EXTICTTOOLKIT/0,,contentMDK:20272989~menuPK:562602~pagePK:64168445~piPK:64168309~theSitePK:542820,00.html>

9. Education in Emergencies and in Fragile Contexts

The training of teachers to operate in Education in Fragile or Emergency contexts involves many of the same considerations as the pre-service training and professional development of teachers in 'normal' situations. For example, the training should take its starting point both in the education context and in the previous knowledge/experience and needs of the teachers, whether trained or unqualified. The importance of teachers' active participation and reflection and the need for mentoring to facilitate these processes are also still very much valid.

The INEE (International Network for Education in Emergencies - <http://www.ineesite.org/en/>), the leading organisation in the field, goes as far as to suggest that: 'Emergencies may offer opportunities for improving curricula, teacher training, professional development and support, instruction and learning processes and assessment of learning outcomes so that education is relevant, supportive and protective for learners' (INEE 2010:76). INEE's website provides a range of resources, both books and toolkits, for tackling these situations.

However, education in emergency or fragile contexts obviously involves extraordinary conditions and challenges that also need to be taken into consideration. INEE (Burns & Lowrie, 2015:9) describes teacher professional development in fragile contexts as 'an under-theorized and under-researched domain, further perpetuating the cycle of poor teacher professional development and, consequently, poor overall education delivery in the parts of the globe most in need of both'. The recruitment and training of teachers in these contexts requires specific attention if both children's and young people's rights are to be respected, an optimal quality of education is to be attained, and the best possible reintegration of both children and teachers into the established education system after the crisis is to be achieved.

INEE (2010:94) defines education in emergencies as having a role that 'strengthens resilience by providing children, youth and communities with life-saving information, learning opportunities and social support that build towards a more positive future.' Teachers and others involved in emergency education or education in fragile contexts, even if they are already qualified and experienced teachers, need support in order to be able to help develop this resilience in themselves and their students.

In an emergency situation, it is often necessary to recruit teachers from those who are present at the emergency site. Some of those present might be qualified teachers from the original community but this is not necessarily the case. A process for identifying potentially suitable candidates for teaching has to be devised, not always straightforward in a chaotic situation. Candidates will most likely include other community members than those with teaching qualifications or experience of teaching, including, for example, older children/adolescents who could play a facilitating role (although not at the expense of their own education needs). As in a regular teaching situation, and in particular in contexts where the emergency situation is the result of conflict/war and there are potentially many tensions within, for example, a refugee population, it is important to ensure the recruitment of female teachers and a group of teachers with an adequate range of ethnic backgrounds.

If previously trained teachers are available, UNICEF, in a resource toolkit produced for Eastern and South Africa from materials developed by INEE (Resources Toolkit for Education in Emergencies, 2006:95) recommends taking advantage of their knowledge and experience to help develop methods and materials that are suitable for the context, and to mobilise community members and para-professionals. For example, trained teachers can be in charge of organising and supporting groups of unqualified teachers in developing schooling for children. In situations where there are not many trained teachers available, a teacher training programme will have to be developed and a teaching package for para-professionals. For instance, if it is necessary to train a large number of teachers within a short space of time, it might be an advantage to use a 'cascade' approach, in which a group of teachers is trained who each train a group of colleagues who then, in turn, train a further group etc. As examples of the application of INEE's work, both UNICEF/Save the Children's Toolkit for Education

in Emergencies (2009) (produced for South Asia) and UNICEF's 2006 Resources Toolkit include model plans for teacher training and workshops for teachers in Education in Emergencies contexts.

For both qualified and unqualified teachers, there are aspects of a curriculum for Education in Emergencies which will often demand additional training, although there is also emphasis on the importance of following existing curricula as closely as possible in order to facilitate reintegration into the conventional school system at a later time. For example, UNICEF (2006:96) recommends training in: (1) the use of emergency kits if these are available and being used; (2) the teaching of themes that are particularly relevant in the specific context in which the children find themselves (which does not necessarily resemble that which they normally live in); (3) life skills that are relevant for the age groups involved; (4) accelerated learning for children/young people who have missed all/part of their schooling and need to catch up; (5) the management of multi-grade or large classrooms which not all teachers might have experience of; (6) psychosocial support of which many children may be particularly in need in crisis situations; (7) gender sensitivity and social inclusion; (8) participatory teaching methods that activate children's experiences and imaginations, helping them to learn from the basis of the context in which they find themselves.

INEE (2010:79-80 and 83-86) goes into more specific detail concerning some of the above curriculum elements and also recommends additional ones, many of which will be unfamiliar to both qualified and unqualified teachers: (1) health and hygiene promotion, including sexual and reproductive health and HIV/AIDS; (2) human rights education, citizenship, peace-building and humanitarian law; (3) disaster reduction and life-saving skills, including education on landmines and unexploded ordnance; (4) culture, recreation, sports and arts, including music, art, dance and visual arts; (5) livelihood skills and technical and vocational skills training; (6) local and indigenous environmental knowledge; (7) protection skills related to the specific risks and threats faced by girls and boys.

Burns & Lowrie (INEE 2015:27ff) describe and explain the specific barriers that teacher development faces in fragile contexts, including difficult working conditions, low-quality (or not existent) professional development, systemic challenges and situations of conflict.

UNICEF (2009:85) recommends that, where at all possible, teacher training in emergencies should be coordinated with education authorities to enable standardisation and certification. Certification/accreditation of any teacher training in emergencies by official education authorities will make it easier for teachers and para-professionals to access regular teacher training systems in a post-crisis context and thus also contribute to quality education outside emergency situations. Additionally, INEE (2010:76) points out that official recognition of curricula and certification of teachers also help convince parents/communities that the schooling their children are receiving in the emergency context has value, despite the conditions under which they might be receiving it. In the case of a refugee situation, whether it is the home or the host country/community that accredits teacher training will depend on circumstances.

When making training arrangements for teachers in education in emergency situations or fragile contexts, it is necessary to bear in mind that not only children, but also many teachers, will be traumatised by what they have experienced and mostly likely have to deal with events in their own families and lives that will impinge on their ability to offer their services. INEE (2015:17 and 2010:80 and 102) suggests that teachers should receive training, monitoring and psychosocial support that

relate specifically to these issues, and that care should be taken that teachers are not forced to assume responsibilities that they are unable to cope with.

Further reading

There are various Education in Emergency toolkits available, mostly produced or inspired by INEE, which provide frameworks and advice as to how children's right to quality education can be re-established in situations of crisis. These toolkits include suggestions as to how to recruit and train teachers and how to ensure that teachers can be reintegrated into official education systems when circumstances become more normalised.

The following are useful sources of material and other inspiration in Education in Emergency contexts:

<http://www.ineesite.org/en/>

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Home.php>

Burns, M. & Lowrie, J. (2015), *Where it's needed most: Quality professional development for all teachers* (INEE)

INEE (2001), *Technical Resource Kit for Emergency Education*

INEE (2nd edition 2010, 1st edition 2004), *Minimum Standards for Education*

INEE (2011), *Tools and Resources for Education in Emergencies – links to resources for establishing education in emergency contexts*

IIEP & UNESCO, *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction*

UNICEF and Save the Children (2009), *Education in Emergencies Training Toolkit* (Eastern and Southern Africa) (inspired by INEE)

UNICEF (2006), *Education in Emergencies: A Resource Tool Kit* (South Asia) (inspired by INEE)

10. Teachers' working conditions

Teachers' working conditions are not directly connected to teacher education and professional development. However, there are nevertheless indirect links that are worth mentioning because they are factors which contribute to, for example, difficulties in recruiting and retaining teachers and therefore to problems in the quality of education offered in schools. Relevant points will be briefly mentioned here and readers who are interested in following any particular themes up can make use of the suggested further reading listed at the end of the section.

1. Conditions

Conditions such as lack of suitable housing for teachers who move away from their own areas, poor transportation, lack of basic facilities such as blackboards or toilets in schools, and high pupil-teacher ratios etc. all contribute to teacher attrition. In addition to these physical factors, others such as weak management structures, lack of influence, corruption (e.g. in deployment), and lack of access to professional development could be mentioned. Low morale can lead to absenteeism and lack of willingness to learn new approaches to teaching. (See *VSO and Education, 2007-2012*, and Moon, 2013)

2. Pay

Pay is by no means the only factor that motivates (or otherwise) teachers to enter and stay in the teaching profession, but the level of pay and its regularity are still key elements in motivation. See the GCE *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT) report (2012) and Moon (2013) for discussions of

challenges in the area of pay and the advantages and disadvantages of various approaches such as merit pay structures.

3. *Recruitment*

There are several aspects of teacher recruitment that contribute to the low status of the profession and to increased rates of attrition. For example, in many places, teacher deployment is perceived as unfair; despite a lack of teachers, they are often not deployed evenly in areas of need, with remote rural areas having most difficulty in attracting qualified teachers. (See Moon, 2013)

4. *Status*

Factors such as low pay, challenging working conditions, and the employment of unqualified teachers have contributed to the low status of the teaching profession and difficulties in attracting new dynamic and well-qualified people into the profession. The GCE *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT) report (2012:24) sees the solution to the challenge of ensuring high-quality teachers and high-quality teaching and learning as 'the need to treat teaching as a high-status profession, with training, standards, salaries and conditions of service set accordingly.' The report claims that high-quality education will not happen as long as there is no ambitious, detailed planning of the teacher workforce.

Sharon Tao (in Moon 2013:129) argues that 'the greatest barrier to teacher quality and success in reform is a lack of empathetic and realistic insights into their contexts, constraints and mindsets.' She advocates the application of the Capability Approach (originally developed by Amartya Sen) in order to explain teachers' behaviour in terms of the circumstances they work under (e.g. structural challenges) and to identify ways of improving their opportunities to provide quality education that do not only have the traditional capacity-building focus. (See Moon 2013:129ff)

5. *Gender*

Jackie Kirk (in Moon, 2013:150ff) points out that women, despite doing much of the teaching, 'are often underrepresented at all levels of educational decision making'. She introduces the concept of 'impossible fictions' to demonstrate the ways in which expectations of women and the limitations placed on them often work against each other to make female teachers' professional lives extremely difficult. She argues that both teacher training and education policies should take account of the contexts in which women live and work.

6. *Resilience*

Christopher Day and Qing Gu (2014) identify the concept of 'resilience' as an important factor in the ability of teachers to cope with the challenges of their professional lives. They argue that resilience is not 'an innate, fixed quality but [is] shaped and cultivated by the social, cultural and intellectual settings in which teachers work and live' (Day & Gu 2014:3) and that its existence is not only an individual responsibility. Educational systems should promote resilience through adequate teacher training, professional development and in quality relationships with colleagues, leaders and pupils. (See Day & Gu, 2014)

Further reading

Day, Christopher & Gu, Qing (2014), *Resilient Teachers, Resilient Schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times* (Routledge)

Global Campaign for Education (2012), *Every Child Needs A Teacher* (ECNAT)

Moon, Bob (ed.) (2013), *Teacher Education and the Challenge of Development* (Routledge)

NORRAG News 50 (2014)

VSO, *VSO and Education, 2007-2012*

11. School and community involvement in the provision of quality education

The World Bank (World Bank Education Strategy 2020, 2011) emphasises the importance of accountability, the availability of information, local autonomy and effective assessment systems in building a constructive school-community relationship. For example, the 2020 Strategy (World Bank 2011:33) describes the school report cards developed by the Indian District Information System for Education which ‘summarise school information in an easy-to-read format, giving parents and stakeholders access to previously unavailable information with which they can hold schools and authorities accountable’. This information is also published on the internet, thereby encouraging local accountability. In a similar school management reform in the Punjab province of Pakistan, the dissemination of school report cards empowered parents and local communities with knowledge of educational quality and resulted in both increased standards and a significant reduction of private school fees (World Bank 2011:33).

The World Bank’s Education Strategy 2020 claims (World Bank 2011:33) that ‘research around the world has found that increased autonomy policies change the dynamics within schools because parents become more involved or because teacher behaviors change’. Local stakeholders are empowered through the achievement of greater decision-making authority and flexibility of financing that decentralisation or increased local autonomy involves. This motivates both teachers, school administrators and local communities to become more involved in demanding the relevant use of educational resources for increased learning. Teachers, parents and other stakeholders become local partners in the improvement of the quality and relevance of education in their own schools.

Until 2003, Plan International (Education Strategy 2010-2013:8) worked in children’s education almost entirely through direct support to individual pre-schools and primary schools. Since then, Plan (Education Strategy 2010-2013:8) ‘has recognised the links between issues of access and quality and national policies on education and accountability, and supported initiatives such as Quality Learning and the School Improvement Programme (SIP) in many countries. These initiatives have helped to implement a more holistic and participatory approach to improving quality and accountability. We understand that the fulfilment of education as a basic human right depends on the realisation of rights to health, nutrition, gender equality, participation, and protection.’ In other words, Plan sees the necessity of a connection between education and other important aspects of life in the local community. For Plan, their CCCD (Child-Centred Community Development) approach is an integral part of their work in education at community level – see the reading list below for more information about this approach.

Elsewhere in their Education Strategy 2010-2013 (p9), Plan states that ‘organising and empowering rights-holders is crucial for the transforming of power relations between individuals, families, communities, citizens and the state.’ Plan’s policy is to support the capacity development of rights-holders to carry out grassroots-level participatory advocacy in order themselves to influence education policies, financing and practice.

Plan sees the concept of education governance, which refers to ‘the distribution of power in decision-making at all levels of the education system’ (Plan Education Strategy 2010-2013:23) as essential in the improvement of education standards. Here, Plan supports both the active and democratic

participation of education management committees and parent-teacher associations in decision-making at local level, and the formation of sub-national and national coalitions of education management committees and/or parent-teacher associations. The participation of children and youth in education governance is also encouraged through children's and parents' associations at local and national levels.

The important role that education or school management committees play in the involvement of the local community in their children's education is emphasised in various contexts. For example, the ILO (International Labour Organisation) has produced a manual for the training of school management committees (SMCs) in Ghana in order to clarify the roles and responsibilities of SMCs and parent-teacher associations in community support for school effectiveness. In the foreword to the manual (ILO 2012:3), it is stated that: 'It is the belief of the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service that communities have an important role to play in enforcing standards, developing and maintaining school infrastructure, and creating partnership between teachers, pupils and district authorities to bring about needed changes and reforms'.

Similarly, the America India Foundation (AIF) has produced resource materials for school management committee training (*School Management Committees and the Right to Education Act 2009* (2011)). In the introduction to the material (AIF 2011:9), AIF writes: 'The school has to be viewed as a social organization, organically linked to the community. Community must have an effective say in the management of the school.' They go on to explain that parents need to understand the essential elements of a good school in order to be able to engage with the education system at both local and national level, and emphasise the importance of trust in the abilities of the local community to engage in decision-making processes.

In the report 'The right to learn: Community participation in improving learning' (2013:11), Save the Children state the importance of 'effective and accountable governance at global, national, local and school levels'. They emphasise in particular the key roles that parents and communities play in holding schools accountable for learning, and therefore the relevance for quality education of fostering local participation and empowering communities to acknowledge their potential influence on improved learning in schools and offer their own solutions to local education challenges. The report recognises the importance of various other local stakeholders in increasing accountability for quality education for all, but focuses specifically on the role that parents and other caregivers can play.

Further reading

AIF (2011), *School Management Committees and The Right to Education Act 2009 – Resource Material for SMC Training*

Plan International, *Education Strategy 2010-2013*

Plan International (2007), *The Effectiveness of Plan's child-centred community development*

Save the Children (2013). *The right to learn: Community participation in improving learning*

World Bank Education Strategy 2020 (2011)

12. Conclusion

This literature review demonstrates that there is general agreement in relevant research on a series of important factors that constructively influence the quality of the training that teachers receive and the work that they and their schools deliver both in the classroom and in relation to local communities. However, in practice, long-term education traditions mean that these factors are interpreted in different ways, with varying results. Furthermore, political, economic and logistical circumstances can affect both the effectiveness of implementation, the quality of results and the status that the teaching profession achieves. This combination of factors that we know can influence quality in a positive direction on the one hand, and conditions that can limit this development on the other, is important to take into consideration in all practical support to teacher training institutions, teacher professional development programmes and the promotion of constructive school/local community relationships.