Background Paper

Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
Teacher Education and Support

Market Scan

MARCH 2019

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Secondary Education in Africa:

**PREPARING YOUTH
FOR THE FUTURE
OF WORK**

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Teacher Preparation and Support

MARKET SCAN REPORT

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March 2019

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

A-Level   Advanced Level

B Ed   Bachelor of Education

CPD   continuous professional development

DRC   Democratic Republic of Congo

GCE   General Certificate of Education

GCSE   General Certificate of Secondary Education

GDP   gross domestic product

GNP   gross national product

ICT   information and communications technology

IGCSE   International General Certificate of Secondary Education

ITE   initial teacher education

ITERP   Initial Teacher Education Research Project

NBT   national benchmark tests

NCE   National Certificate of Education

NGO   non-governmental organisation (NGO)

NQTs   newly qualified teachers

NSFAS   National Student Financial Aid Scheme

O-Level Ordinary Level

PGCE   Post-Graduate Certificate in Education

REAP   Rwanda English in Action Programme

SACE   South African Council for Educators

SSA   Sub-Saharan Africa

TDP   Teacher Development Programme

UNAM University of Namibia

UNESCO   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

BACKGROUND

Commissioned by the Varkey Foundation, this report is one component of a wide-ranging study on the education of secondary school teachers in sub-Saharan Africa. The full set of research products produced is given in Appendix 1. The Market Scan Report provides information for the larger study, which culminates in an Overview Report. The Overview Report is one of 13 background papers which contribute to a comprehensive study of secondary education in Africa (SEA) coordinated by the Mastercard Foundation and supported by a number of donors.

ASSUMPTIONS - TEACHER EDUCATION

In its narrowest sense, teacher education may be viewed as consisting of a period of initial education (ITE) followed by employment during which periodic episodes of in-service training (or continuous professional development, CPD) are provided, while the management and promotion of educators are considered to be separate issues. In contrast, the Market Scan exercise reflected in this report is framed by a comprehensive view in which ITE and CPD are seen as complementary. From this perspective, CPD is seen as being integral to the daily work of a team of educators in schools, where school leaders and teachers collaborate in 687achieving the highest levels of education for all their learners, and where on-going professional development is central to the deployment, assessment and promotion of educators throughout their careers.

METHODOLOGY

The market scan was preceded by a literature review which produced a framework for systematically examining eight key aspects of teacher education as it manifests in both its initial (ITE) and continuing (CPD) modalities: selection into ITE; the institutions which deliver ITE; the nature and content of ITE programmes; induction of newly qualified teachers into the profession; teachers and performance management; continuous professional development; teachers' career paths; and the promotion of teachers. A set of research questions was derived which drove the work in all subsequent components of the study (Appendix 2). The market scan was compiled by a team of research analysts, guided by the research questions. A Google sheet, the Market Scan Matrix, was created which listed all 48 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)[1] in the Y-axis and the research questions in the X-axis.

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[1] Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe (as listed in UNESCO, 2017).

The Market Scan was initially conducted via desktop research. Since much of the literature regarding education in Francophone countries is published in French, French translations of all the search terms were also used. The researchers either read the reports in French, or used an online translation service to translate the relevant publications, and then reported the findings in English. A number of UNESCO publications were found to be particularly helpful in this regard. The same procedure was adopted for Lusophone countries and the one Spanish-speaking state.

At least four sources of uncertainty exist in the data contained in our Market Scan Matrix. The first of these concerns the paucity of information regarding a great many of our sample countries, despite intensive efforts using a variety of means. Although published material on broad, conceptual and policy-related issues in SSA is relatively abundant, there is much less available in terms of the sort of data on programmes and practices required by the study. For example, UNESCO could find data in only 55% of SSA countries on the question as to the proportion of trained teachers, at primary and secondary respectively, in the system (UNESCO, 2018). In some cases, it is relatively easy to establish whether data gaps exist because the information does not exist or because it is just difficult to access, though exists.

With some notable exceptions –Uganda, Rwanda, and South Africa – many Ministries of Education, if not the majority in SSA, do not maintain websites, and this places a severe limitation on obtaining government reports, which should be the main source of the kinds of information sought by the study.

Because of the difficulties encountered in sourcing data via the internet, the team began systematically approaching officials by email and telephone, using contact details obtained from the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) website and from contacts established through previous work done by members of the team in the region, as well as other professional and personal contacts. This strategy also proved to be disappointing, with very low to non-existent response rates, although it did yield important data in the case of a few countries such as Ghana and Ethiopia. Telephonic communication was also tried and was marginally more successful, but here too, finding the right individual proved to be difficult, aggravated by the fact that the scope of the investigation is so broad that no one individual is able to provide data on all areas of interest. While this is a good lesson for future research endeavours of this kind, it has meant that the full dataset is not presented as intended by JET Education Services or The Varkey Foundation.

Nevertheless, data derived from these different avenues accumulated to the point where well over half the cells in the Matrix came to be populated by the end of the search. These is no doubt that committing significant resources to data searches makes a big difference to the completeness of any data set: for example, we found far more data for the four Case Study countries – Uganda, Rwanda, Senegal and South Africa – than for the majority of their neighbours.

Besides the paucity of literature available for each of the respective countries, a second source of data uncertainty regarding secondary schools derives from the fact that much of the literature that is available focuses on primary school teacher education, with secondary teacher education given

much less attention; and sometimes data is reported in disaggregated form. Another challenge concerns the diversity of teacher education provision within a single country: in many countries, teacher education faces regional diversity, both between states and between the rural and urban divide. This is particularly the case in countries which have a strong non-governmental organisation (NGO) presence, and where CPD interventions are often small and dispersed.

Third, is the lack of agreement across countries concerning the meaning of many terms. For example, what it means for a teacher to be qualified can mean very different things in different countries (UNESCO, 2017). Thus, data is often not comparable across countries. Much of the literature discusses large numbers of unqualified or 'volunteer' teachers present within SSA schooling systems. In some countries, the numbers of unqualified teachers outweigh the numbers of qualified teachers. These teachers may furthermore not be reported in government statistics regarding the teacher population.

A fourth source of uncertainty regarding the data in our Market Scan concerns a lack agreement of information derived from different sources. For example, 2016 school completion rates for Senegal are quoted at 20% for lower secondary, by one source (UNESCO, 2017) and at 38%, by another (GPE, 2018).

As a result of these challenges, of the 48 countries searched, information could be found on at least half of the 70 questions in only 16 countries. These countries are concentrated in the SADC region, and the relative density of information for this region is no doubt linked to the location of JET Education Services in the region and its research experience in SADC countries. Very little information was found for 14 countries, which are mostly Francophone and situated across Central-North Africa. The details are shown in Appendix 3. The density of data for each country is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Data density map
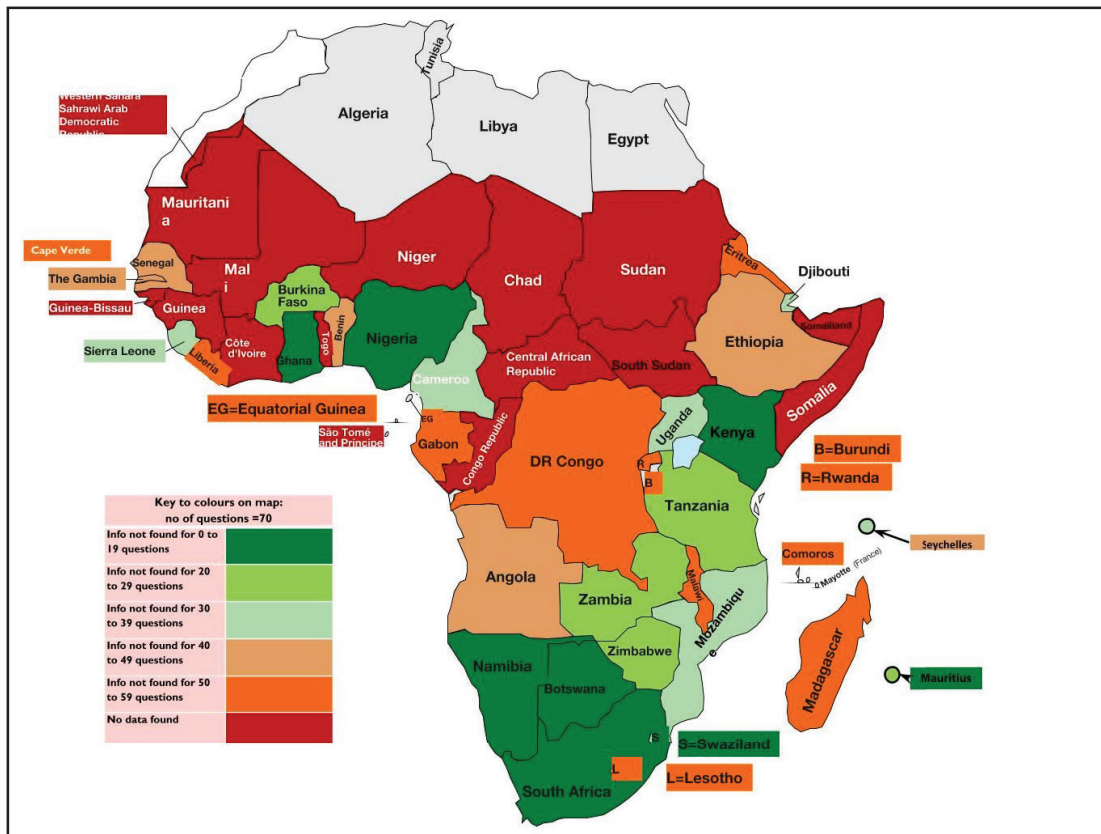
Any one of the four factors described above would cast significant doubt on the validity of an attempt at correlation studies using the Market Scan Matrix; in combination these data uncertainties are fatal to any model-building exercise.

SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

1. Selection into initial teacher education

1.1   Admission criteria for selection into ITE

The majority of countries for which there is available data select students into ITE programmes according to their secondary school final qualifications. In this regard, ITE programmes have similar criteria to university entrance, although in many cases, a lower entrance grade is required compared to other subject choices. For example, in Swaziland, students are recruited into ITE programmes once they have completed their Ordinary Level (O-Level), General Certificate of Education (GCE), International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) examinations or any Secondary School certificate recognised by the institution, with the minimum requirement of six passes in a school leaving subject including English, and three of which must be credits in a subject taught at primary school level. In Rwanda, admission to public institutions to attend ITE requires that students have acquired the A2 certificate from secondary schooling, with at least 18 points in any given combinations of subjects. The Government of Rwanda, through the Rwanda Education Board (REB), provides scholarship fees to the students admitted into public institutions.

The admission criteria into private institutions differ from one to another, but all require the A2 certificate and an ability to pay the fees. Kenya requires a pass at C level in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examination. In Angola, potential students are required to have either a grade 10 or a secondary school leaving certificate, depending on the type of training institution.

In some countries, such as Senegal, Burkina Faso and Burundi, teachers are recruited from middle school or after finishing junior secondary school, which in Senegal constitutes ten years of education. In South Africa, although all students enrolling for degree study are required to pass the National Senior Certificate (NSC) at Bachelor level, results of the national benchmark tests (NBT), for which 80 000 school leavers sat in 2018, indicate that those applying to education faculties achieved the lowest scores of all students applying for university studies; furthermore, NBT scores indicate that 30% of B Ed applicants are not suitable for degree level study, while a further 40% would require an extended programme if they were to meet the requirements.

In Botswana and Djibouti however, the criteria for selection into ITE appear to be considerably higher than for the majority of SSA countries. In both of these countries, a tertiary education qualification is required, and in Djibouti this degree must be in either French or mathematics.

1.2   What skills and knowledge areas are tested during entry exams?

In a number of countries, for example Ethiopia, Ghana, Liberia, Namibia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Mauritius, Benin, Djibouti, Eritrea, Nigeria, The Gambia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe, students are also asked to sit an entrance exam and/or have an interview as part of the ITE selection. In Nigeria, potential students are required to achieve adequate scores in a matriculation test, called the "Monotechnics, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education" examination (MPCE) that is administered by Nigeria's Joint Admissions and Matriculations' Board (JAMB). Some programmes include an in-service teaching internship. Other aspects that are assessed include English, mathematics, proficiency in languages (Botswana), motivation to teach (Djibouti), and attitude to education, personal attributes, maturity and reasoning and communication skills (Namibia).

In some instances, selection criteria apply not only to entrance into ITE programmes, but also to application for bursaries to study. For example, in Benin, students who pass the entrance requirements are offered a scholarship to study ITE, whereas those who do not pass must personally fund their studies. In South Africa, B Ed students applying for a Department of Basic Education bursary (known as Funza Lushaka), awarded to some 14% of all education students, are interviewed and required to show commitment to a teaching career including: interest in working with young people; enthusiasm for a professional career in teaching; readiness to face and surmount difficult challenges; and personal integrity. They must furthermore be committed to teach in any school in which they are placed by a provincial education department (PED).

1.3   Summary

With regard to ITE admission criteria, information was found for 28 countries. Of these, the large majority (26) require a prospective secondary school teacher to hold an upper secondary school leaving certificate or its equivalent (corresponding to the United Kingdom's GCE or Advanced Levels (A-levels). Nine of these 26 countries (Angola, Burundi, Madagascar, Rwanda, Senegal, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) will also accept holders of lower secondary school leaving certificates (corresponding to the UK former General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) or O-Levels but only into programmes which prepare teachers for lower secondary schools. On the other hand, Burkina Faso appears to allow a prospective secondary school teacher to have only a lower secondary school leaving certificate.

Almost as many countries (20) select applicants into teacher education programmes on the basis of additional entrance examinations and/or interviews, in conjunction with a certain minimum level of academic achievement as indicated on their school leaving qualifications. Nine countries examine applicants, six interview them and another five do both. Just three of the 20 countries for which information was found, namely Kenya, Madagascar and South Africa, accept prospective secondary school teachers solely on the basis of their being secondary school graduates.

Finally, of those 14 countries which examine candidates, the main focus is on applicants' scholastic abilities in particular subjects (such as mathematics and languages), coupled with critical thinking, problem-solving and communication skills. Importantly, two countries go beyond applicants'

academic qualifications and proficiency to consider more personal or socio-psychological aptitudes: applicants' attitude to education (Namibia) and motivation to teach (Djibouti).

This suggests, from the information available, that in the majority of cases, African countries require the same or a better level of education from those permitted to teach in secondary schools; in this regard Burkina Faso appears atypical.

Kenya, Madagascar and South Africa could be said to be at one end of the ITE selection spectrum, being relatively unselective of prospective teachers (although they do require upper secondary school leaving certificates), with Namibia and especially Djibouti at the opposite end, in that they appear to apply the most rigorous selection criteria.

2. Institutions

2.1   What kinds of institutions train teachers (colleges/universities/ schools)?

In the majority of cases, ITE is provided through colleges, universities and training institutes. Within a single country, various ITE programmes can be offered by a number of different institutions. In Rwanda, for example, ITE programmes are offered by three public institutions (University of Rwanda and one college each for the Social Sciences, and Natural and Physical Sciences) and three private institutions (two universities and one institute of higher education).

2.2   What are the delivery modalities (face-to-face/distance/mixed)?

As in Rwanda, institutions in most countries offer face-to-face tuition only. However, Botswana, Equatorial Guinea, Madagascar, Namibia, Sierra Leone, Gambia and Uganda offer some form of distance learning. In South Africa, while ITE programmes at the country's 24 universities are predominantly face-to-face, the University of South Africa (a distance learning institution) produces the largest single proportion of new teachers each year.

2.3   Give a rough average of the number of enrolments

For most countries, the numbers of students enrolled in secondary teacher education courses could not be readily ascertained, although what is apparent is that many countries are unable to meet the national demand for teachers at both primary and secondary levels.

Data found for The Gambia dates back to 2001, when 864 students were enrolled for secondary school teaching. In Benin, the *Ecole Normale Supériure* had capacity in 2010 to admit 225 students to secondary teacher training courses; Botswana enroled 300 students; according to information from 2012, Eritrea recruited 800 to 900 students; in 2016, Namibia enrolled 3 206 students; also in 2016, the figure for Zambia was 13 158; and for Rwanda, 4 000+.

In Swaziland, depending on the subject, size of institution and level of qualification, e.g. Diploma in Science and Mathematics Teaching, enrolment is 30 per year, and this figure is even less for

university courses. One institution enrols about 514 students for the secondary and primary diploma combined, while only figures for primary school diplomas were available for other institutions. In Madagascar, 719 students were enrolled in the *Ecole Normale Supéreiure* at the Université d'Antananarivo in 2007.

In Rwanda, each year more than 2 500 students register for studying in universities and colleges to become secondary teachers. The graduation rate is high across all academic institutions, both public or private due to the fact that the they are supporting the Government of Rwanda in the promotion of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO's) "Education For All" campaign and thus facilitate students to complete their studies successfully through a system of continuous assessment in which testes are retaken if necessary to increase the graduation rates.

In South Africa, twenty-four public and a number of private higher education institutions offer teacher education programmes. While overall enrolments in public institutions have doubled since the advent of democratic government in 1994 – with the proportion of Africans increasing from 50% to 72% and women students now outnumbering men – it is estimated that some 55% of the intake will never graduate. The fact that the throughput rate of education students is higher than that for all other faculties, coupled with their lower scores on the NBT tests, provides indirect evidence of the low quality of teacher education programmes. It is not known how many of the 123 private institutions offer teacher education, but what is known is that total enrolments in the private sector grew by 84% in the period 2010 to 2016, and that education students in private colleges totalled 13 082 in 2016, making up 6.84% of all enrolments in education programmes. The number of students enrolled in teacher education courses in public higher education institutions currently is 122 000, according to the Director of the *Funza Lushaka* Bursary Scheme.

2.4   Average of through-put rate
2.5   Average drop-out rate

Again, data on the throughput rate for secondary school ITE is lacking. The only date obtained was for South Africa, where secondary school ITE courses were said to have a throughput rate of 40 to 50% and Botswana, which has a high rate of 95%. Similarly, the dropout rate was recorded only for South Africa, at 40%, and for Botswana at 1%, while it was asserted that no students drop out of the ITE courses in Swaziland as they are allowed to repeat until they graduate.

2.6   Average graduate numbers

The numbers of ITE students who graduate annually are difficult to compare across countries since population numbers and teacher requirements are so varied, and the time period for which data is available differs from country to country. In Swaziland, about 25 students graduate with a Secondary Teacher Diploma each year. In Burkina Faso, 2 328 new teachers were placed in classrooms in 2006/7, while The Gambia saw 200 new teachers graduating in 2001, and Namibia saw 1 152 graduates in 2016. In Madagascar, 238 teachers graduated from the Université d'Antananarivo in 2007. Data that has been collected in the market scan indicates that in Zimbabwe, 8 526 students graduated from eight polytechnics and three industrial training colleges, 7 471 students graduated from 14 teachers' colleges, and 4 682 students graduated from two universities; in South Africa

42 107 teachers graduated from 24 universities in 2016, including 23 818 as secondary school teachers. These figures are in stark contrast to Malawi, where it is reported that 350 students graduate each year, and Niger, where 300 graduate. When expressed as proportions of their respective populations, these figures indicate that Malawi produces around twice as many new teachers annually per head as Niger, while Zimbabwe produces nearly 80 times as many as Malawi and more than twice as many as South Africa. Sparse as the available information is, and crude as these estimates are, it is clear that the numbers of teachers produced annually in proportion to the population vary dramatically across SSA countries. Furthermore, when comparing gross domestic product (GDP) figures of Zimbabwe (USD 1008) with South Africa (USD 5 273), it is obvious that teacher production is not a simple function of a country's wealth, but is driven by other considerations, an issue we return to in the Conclusion.

2.7   Spend per teacher on teacher training, per programme type

For the most part, country data on education spending indicates either the percentage of the national budget allocated to education as a whole or the education spend as a percentage of GDP, e.g. Ghana spent 3.9% of GDP on education in 1999/2000 and from 2000 to 2004, 5.1% of the total education budget was spent on teacher education.

In response to Q2.7, the following data was collected: Benin: FCFA1 036 000; Botswana: Dip in Sec Ed and Dip in Prim Ed: BWP 19 500/student/year(govt subsidised), Degree: BWP 23 700/student/year(average govt), BWP510 000; Eritrea: Nakfa 6 500 on a Teacher Training Institute (TTI); Nigeria: The Federal Government spent about N10.3 billion to train 229 286 basic education teachers in 36 states (2015 - 2016); South Africa: On average it is R 83 799 per student teacher; Swaziland: SZL 29 362 per student teacher; Uganda: A capitation grant of Uganda Shillings 1 800 per enrolled trainee per day; Zambia: Spends K177 255 million; Zimbabwe: US$1 million has been earmarked towards supporting about 2 166 teachers enrolled at five state universities undertaking degree programmes in indigenous languages, information and communications technology (ICT), science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and technical and vocational subjects; Madagascar: In 2007 the cost was $1 152 per annum for an undergraduate student and US$1 948 for postgraduate.

2.8   Financial support offered to trainee teachers

The literature indicates quite a few examples of ITE students receiving funding. In Botswana, for example, all students have their tuition, teaching practice and personal upkeep paid for, for the duration of their studies, as do students in The Gambia. In Namibia, a few options are open to students. The Namibia Students Financial Assistance Fund (NSFAF) offers funding in the form of a loan, while Old Mutual and NedNamibia offer bursaries. Similarly, the University of Namibia (UNAM) Scholarship is awarded based on merit and to students that wish to study at UNAM, while the Bank of Namibia invites applications for undergraduate and postgraduate bursaries. Swaziland offers a national scholarship for diploma programmes, 50% of which is a grant and the other 50% a loan. The Nigerian government runs several grant programmes such as the Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant (FSEOG), the Academic Competitiveness Grant and the Federal Pell Grant and

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also offers student loans and scholarships. The government of Sierra Leone offers scholarships for students which cover tuition and other related charges for selected students in degree, diploma and certificate programmes, Mauritius has the Laureate and the Africa scholarship schemes, and Seychelles has a government scholarship scheme.

Furthermore Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Kenya and Mozambique all offer a student loan system, along with scholarships, grants and bursaries, while in Uganda, students at public universities and private chartered universities may qualify for and access loans through the Higher Education Financing Board. Ghana encourages students to enter teacher education by paying for initial preservice education; there is also a scheme whereby teachers are granted study leave with pay to upgrade their qualifications. In Benin, scholarships are offered on the basis of merit, whereas in South Africa, bursaries are also calculated on the basis of need through the Funza Lushaka bursary scheme mentioned above, while students who do not succeed in acquiring this bursary are able to access financial support through the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), available to all students who meet a very low means test. The NSFAS has been in operation for a number of years, but was further expanded according to a policy announced at the end of 2017 whereby tertiary education is now free for all students whose families earn less than R350 000 pa (about USD 25 000) and which includes around 90% of families.

2.9   Access to the financial support offered

The number of student teachers in South Africa in 2017 who were recipients of the Funza Lushaka Bursary Scheme was 15 134. In Uganda, 3 751 students received financial assistance in 2017, and in Sierra Leone, 4 400 students received grant-in-aid, representing about 14% of total enrolment. For the most part, it appears that all students who are accepted into teacher education courses are eligible for their countries' financial assistance programmes.

2.10   Percentage of the education budget allocated to teacher education

To conclude the section on financing teacher education, we looked at the percentage of the education budget countries allocated to teacher education; however, most of the available data referred to total education budgets and not teacher education as a discreet category. It may be interesting to review countries' education budgets in terms of the UNESCO benchmarks for education spending as a whole: 20% of total government budget or 6% of gross national product (GNP)[2]. In Angola, teacher education received 6% of the total budgetary allocation for education; the Seychelles allocated 22% of its education budget to education development, which includes teacher education and a range of other development activities; in Swaziland, teacher training programmes were allocated 2.6% of the education budget; Uganda spent 0.4% of its total education budget on teacher education; and Zimbabwe 18.8% of its education budget. The Funza Lushaka Bursary Scheme in South Africa was allocated R 1 159 348 000 for 2018/19.

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[2] *Trends in Government Expenditure for Public Education, 2011-13.* Background Report for the UNESCO 2015 Education for All Global Monitoring Report. Prepared by Development Finance International, 23 September 2014.

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2.11　Regional differences in provision of teacher training institutes

Unsurprisingly, the quality of ITE provision appears to be of better quality in the urban areas where teacher institutes and universities are located. In Sierra Leone, for example, many of the rural training institutes were destroyed during the civil war as they were used as strongholds during the conflict. The literature would indicate that NGOs provide disproportional teacher training in the rural areas where government provision perhaps cannot reach. This is also the case in Liberia, where USAID has focused on rebuilding rural institutions. In Uganda, however, teacher training institutions seem to be homogeneous in terms of quality of provision.

In terms of the capacity of teacher training institutions, it appears that most countries of SSA have limited teacher training capacity and cannot meet the demand for the production of qualified teachers.

2.12　Summary

In some 20 countries, ITE is provided by universities and colleges, with the latter likely to be dedicated teacher training institutions. Tuition is predominantly face-to-face, but at least eight countries – Botswana, Eritrea, Madagascar, Namibia, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Gambia and Uganda – also offer some form of distance education.

A similar number of countries (21) offer financial support to student teachers in the form of public grants, scholarships, loans and bursaries, ranging from those which cover only tuition fees to those which cover all costs (including accommodation, food, transport and other living expenses), and which may be repayable, in full or in part, over time or through a certain number of years of service.

Not enough information was found to support any conclusions with regard to the average number of enrolments in teacher education programmes, throughput, dropout and graduation rates, expenditure on teacher training and differences in teacher training provision.

3.　The types and nature of ITE qualifications

3.1　What kinds of qualifications are offered (certificate/degree/diploma)?

The types of qualifications include certificates, diplomas and degrees, with most countries for which data was found offering diplomas and degrees (perhaps differentiated by teaching for lower and upper secondary school). These countries include Botswana, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Nigeria and Sierra Leone offer all three types of qualifications. Degrees are the only type offered in Comoros, Eritrea, Gabon and Madagascar, while South Africa offers a degree, an advanced diploma and a post graduate certificate. Certificates or diplomas are offered by Burkina Faso, the DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Seychelles and The Gambia.

While it may be tempting to rank ITE provision by the type of qualifications offered in each country, the name of a qualification does not necessarily indicate its level, depth or quality, and it is not

possible to compare qualifications across countries without in depth analysis of content, institutions, etc.

3.2   Length of study per qualification

The length of study ranges from two years for a certificate and three years for a diploma to four years for a degree qualification. Countries obviously vary greatly with Malawi offering all three options, for example. In some countries, the length of study depends on prior qualifications: for example, South Africa offers the PGCE over one or two years if a student is already in possession of a Bachelor's degree; and Burundi requires one additional year after a general humanities degree. Countries that offer secondary teachers four years of training include: Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia. Three-year courses are offered in Botswana, Cameroon, Gabon, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Swaziland, Uganda and Zambia. Countries whose teacher training courses run over two years include Burundi, Gabon, Madagascar, Seychelles, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Countries that offer shorter periods of training may be those that have the most urgent need for qualified teachers, for example the accelerated training course open to volunteer and contract teachers offered in Senegal to furnish an immediate need to reduce pupil to teacher ratios.

3.3   How are trainee teachers assessed?

According to the data collected, ITE students are examined through a wide variety of methods, which include examinations, coursework, formative and summative lesson observations, essays, projects, and other presentations. In Tanzania for example, students are continuously assessed through exercises, tests, portfolios, seminar presentations, report writing and teaching practice (micro teaching, single lesson, and block teaching). In Zimbabwe, supervision and assessment of the trainee teachers is done by the college and mentors and members of the administration at the schools where students conduct their teaching practice; these assessments contribute to the student teachers' final grade. Botswana, Kenya, The Gambia, Uganda and Zambia are countries in which practical work is also assessed or at least observed.

However, while a variety of assessment methods are used, data from some countries (e.g. Sierra Leone) suggests that in practice, written examinations and tests are the most common forms of assessments and are currently limited to pen-and-paper examinations which may not test whether a candidate has the necessary practical skills to be an effective teacher.

3.4   Summary

With regard to the types and nature of ITE qualifications, of the 29 countries for which information was available, 14 offer diploma and degree qualifications, while an additional three (Nigeria, Sierra Leone and South Africa) offer these as well as certificate qualifications. Four countries offer degrees only (Gabon, Eritrea, Comoros and Madagascar); three offer diplomas only (the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Mozambique and Seychelles); and three offer certificates only (Burkina Faso, Liberia and Gambia). Lesotho and Malawi offer certificates and diplomas.

While ITE degrees commonly consist of four years of study (in 14 of the 21 countries offering degrees), in a few countries, teaching degrees are awarded after two or three years (Gabon,

Mauritius, Madagascar and Uganda). Teaching diplomas range between two years (Ghana) and four years (Lesotho) in duration. Certificate study is usually two to three years in length, except in Burkina Faso where it is an eighteen-month course. (Several countries also offer one-year certificates in education, but these are at postgraduate level.)

For purposes of assessment, written assessments preponderate in the form of assignments, essays, exercises, reports, coursework, projects, portfolios, tests and examinations. There were occasional references to audio-visual assessments like presentations and micro-teaching. Only one country, Nigeria, referred explicitly to research projects, but it is possible that some assessments in other countries also involve research.

Almost all countries stated that the teaching practice or practicum component of ITE qualifications is assessed through summative (usually preceded by formative) in-school lesson observations, which may be undertaken not only by teacher educators but also by school mentors and leaders, as in Cameroon, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Only Sierra Leone indicated that there may be insufficient capacity to test whether students have acquired the necessary practical skills; however, it is known from other research that in South Africa and elsewhere, training institutions often lack capacity to adequately assess all students' classroom abilities.

4. The content of ITE programmes

4.1   Core courses offered
4.2   Optional/further courses offered

Information on the content of ITE programmes is generally not available by desktop means. As is the case in many other areas of teacher education, South Africa is somewhat exceptional in this regard, where the policy governing qualifications is readily downloaded from the website of the Department Higher Education and Training (DHET). Prospective teachers in South Africa generally follow one of two qualification routes: a 4-year Bachelor of Education (B Ed) which requires a Bachelor level pass in the NSC (taken after 12 years of school) or a 1-year Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), for which a 3-year Bachelor degree in the Arts, Science or Commerce with teaching subjects is required. Teachers who are in possession of a recognised certificate or diploma in education or another relevant field may also present their qualifications for entry into a B Ed course, while an appropriate diploma may be recognised for entry into PGCE. Those following the B Ed route and who wish to specialise in the Senior Phase (grades 7-9) or the Further Education and Training Phase (grades 10-12) are required to take courses in at least three school subjects, while PGCE students need to include at least two teaching subjects in their Bachelor degrees. Regarding the practicum (also known as work-integrated learning, or WIL) B Ed students spend at least 12 weeks but no more than 32 in formally supervised and assessed school-based practice over the four-year duration of the degree, while the practicum for those following the PGCE route consists of between eight and 12 weeks. University lecturers and a teaching practice coordinator are supposed to work alongside school-based mentor teachers to assist pre-service teachers during the practicum, although actual

practice in this regard varies very widely across the 24 institutions offering ITE, and in many cases, student teachers receive very little guidance.

In Malawi, teachers may follow one of three routes to qualification: a certificate course of two years, a three-year diploma course or a four-year degree qualification. In the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), a one-year post-degree course is the only route into ITE.

Challenges identified in conducting comparative research on ITE content

One of the challenges with collecting data regarding the content of ITE programmes is that the titles of the courses or the modules are often not descriptive enough to give a sense of what exactly is being studied. It is also not entirely clear as to which courses are core and which are optional. For example, Seychelles ITE programmes contain courses titled as "education", which is difficult to analyse in any depth. In Burkina Faso, the ITE programme includes educational communication, general pedagogy, psychology, measurement and evaluation, and knowledge of the education system, as well as administrative skills such as the organisation of exams and the management of a secondary school.

This is similar in Namibia, where a B Ed Honours covers computer literacy, English communication and study skills, contemporary social issues, school subjects, the history of education, and human development and learning. A number of national ITE programmes include modules relating to '21st Century Skills' such as business studies, computer education, entrepreneurship education, and media and communications. In Ghana, students are also required to study socioeconomic issues that underlie national development. The Nigerian course includes philosophy, sociology, psychology, theory and history of education, as well as a research project in an area of education/instructional practice observed during teaching practice. Tanzania mentions assessing learning and cognitive, affective, psychomotor and social development.

In short, the challenge is in understanding a curriculum map without studying it in great detail – which is not possible through the methods employed in this desk-based review. Suffice to say, some countries appear to offer a wide breadth of optional courses which cover a number of specific areas, including those relating to the 21st Century Skills agenda.

4.3   Do courses contain a practical element?

All countries for which information was found, except the Seychelles and Sierra Leone, have practicum courses in which the teacher trainees spend time in schools. The duration of the practicum and the extent to which it is integrated into the rest of the ITE programme is highly variable. In Benin for example, the practicum lasts only one month. Even within countries, the practicum can be variable. For example, in Cameroon, the practicum generally lasts three months; however, in the University of Buea in English-speaking South West Cameroon, students do two three-month practicums.

4.4 Differences between programmes for upper and lower secondary teachers

In most countries for which there is data, a difference exists between junior and senior secondary school teacher training. This is an important distinction, reflecting the structure of the education system whereby a far smaller proportion of pupils make the "jump" to senior, or upper, secondary education. The findings confirm that the latter tend to have higher entry requirements, better quality qualifications, and are arguably a higher financial cost than lower secondary school teachers.

This is most often reflected in the type of qualification required for each post. For example, in Swaziland, the teacher must have a Secondary Teachers Diploma to teach junior secondary school and a degree with education to teach senior secondary school. Similarly, in Tanzania, Ghana and Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Uganda and Zambia, teachers should hold a degree to teach upper secondary learners, but only require a certificate or diploma to teach lower secondary learners. In Zambia, diploma level teachers teach junior secondary level (grades 8-9), whereas graduate teachers teach senior secondary level (grades 10-12). In Zimbabwe, lower secondary level teachers study for a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate, while senior secondary level teachers must possess an A-Level certificate plus a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate or a three- or four-year degree plus a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate.

Challenges in differentiating between lower and upper secondary course content

The difference in entry requirements is therefore relatively stark, however the what is less clear is how the content of these courses differs.

Data from Botswana would indicate that upper-secondary teacher training tends to focus more on methodology than content and skills. In Eritrea, the length of training differs, with upper secondary teachers being required to study for longer, though there is a lack of information as to what this additional study entails. Gabon has different entry requirements and duration of courses. In Mauritius, programmes for lower secondary take a shorter time and cover more subject bases, while upper secondary teachers' programmes last longer and usually require subject specialisation. In Rwanda, the programmes for A-Level and O-Level are not different as such in terms of programme content but in terms of duration and depth of coverage. Teachers who wish to teach at the upper Level of the high school curriculum (A-level) must have a degree, while those specialising to teach O-Level must have at least a diploma. In Zimbabwe, primary and lower secondary level teachers undertake a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate obtained after 3 or 4 years of teacher education in a teachers' college. Senior secondary level teachers must possess an A-Level certificate plus a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate obtained after two or three years of teacher education, or an A-Level certificate, a three- or four-year degree, plus a Teachers' Diploma/Certificate. In South Africa, while teachers at both levels require a B Ed, those who teach at the senior secondary level (grades 7 to 12) study the Further Education and Training programme.

4.5 What is the nature of academic support programmes offered to student teachers post-graduation?

For most countries, no data was found for this question, which could indicate that most countries do not address the issue of bridging support between high school and post-school education.   For those countries for which information was found, Burkina Faso, Zimbabwe and South Africa, Zambia, Swaziland and Nigeria seem to pay some attention to this issue, while Mauritius, Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho and Malawi provide programmes to assist student teachers with poor schooling results. However, whether there are targeted tracking programmes for recently graduated teachers is unclear. The Varkey Foundation's experience in Uganda indicates that, when it comes to Primary Teachers' Colleges, no such data management exists.[3]

4.6 What support do postgraduate teacher students have access to?

This question is designed to ascertain whether programmes of support such as dedicated supervisors/management, work groups, mentoring, workshops, online assistance programmes exist for postgraduate teachers once they are in schools. Data was found for 14 countries on support for teacher students. Common support methods found included management/supervision, mentoring, peer support and workshops, with Namibia, South Africa and Zambia offering online assistance as well. In some countries these initiatives are reportedly in the early planning stages, such as in Sierra Leone.

4.7 Describe the content of the various support programmes available

Similarly, it proved difficult to ascertain the content of the various support programmes available. It was found that in Botswana, support is offered in psychology, monitoring and evaluation, education policies, materials development, curriculum development and educational management; Burundi offers a one-year course for humanities graduates focusing on pedagogy; in Mauritius and Swaziland, courses are introduced on a needs basis; Madagascar has courses on content knowledge, pedagogy and professional ethics; in Zambia, different support programmes are provided by various institutions; and in Zimbabwe, systematic programmes are offered through resource centres in the form of short courses of learning. In Nigeria, the TDP supports the implementation of the new National Certificate of Education (NCE) curriculum, the enhancement of quality assurance processes, the improvement of subject knowledge of College of Education staff and pre-service teaching practice.

4.8 Summary

The information sourced or responses received with regard to the nature and content of ITE programmes was insufficient to answer the research questions adequately. In some cases, the term 'courses' was interpreted as 'qualifications' or 'programmes'; in other instances, course content was described in so general a manner ('education courses' or 'academic subjects') as to preclude further analysis. Nevertheless, where the information was more detailed – as in Botswana, Burkina Faso,

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[3] Information derived from interviews with Charlotte Oloya (Country Manager), Emma Broadbent (Impact Manager), reflecting the Country Office's longstanding engagement with Ggaba, Kibuli, and Kyambogo PTCs.

Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Gambia, Lesotho, South Africa and Zambia – it is clear that one or more teaching subjects are core elements of ITE programmes, and these are often accompanied by methodology or pedagogical courses together with a practicum or internship element. A research component was mentioned in a few instances (Mauritius, Nigeria and Zambia).

Information provided on the length of study per course referred mainly to the time required to complete a programme or qualification, rather than an individual course component thereof. Qualifications were said to range from one through four years in duration, depending on whether the qualification is a certificate, a diploma or a degree or whether it follows a prior period of study or depends on a prior qualification. All except one (Kenya) of 19 countries for which information was found indicated that programmes leading to a qualification to teach in upper or lower secondary schools differ in duration (usually a year or more for upper secondary qualifications) and hence in extent, if not necessarily depth, of content.

Insufficient information was found to support any conclusions with regard to the relative weighting of theoretical and practical components of ITE programmes or the nature, content or effectiveness of academic support (if any) provided to student teachers who may have had poor schooling results. However, 15 countries indicated that student teachers have access to supervisors, mentoring and workshops, with seven countries also mentioning peer support; only four (Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia) indicated that academic assistance is offered online.

5. Early work experience and induction

It was found that only nine countries had some data on newly qualified teachers' experiences during their first year of teaching. The source of this data was academic research (for dissertations and/or research projects), rather than official information. This is quite likely due to the time-consuming and expensive methodological approaches to collecting this kind of data, which most often employ interview and survey approaches. Furthermore, the different focuses of each of the studies means that the data is not necessarily comparable across SSA countries. Nevertheless, the qualitative nature of this data means that for the few countries for which it exists, it is of a high quality.

For example, in South Africa, the Initial Teacher Education Research Project (ITERP) held a symposium in 2015 during which "selected [newly qualified teachers] NQTs who had graduated from five selected universities were asked to reflect – through individual interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires, and English and Mathematics content and pedagogy assessments – on their experiences of the transition from being a student-teacher to beginning to teach in a school".[4]

Other countries where such research has been conducted include Angola, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Seychelles, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. In Botswana alone was data apparently available from inspection reports.

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[4] Deacon, R. (2016). *The Initial Teacher Education Research Project: Newly Qualified Intermediate Phase Teachers in South Africa: Final Report on the ITERP NQT Symposium, July 2015*. Johannesburg: JET Education Services.

5.1 What are the experiences of teachers during their first year of teaching?

A general overview of the data would indicate that first year teaching experience can be hard, as idealised expectations are not met, expectations are high and burn-out is experienced. This in some instances leads to reports of depression and low motivation among first year teachers. This compounded by the seeming lack of comprehensive support made available to first year teachers (see section 4.6)

In Angola, for example, one research study reports that student teachers valued the existence of good supervision practices, but there were also gaps between ideal views and perceived practices, namely in regards to the reflective orientation of supervision strategies, the development of supervision cycles, the promotion of learner-centred approaches and innovation, the use of formative assessment, and the development of teacher autonomy.

In Swaziland, pre-service teachers experienced symptoms of burn-out during teaching practice. Seven risk factors that contributed to the experience of burn-out were cited by participants: learners' behavioural issues, heavy workloads, demanding supervisors, lack of support from colleagues, teaching learners who are high achievers, feelings of inadequacy and lack of prioritising.

Similarly, in Zimbabwe, teachers often felt despondent and developed a lack of intrinsic motivation in their academic work. In Mauritius, high expectations from the various stakeholders in education, including students, parents, school and society at large and the various challenges that teachers have to face worsened the situation; many teachers felt frustrated and depressed, and they also experienced a feeling of lack of motivation and dissatisfaction.

South Africa's ITERP found that in the sample of NQTS surveyed, many did not feel prepared for the conditions they encounter in South African schools, particularly, the learners' low levels of learning. Just over half of the NQTS felt prepared to teach, and one third felt what they had learnt during their ITE was not relevant to what they encountered in the classroom. Many reported feeling overwhelmed and unhappy with the workload, particularly the administrative workload, they encountered. And results of the tests they wrote raised questions regarding their preparedness to teach mathematics and English.

Overall, the existing research findings show that teachers generally do not possess skills, knowledge, attitudes and values required to be effective HIV and AIDS counsellors. They also struggle with work cultures which lack collaboration, and in which monitoring is used for evaluative purposes, rather than for professional development.

5.2 Induction process

The landscape of induction across SSA is rather varied for the countries were data is available. Botswana, Cameroon, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Swaziland, Tanzania and Uganda offer induction programmes, but the content and purpose of these programmes vary across countries. For example, in Ethiopia, as a transition from pre-service

preparation to in-service CPD of teachers, a two-year induction is structured for beginner teachers. In Lesotho, similarly, the National University of Lesotho (NUL) Faculty of Education, through its Induction Programme, runs regular short-term, in-service training workshops for fresh graduate teachers. The purpose of both of these induction approaches is to assist with CPD and to ensure that new teachers have the best chances of success.

This is a similar situation in Tanzania, where the only induction course provided was for licensed secondary school teachers. The programme was run from 2005 to 2007 and the modules were intended to enable individual teachers to study on their own and carry out self-assessment and reflection. The programme was established in order to address the scarcity of teachers resulting from an increase in the provision of secondary schooling in the country. The induction course was offered as a short course and teachers were expected to read the modules and associated materials.

In Ghana, teachers have a two-year probationary period after their pre-service education. Officers from the District Education Directorates are expected to visit these teachers in schools to supervise their work at least thrice during this period. Probationary teachers are often confirmed at the end of the two years and accorded a qualified teacher's status. The purpose of this 'induction' is therefore very different from that in Tanzania and Lesotho; it is in effect an extension of the teacher examination, rather than the beginning of their CPD.

In a number of countries, for example Burkina Faso, Zambia, Sierra Leone and Seychelles, induction is non-existent. Promisingly, however, although a Sierra Leonian national framework for inducting newly qualified teachers into the profession is yet to be developed, the Education Sector Plan for 2018-2020 notes the need for such a framework. Similarly, in South Africa, the Department of Basic Education has recently published "New Teacher Induction: Guidelines for the Orientation Programme", following an announcement by the South African Council for Educators (SACE) that an induction period is to be introduced, following graduation and as a prerequisite for certification. These trends indicate a growing recognition of the need for induction in order to adequately help teachers transition into the profession.

5.3   Do student teachers receive mentoring?

The presence of a sympathetic and skilled mentor is integral to both successful induction programmes and positive first year experiences. But here too there is very little data found regarding the quality or extent of teacher mentoring in SSA. Seventeen countries in SSA (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, The Gambia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) were found to have some form of mentoring scheme for teachers, although implementation appears often to be in the breach rather than actually practised.

5.4   Who conducts the mentoring?

In most cases, mentoring is conducted by a mentor teacher in the school. Traditionally, a more experienced or more skilled teacher helps another teacher to understand how to work within the teaching profession. In a few instances (Burkina Faso, Namibia, Nigeria), subject specialists are

involved, and in Namibia, principals as well. However, school leaders have been found to have variable roles in mentoring and overall CPD, with little training offered to leaders on how to be effective managers or mentors.

In Tanzania, student-teachers are supervised by tutors from their colleges in collaboration with mentors at the schools. In Ghana, officers from the District Education Directorates conduct mentoring; in Lesotho, consultants commissioned by the Ministry of Education sometimes offer short in-service courses for teachers on specific topics; and in South Africa, mentoring is done by university lecturers, teaching practice coordinators and school-based mentor teachers.

5.5   Summary

Over two-thirds of the 23 countries for which this information was found provide formal induction programmes: Botswana, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, Swaziland, Tanzania and Uganda. Induction is usually school-based and conducted by education officials, sometimes in conjunction with university or college staff. Among the seven countries that have no formal induction programmes, Sierra Leone and South Africa are planning to introduce them.

The need for a formal induction period is underlined by the difficulties encountered by many newly qualified teachers during their first year of teaching. Information on these experiences was found for 11 countries: Angola, Botswana, Cameroon, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. Almost all of this information appeared in academic journal articles and theses; only in Botswana did it appear that education officials collect such data in the form of inspection reports. New teachers' experiences were invariably described in terms such as 'shock', 'battle' and 'challenge', and reference was made to perceived gaps between theory (what they were taught) and practice (what the actual school situation requires); a lack of support from school leaders, fellow teachers and education officials; and heavy workloads, difficult working conditions, stress and high attrition rates.

The early work experiences of new teachers, both those who undergo formal induction and those who do not, can be greatly enhanced by the work of experienced in-school mentors. In 12 countries, senior teachers are specifically tasked with mentoring student teachers, and in five of these – all from southern and eastern Africa: Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Tanzania – these mentor teachers work together with university lecturers (who may or may not be subject experts). In Ghana, district officials work alongside mentor teachers, while in Kenya county education officials appear to do this job alone. In a couple of instances (Burkina Faso and Lesotho), 'specialists' or 'consultants' are involved.

6. Licence to practice

6.1 Is there a formal licensing process?

Of the countries for which data is available, 12 have a formal a licencing process: Benin, Cameroon, DRC, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia, though the extent to which these are formally observed is variable and unclear. In the DRC, assessment takes place over four days of tests on general culture (history, geography, philosophy and news), the educational disciplines, languages (French and English) and scientific disciplines (mathematics, physics and biology). The test on teaching disciplines comes in the form of a multiple-choice examination paper that assesses theoretical knowledge. The entrance examination also includes a written dissertation, a French oral, and a lesson practice in a class situation. The practical test is to prepare a lesson on a given topic and to implement the practice lesson in a classroom for 20 minutes. The jury, composed of three people (the quality of the Board members varies from one year to the next), observes the candidate's physical appearance, his/her language, record of preparation of the lesson, pedagogical communication in the classroom, and how he/she organises and conducts learning and mastery of the class.

6.2 Is there a formal qualifications registration process?

Sixteen countries have a formal qualifications registration process: Benin, Cameroon, DRC, Ethiopia, Kenya, Liberia, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

6.3 Who is the licensing/registration body?

Licencing and registration are conducted by a range of bodies, such as the Teaching Council of Zambia (TCZ), the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education, and the Tertiary Education Commission of the Mauritius Qualifications Authority. In South Africa, SACE is gearing up to institute a teacher certification process; the intention is to license teachers following an induction year, with periodic relicensing dependent on the achievement of specified CPD requirements. In Liberia licensing/registration is the responsibility of the District Education Office.

6.4 What is the duration of the licensing/registration process?

Licencing or registration are conducted very differently across SSA countries. In Djibouti, for example, a formal probationary period must be completed before being awarded open-ended status. In South Africa, teachers are currently automatically licensed on being awarded a B Ed or PGCE qualification. In Kenya, a teacher who meets the requirements for registration will be issued with the certificate of registration bearing a Teachers' Service Commission number within 30 days, as in Namibia.

In Mauritius, the Educator's Licence is a fee-paying course and the responsibility for attendance and participation rests fully with the applicants. By assigning the full responsibility to the applicants, it is

expected that only those with the required level of motivation and commitment to the profession will apply for the Licence. The licencing programme comprises three modules that run over a period of 15 weeks. It also involves a placement of two weeks in a secondary school. In contrast, every person employed or intending to be employed as a teacher in Swaziland must apply to be registered as such with the Commission. Those applying for teacher registration must have successfully completed a course for teachers and have been awarded a qualification approved by the Director for purposes of teaching; or must be in possession of a university degree, diploma or other similar qualification approved by the Director for teaching purposes; or must hold or have been awarded an Honorary Teacher's Certificate by the Minister. In this regard, registration is a standard part of becoming a teacher in Swaziland.

In Liberia, the District Education Officer assesses the candidate and issues a letter of assignment to the prospective teacher evidencing his or her employment. Subsequently, the Ministry of Education completes a personnel action notice and submits it to the Civil Service Agency for payroll processing. This process may consume anywhere between six months to five years and in some cases never materialises.

6.5   What is the validity period for license/registration?

In some countries, licences or registrations must be renewed after a certain period of time, or upgraded as teachers' qualifications are upgraded: these countries include Ethiopia, Namibia (after five years), Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia (after three years), Zimbabwe, Mauritius, Nigeria (after one year). In Djibouti, most teachers are tenured civil servants; in South Africa, registration with SACE is currently permanent, and in Uganda, it is for an indefinite period, although the Draft Teacher Policy proposes amendments to this.

6.6   When do teachers renew their licenses?

In addition to the countries which require licences/registrations to be renewed after a specific time period, Ethiopia, Namibia, Nigeria, Tanzania and Zimbabwe require renewal after upgrading of qualifications. In Mauritius, upgrading includes the awarding of CPD points/credits.

6.7   How are prospective teachers assessed?

There was very little data found in this regard, but the registration/licensing process seems to act as a form of assessment in the countries for which data was found. For example, in Swaziland, every person employed or intending to be employed as a teacher must apply to be registered with the Teaching Service Commission, provided that that person has successfully completed a course for teachers and has been awarded an approved qualification, is in possession of a university degree, diploma or other similar qualification approved for teaching purposes, or holds an Honorary Teacher's Certificate or has been awarded an Honorary Teacher's Certificate. In Nigeria, any teacher who is qualified and who wants to register as a professional teacher has to write a professional qualifying examination; in The Gambia, a prospective teacher is required to undertake practical teaching in a school, have at least a pass in teaching practice and complete and submit a project. In Zambia, applicants' academic and professional qualifications are sent to issuing bodies for

authentication in order to ensure that only genuine teachers are registered. The process is facilitated by the Examination Council of Zambia.

6.8   Summary

Of 21 countries for which data was found, 16 have a formal teacher licensing process: Benin, Cameroon, Djibouti, DRC, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Information on the nature of the licensing process was available for only seven countries: in most of these, application to the appropriate licensing body and provision of evidence that an ITE qualification has been awarded is sufficient for registration as a teacher; the process is similar in Liberia, except that an assessment by a district education official also takes place. In Djibouti, however, a formal probationary period must first be completed, while in Mauritius, the Educator's Licence is a 15 week (including two weeks in a school), three module, fee-paying course, to which only those with the required motivation and commitment to be teachers are expected to apply.

In seven countries, teacher licenses are renewable (after five years in Namibia, three years in Zambia, one year in Nigeria and after unknown periods in Ethiopia, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe). In three countries (Djibouti, South Africa and Uganda), licenses are permanent. However, SACE is in the process of setting up a formal licensing system, where the license to teach will depend on a professional qualification, followed by a one-year induction and an assessment of competence and then periodic relicensing, dependent on the accumulation of CPD points.

7. Performance management of teachers

7.1   Is there a formal appraisal and performance management system in place?

In 14 of the countries for which data is available (Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Djibouti, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia), there are systems of appraisal or performance management, although some of the systems in use apply to civil servants in general, for example, in Botswana. For the most part, the performance management of teachers is conducted with guidance from within the school management team, but the outcome is essentially the decision of an external evaluator. For example, in Djibouti teachers are given external performance evaluations based on the principal's individual assessment and classroom observation, parental feedback and self-assessment. In Swaziland, a manager, according to a form prescribed by the Teaching Service Commission, compiles a confidential report on the performance of a teacher in the service of teaching duties. This report is submitted annually by the manager to the commission, or at any time that the commission requests it. In Burundi, district inspectors visit once a year to evaluate teachers for salary increases which are based on level of qualification and years in service. South Africa has the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS).

7.2   If no, what appraisal system is being used?

Although there is no formal appraisal system described for many of the countries, some do employ inspections as a form of performance management. For example, in Equatorial Guinea, supervisors and inspectors are in place. In Swaziland, inspections take place and inspectors compile confidential reports on teachers' performance; the Teaching Service Commission may request these reports at any time. In The Gambia, cluster monitors visit schools every week or two to observe teachers. In Nigeria there is no regular appraisal, but rather summative evaluations of teachers to determine their grade levels and salaries. In Ethiopia, teachers are assessed for progress after in-service teacher programmes.

7.3   What are the standards used in performance management?

For most of the countries for which data was collected, it was not possible to find any standards that were being used to direct teacher performance management and appraisal, particularly at district level where the performance management process had been decentralised and there are overarching national teacher standards, as is the case in Ghana (developed by the DFID-funded T-TEL programme). It was also difficult to distinguish between standards that teacher trainees were held to during the course of their training and the standards that fully-qualified teachers were held to in order to advance in their careers.

In the aforementioned example of Ghana, the standards are balanced between: A) Professional values and attitudes; B) Professional knowledge; and C) Professional practice, however, decentralised level monitoring tools do not appear to reflect the standards.[5] In Djibouti, the criteria for evaluation of teachers in the work place is their knowledge of the subject they teach, compliance with the curriculum, teaching processes, examining methods used to assess students as well as their participation and potentially the use of homework assignments in the classroom. In Kenya, as prescribed by the Teaching Services Commission, employers assess teacher performance using universally accepted standards that include classroom observation, principal reviews and learner performance.

In Namibia, the tone of the teacher standards is slightly different and reflects more on teachers' capacity and knowledge, rather than what they do in the classroom. For example, professional knowledge refers to the knowledge that teachers require to effectively teach and facilitate student learning. This domain includes content/subject area knowledge as well as pedagogical knowledge. Professional values refers to the ethical and professional values of teachers. This domain includes the responsibility of teachers to uphold the Code of Conduct for Teachers and to reflect on and improve their professional practice. Professional practice refers to the capacity of teachers to plan and implement innovative, learner centred programmes that incorporate continuous assessment to enhance student learning. Professional relationships refers to the professional relationships that teachers establish with learners, parents, carers, colleagues and the community in order to enhance student learning.

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[5] Derived from an interview with Emma Broadbent (Impact Manager, Varey Foundation)

In Swaziland, the tone is very different again, where teacher standards for performance management are more about protocol. Standards in Swaziland state that a teacher should recognise that teaching is a vocation and more than mere gainful employment. A teacher therefore undertakes to conduct himself/herself according to the following rules: (a) To follow at all times the highest standard of professional conduct; (b) to work conscientiously and with diligence and regularity; (c) to set a good example in his conduct, his person and his dress at all times to the children under his care; (d) to try continually to improve his standard of work and ability; (e) to take an active part in all school activities both in and out of school; (f) to acknowledge that failure to maintain a high professional standard may involve disciplinary penalty; (g) to acknowledge that the commission of an offence under regulation 19 of the Teaching Service Regulations Proclamation No. 34 of 1962, constitutes serious misconduct.

In Sierra Leone, where teacher standards have been developed by the Teachers Service Commission with support from the World Bank and EU and are due to be rolled out, information found indicated that teachers and other education personnel should demonstrate commitment to work and display a positive attitude to the teaching profession, learners, parents, the community, colleagues and employing authorities. Teachers are expected to use of school resources effectively and appropriately. Teachers also have to exhibit professional and ethical conduct within the school environment.

In South Africa, the Department of Basic Education and the Department of Higher Education and Training have established formal standards through the promulgation of the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ).

7.4   Who enforces the standards?

Who enforces the teacher performance management and appraisal differs according to country. In Benin, it is the responsibility of advisers and pedagogical inspectors; in Botswana, Mauritius and Namibia, school management is in charge of teacher performance; in Sierra Leone, Swaziland and Zambia, responsibility lies higher up with the Inspectorate Division (who inspects teachers), the Teacher Service Commission, and Human Resource Management respectively. In Kenya and Nigeria, the Teacher Service Commission and the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria are responsible for enforcing standards, while in Djibouti, local education authorities have this role. In Uganda, the Ministry of Education and Sports is responsible for enforcement, and in South Africa responsibility falls to both national and provincial departments of education. In The Gambia, the Standards and Quality Assurance Directorate is expected to compile a synthesis of the cluster monitors' reports for senior management, and in Tanzania, teachers' immediate supervisors have this task and they set performance targets for the year.

7.5   What is the frequency of assessment?

Data on this question was largely unavailable, but it was found that assessment or evaluation of teachers' performance occurs as frequently as three times a year (Botswana), or as infrequently as once a year (Burundi, Namibia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia) across SSA. In Swaziland, subject

inspectors may conduct visits twice a year or more to any one school. It was asserted that in The Gambia, the frequency of evaluation visits is every one or two weeks. In Nigeria, evaluation is meant to take place once every three years and is linked to salary increases/promotions, but even this does not appear to be taking place.

7.6 What are the challenges?

In addition to the lack of standards, the challenges that come with managing and appraising teachers are many in SSA. In Sierra Leone, for example, it is reported that the division responsible is not equipped adequately to do the job, and it is a challenge to cover the various zones into which the country is divided. The fieldwork of the inspectorate staff is constrained because of the geographic spread of schools and lack of transport. In Namibia and Mauritius, there is similarly a lack of resource capacity and weak planning, monitoring and evaluation, with Mauritius reporting an overload of administrative work.

In South Africa the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) is intended to both assess the performance of each teacher annually for the purposes of a 1% salary increase and to ascertain areas requiring CPD. This is an elaborate scheme which involves self-assessment, followed by an appraisal by a school head of department, assisted by another teacher who is selected by the teacher undergoing appraisal. The IQMS is widely considered to be ineffective, as indicated by the fact that the overwhelming majority of teachers score at least 70%, while few weaknesses are identified during the exercise. The reason for this failure is attributed to the collusion between the teacher who is being appraised and his/her chosen peer who assists in the process, who together outvote the head of department in the interests of securing the salary increase. In short, teachers are tempted to manipulate the system to qualify for a pay increase, rather than using it to understand their own shortcomings and to seek assistance to address these. Thus, the intentions of using IQMS to identify and remediate gaps in teachers' knowledge and skills are not met.

In Botswana, there is a lack of a targeted and integrated continuing professional development system for teachers, and the performance management system is not aligned to the teachers' mandate – it is more corporate in nature. Namibia is characterised by lack of human resource capacity and weak planning, monitoring and evaluation. In Swaziland, those responsible for evaluation were not able to visit teachers as desired.

Kenya has ineffective supervision of curriculum implementation; inadequate mechanisms to enforce compliance with regulations and standards within the teaching service; uneven distribution and utilisation of teachers at various levels; ineffective in-servicing and teacher professional development programmes; and inadequate awareness creation of the Teacher Services Commission's mandate to teachers and stakeholders in the education sector.

In Nigeria, evaluation is never discussed, while in Djibouti and Equatorial Guinea there are no official regulations, no mandatory internal evaluations and a lack of high-quality support and monitoring, respectively.

7.7   Summary

Formal appraisal and performance management systems were found to be in place in 15 countries, although lack of capacity, inadequate enforcement and limited effectiveness are common complaints. In Benin, Burundi, Equatorial Guinea, Sierra Leone and Swaziland, an inspectorate conducts performance assessments; in Botswana, Kenya, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia, appraisals are the responsibility of school managers and/or local education officials.

The frequency of assessment ranges from quarterly in Botswana, to annually in Burundi, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia and Uganda, and every three years in Nigeria. Djibouti stands out for the comprehensiveness of its biennial approach, which involves at once school, local and external assessors, self-assessments, classroom observations and parental feedback, and pays explicit attention (as Namibia does too) to teachers' subject knowledge and classroom performance.

8.   Continuous professional development

8.1   Is CPD formal?

The provision of continuous professional development (CPD) was found to be formal in 17 countries: Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi , Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa and Swaziland. CPD programmes have been variously funded by international donors, including DFID, the World Bank, the EU, the Belgian government, and USAID. In terms of the success of the CPD support received, comprehensive data is not available. There are notable examples of success, though scaled approaches are the next difficult step. For example, Teacher Development Programme (TDP) in Nigeria, funded by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) and managed by Cambridge Education Nigeria Limited saw over 900 teacher educators currently enrolled and/or successfully completing a CPD course; over 300 more were enrolled in March 2018. Benefits are almost immediate as most student teachers on teaching practice are now using the new techniques to teach. It seems that the success of this programme is due to the fact that College of Education staff were the beneficiaries and were able to transfer the knowledge gained to the student teachers.

8.2   Are teachers required to acquire a number of CPD points over a certain period of time?

The acquisition of CPD points was found to be ad-hoc in almost all of the countries for which data is available. In South Africa, teachers are given a one-off cash payment for completing certain qualification-bearing CPD programmes offered by universities.

8.3   What types of programmes are typically offered?

In nine countries for which data was found (Botswana, Cameroon, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Swaziland, The Gambia and Uganda), programmes are offered both in and out of schools; in eight of the countries (Benin, Burundi, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Rwanda and South

Africa) the programmes are offered predominantly out of school; and in Tanzania and Zambia, the programmes are predominantly in school. In Burkina Faso, the Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy and the African Network for Education at a Distance (RESAFAD) has developed a multinational programme for West African Francophone countries aimed at increasing the management capacity of principals. In the Comoros, there are programmes run by NGOs, but the details are not specified.

8.4   Length of study of various development programmes
8.5   Frequency of programmes

The provision of CPD varies greatly across SSA and even among different sections of the teacher workforce. In Burundi, for example, qualified teachers are supposed to receive 80 hours of training (five days) a year, while unqualified teachers are allocated 120 hours. CPD can be as little as 32 hours as required in Djibouti, as opposed to three years, as offered in Tanzania; two semesters are offered in Mozambique and in Nigeria, a CPD programme of at least four days' duration is conducted once every two years. In Botswana, CPD can be a few weeks to three years, depending on whether the teacher is upgrading from a diploma to a degree (the country is aspiring to have all teachers qualified with degrees), and the frequency is needs based. Ethiopia has a three-year in-service programme comprising self-study modules, two three-day tutorials per year and a six-week residential training component in teacher education colleges during each of the three summer vacations. South Africa offers short workshops as well as a one-year long course, and Swaziland conducts workshops that range from one to three weeks twice yearly.

However, it is difficult to compare these allocations due to their ad-hoc nature and the different degrees to which they are considered important by those who appraise the teachers. For example, training may be organised by the government to significantly upskill a teacher and lead to a promotion, as in Mauritius, where the PGCE Part-Time is a two-year (four semesters) programme for secondary school in-service Education Officers. However, a similar course may be organised by an NGO and hold no formal recognition. In Benin, the training lasts a total of three years, is led by the National Institute for Training and Research in Education and takes place during the school holidays.

More data needs to be collected on the quality and recognition of the various CPD programmes.

The availability of CPD seems largely to depend on teachers' availability (as in Namibia) and the availability of external funding (as in Swaziland). This would suggest that for most countries, CPD is not something that is offered by the central teacher training colleges or universities. It is important to note that many NGOs provide CPD, and it was therefore impossible to gather comprehensive data on all the various services provided.

8.6   Content of programmes

In addition to variations in the duration of CPD programmes across SSA, the content of CPD programmes varies. One of the more coherent interventions is the series of in-service refresher courses in Tanzania, run with the assistance of the Japan International Cooperation Agency, and which focus on subject content. These courses are run during the school holidays for up to 30 000

secondary teachers of mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, and English. The courses are delivered in each region by a team of experienced teachers designated as regional trainers, in accordance with the Teacher Development and Management Strategy (TDMS), and occur over three long vacation periods, with each teacher attending for three consecutive years to complete the cycle. Teachers are then assessed on their knowledge of the school curriculum content at the end of each cycle, and on successful completion of the three years, certification of their performance is provided.

This is similar to Benin, where CPD programmes are organised around six training fields, namely: French, mathematics, social education, science and technology education, arts education and physical education and sports. Also taken into account are life skills (CVC), ICT, curriculum issues, teaching methods and child psychology.

In Botswana, CPD programmes cover classroom improvement techniques, emerging issues and welfare issues, and modules provided include emotional intelligence, Microsoft ICT integrated teaching and learning, 21st Century teaching and learning, outcomes-based education and outcomes-based assessment; in Burundi CPD is designed to help teachers to become more familiar with the textbooks; in the DRC, CPD is concerned with capacitating teaches to implement the national programme and covers active and participatory methods, manufacturing and the use of materials, the management of a school and a class and the use of the competency-based approach (APC); in Ethiopia, CPD covers learning and teaching, student environment, leadership and environment and community involvement; in Mauritius, Professional Studies, Professional Practice and Major Study are covered; In South Africa, CPD is usually subject based and common subjects covered include mathematics, science and technology, language, literacy and reading, ICT, sexuality education, life skills and HIV/AIDS awareness.

In Zambia, CPD (or In-service Education of Teachers – INSET) programmes are less content knowledge based but instead have been used to upgrade the teachers' capacity and to sensitise and train teachers to implement new interventions in the education system, such as the Primary Reading Programme, (PRP), Basic School Curriculum Framework (BSCF), Self Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE), Programme for the Advancement of Girls Programme (PAGE), Action to Improve English, Mathematics and Science (AIEMS), new education materials in HIV/AIDS science kits, school health and nutrition, multi-grade and learner-centred methodologies. This is similar in Burkina Faso, where CPD has focussed on the management capacity building of teachers, and in Mozambique, where a teacher may upgrade to a Master's degree by studying modules geared towards management and covering a wide range of topics, from Research Methodology and Information Systems for Educational Management to Organisational Development in Education. CPD in Namibia, leading to an Advanced Diploma in Education, has a similar focus on managing education, and other CPD programmes include computer literacy, English for communication and study skills. Short courses with external providers, training from mentor teachers in the schools and across clusters and structured on-the-job practice and coaching also form part of CPD activities.

Following the decision in Rwanda to change the language of instruction in schools from French to English, the Rwanda English in Action Programme (REAP) sets out to address the English language

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learning needs of more than 50,000 school teachers. Given the high costs of providing residential training to such large numbers, the Ministry of Education's preferred option is a sector-based approach to training, supported by self-directed study and school-based mentoring. A standardised English language assessment tool for measuring teacher proficiency at various levels makes up the final element of REAP and helps ensure all teachers can perform in English to the level required. Some of the programme's key strategies are motivating teachers and students to learn and use English well; increasing their exposure to and confidence in the language; and maximising their opportunities to practise and grow skills in English. The programme is implemented through 60 national English trainers and 600 district-level English trainers.

8.7 Is professional development linked to salary progression?

Data was largely not available, but seven countries were found to link CPD to salary progression: Cameroon, Ghana, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia.

8.8 Is there a once-off incentive for upgrading qualifications?

No data was found to indicate that countries offer teachers once-off incentives to upgrade their qualifications.

8.9 Summary

Formal CPD programmes are available in 16 out of 22 countries for which information was found. In a few countries (Burundi, Cameroon, Nigeria and South Africa), teachers are expected to acquire a certain number of CPD 'points' over time, which translates into 80 hours every three years in places like Burundi and South Africa. Djibouti, which does not seem to require 'points', nevertheless expects teachers to devote 32 hours per year to professional development activities. In the remaining 11 countries, CPD appears to be ad hoc. Any link between CPD and salary progression is equivocal at this stage: in nine out of 17 countries there is no link, whereas in the other eight there is.

Half of all CPD programmes are offered both in- and out-of-school and offered in-school only in just two countries (Tanzania and Zambia). The length of CPD programmes varies widely, from a few days, weeks or months up to two or three years; the programmes tend to focus on upgrading qualifications (in Botswana and Mauritius), on familiarising teachers with curriculum developments (in Burundi) and, most frequently, on improving subject content and pedagogical knowledge (in Benin, Botswana, Swaziland, Tanzania, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Ethiopia). In Ethiopia, CPD for in-service teachers consists of a three-year long programme of self-study, two three-day tutorials and one six-week residential training component annually during summer vacation.

9. Promotion

9.1   Does promotion depend on further training?

In 11 of the countries for which data is available, promotion depends on further training: DRC, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Swaziland, Tanzania, The Gambia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In Uganda, this is sometimes the case, although there seems to be lack of consistency. It is assumed that in Benin, Botswana, Djibouti, Kenya and Nigeria, promotion depends on further training as data was found detailing the types of training programmes required.

9.2   What types of training programmes are required?
9.3   What qualifications are needed to be promoted to the next level of the profession?

Zambia is representative of most of the countries where currently most of the promotions in the school system are based on academic qualifications or experience, i.e, the number of years in the teaching profession.

Other countries where academic qualifications play a role in promotion are The Gambia (where teachers can upgrade to a Higher Teaching Certificate (HTC), which allows them to move from teaching in lower basic to teaching in upper basic schools, Swaziland and Kenya. In Ghana, promotion can be achieved through attaining a Bachelor's degree in education or in any related field. A teacher who obtains a Bachelor's degree in education or in any related field of study is qualified to be promoted to the rank of a Senior Superintendent (SNR. SUP) automatically. In Nigeria, obtaining a B Ed degree or a Postgraduate Diploma in Education following a Bachelor's degree in another discipline, an Advanced Diploma in School Supervision and Inspection or an Advanced Diploma in Guidance and Counselling qualifies teachers for promotion.

Djibouti is unusual in this regard, as in Djibouti teacher promotion is dependent on classroom practice and skills, as in Benin, where participation in programmes which familiarise the teachers with the curriculum content is required.

In some countries, there seems to be a focus on education management courses: for example, In Botswana, teachers are required to undertake programmes in leadership, management and instructional leadership; similarly, in the DRC, programmes on school leadership are required. In Namibia, educational management and leadership are again required, although other options include obtaining an Advanced Diploma in Education and completing short courses with external providers, attending workshops, receiving training from mentor teachers and undergoing structured on-the-job practice and coaching.

9.4 If promotion does not only depend on further training, then how are teachers promoted into leadership roles?

In the countries for which data was found, various combinations of academic qualifications, teacher performance and experience were listed as contributing to promotion into leadership roles.

In Botswana, experience, length of service and perceived dependability are factors; Burundi, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya and Uganda consider length of service and experience. Countries that consider teacher performance include the DRC, Djibouti, Mauritius and Zimbabwe. In Sierra Leone, academic qualifications also play a role.

In Swaziland, Tanzania, The Gambia, Namibia, Nigeria and South Africa, all three elements are taken into account for promotion into leadership roles, although in South Africa, where the appointments of principals and school-level heads of departments (who manage the curriculum for a subject or grade within the school) are based on recommendations from the school-governing body to the provincial department, a Ministerial Commission has found that nepotistic and corrupt practices in securing promotions are widespread through manipulation of the process.

9.5 Summary

In 11 out of 18 countries, the promotion of teachers to senior positions depends on further training, and in most cases such training is associated with obtaining a higher qualification such as a degree or postgraduate qualification. In the other seven countries for which information was obtained (Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Senegal and South Africa), promotion depends instead on experience or duration of service and/or performance, although higher qualifications may also play a role. Whether or not further training is required, in some instances (such as Senegal and Uganda) the possibility of promotion also depends on the existence of a vacancy.

10. Evaluation and review

10.1 Do evaluations or reviews of CPD programmes exist?

Data found indicates that in 12 countries (Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Kenya, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa and Swaziland) evaluations of reviews on CPD programmes exist.

In terms of who conducts the evaluations or assessments, very little information was available. In Cameroon, teachers conduct the evaluations; in Kenya, Namibia, Sierra Leone and Swaziland, the education ministries seem to play a role, with UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank and other development partners assisting in Sierra Leone. In Kenya, Namibia and Nigeria, evaluations by academics and universities were found to take place, and the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) was mentioned as playing a role in evaluating CPD programmes in Mozambique.

REFLECTIONS ON THE METHODOLOGICAL DIFFICULTIES OF CONDUCTING RAPID, COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON TEACHER EDUCATION IN SSA

This report faced a number of methodological challenges which have affected the outcome of the market scan. The first challenge is the lack of literature available for each of the respective countries. Research publications rarely describe the country's teacher education system in enough detail to be substantially useful for the market scan. This was particularly true for the content of the teacher training programmes which were often described in vague terms. Many of the country-specific publications are qualitative studies that provide substantial detail of a small teacher training intervention, but which lack the broader national context.

Compounding this problem is the fact that most of the literature focuses on primary school teacher education, with secondary teacher education given much less attention. This is understandably the result of a policy focus on primary education up until recently; however, it meant that a lot of the country specific data was not very useful for the market scan.

The second challenge concerns the diversity of teacher education provision within a single country. In many countries, teacher education faces regional diversity, both between states and between the rural and urban divide. This is particularly the case in countries which have a strong NGO presence, and where CPD interventions are either small and dispersed, or large and transnational (e.g. Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, (TESSA) created by the Open University in the United Kingdom. (). It therefore proved impossible to create a complete overview of teacher education and the kinds of training experiences that a teacher within one country could expect to access.

The third challenge regards the number of teachers in SSA who actually attend teacher training programmes. Much of the literature, which is reported in the literature review, discusses the vast numbers of unqualified or 'volunteer' teachers present within SSA schooling systems. In some countries, the numbers of unqualified teachers outweigh the numbers of qualified teachers. In this case, unqualified teachers may rely disproportionately on CPD or training provided by NGOs. These teachers may furthermore not be reported in government statistics regarding the teacher population.

The fourth challenge is that data is not comparable across countries. For example, what it means for a teacher to be licenced can mean very different things in different countries, as can concepts like

performance management. The literature often does not give enough detail to know whether these concepts are comparable.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section we confine our recommendations to those pertaining to data management. Policy recommendations regarding the education of secondary school teachers are made in the Overview Report. The systematic generation, collation and analysis of information on a variety of indices is central to the development and deployment of educators, in the interests of providing the best education to all learners in the system. Towards these ends the authors of the report *Rethinking Education: Towards a global common good?* propose that:

… both knowledge and education be considered <u>common goods</u>. This implies that the creation of knowledge, as well as its acquisition, validation and use, are common to all people as part of a <u>collective societal endeavour</u> (UNESCO, 2015: 11; emphasis in original).

The collection and analysis of good data that is valid and reliable is important for both accountability and management purposes. For these reasons data should increasingly be standardized and quantifiable in the form of internationally-comparable statistics, indicators and composite indices, as well as large-scale assessment data, all of which are used for monitoring, benchmarking and rankings (ibid).

In the Methodology section above we describe four factors which undermine the reliability of the data contained in our Market Scan. As revealed in our Overview Report (see Appendix 1), the detailed probes utilised in the four Case Studies reveal yet another source of uncertainty: the presence of what Pritchett et al (2010) have referred to as 'isomorphic mimicry': information which, either by design or wishful thinking, gives the impression of being consistent with known best practice or conforming to policy, but which in effect hides practices which are quite different. Such behaviour is all too easy to slip into when the production of data assumes high-stakes status in the reporting of personal or institutional performance.

The main finding of our Market Scan Report is that the management of data is, at best, haphazardly done in the large majority of SSA countries. This situation needs to be changed if improved schooling is to be achieved, and towards this end we make four recommendations: building strong national data systems; focus on outcomes and in particular on the quality of learning; using international networks and agencies to build consensus around terminology, data collection protocols and smart performance indicators; and building in-country capacity manage and use data systems to optimal effect.

10.2   Build strong national systems of data collection, analysis and use

Data is systematically collected in the eight areas listed in Appendix 2. This will be best done by a dedicated facility in the national ministry responsible for education in each country. While the many datasets provided by international agencies[6] serve an enormously useful function, and without which to present report could not have been undertaken, the majority of the sources of information uncertainty described above reside at the national level. While there certainly is a role for what is being referred to as the 'global governance' of information (UNESCO, 2015), without strong national systems the transnational level inevitably reduces to 'garbage in, garbage out'. Start with an audit, led by the relevant Ministry and supported by international TA.

Although Crouch et al (2018) are mainly warning about the over-hasty introduction of too many innovations in the following quote, they also highlight the need for the step-by-step construction of datasets that serve an intelligence purpose in systems leadership, rather than providing a smokescreen for inadequate performance or building resentment against the over-bureaucratisation of the procedures:

If a development experiment needs to introduce the dashboard, the notion of accountability, metrics of accountability, new methods of getting those metrics into a web-based dashboard, and ways for citizens to engage with the data through the dashboard and hand-held devices, the effort will typically fail out of its own complexity; not because of the dashboard effort, but the dashboard part of the effort will get a bad name.

10.3   Focus on Quality Improvement

The presence of the SACMEQ and PASEC tests which assess learning in mathematics and language at the upper end of the primary school are important indicators of the quality of learning in those 15 Anglophone and 10 Francophone countries, respectively, which participate. The results of these exercises have stimulated certain countries – including Kenya, Uganda and South Africa – to initiate early grade reading programmes in response to disappointing performance. A particularly useful facility in this regard is the *Early Grade Reading Barometer* maintained jointly by USAID and RTI, which provides detailed data on reading for those countries which make use of the early grade reading assessment (EGRA) instruments (see https://earlygradereadingbarometer.org/).

10.4   Build national capacity

The tasks described above require expertise in the design, administration and interpretation of data. While much technical assistance has been and continues to be provided to a number of SSA countries, the relatively poor state of national data systems indicates that the acquisition and

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[6] Arguably the best known of these include the data services provided by USAID (Idea Country Dashboard at https://idea.usaid.gov/cd), the World Bank (EdStats at http://datatopics.worldbank.org/education/), UNESCO (UIS.Stat at http://data.uis.unesco.org/) and the OECD (see http://www.oecd.org/statistics/listofoecddatabases.htm).

deployment of these skills are processes which require on-going support. This is one area in which a donors and development agencies could usefully cooperate in mounting a major initiative across the continent. UNESCO is probably best place to lead such an initiative.

10.5   Build consensus internationally on terminology, indices and protocols

Another role for international agencies lies in leading the design and development of standardised protocols and definitions of key terms (such as 'qualified teacher') in order to enable comparison across time and between countries.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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APPENDIX 1: Research outputs

The investigation into the education and support of secondary school teachers in SSA produced seven research reports:

1. **Literature Review**

Taylor, N. and Robinson, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation and Support. LITERATURE REVIEW

2. **Market Scan Report**

Robinson, N. and Taylor, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation and Support: MARKET SCAN REPORT

3. **Four Case Study Reports:**

Adotavi, J. & Taylor, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation and Support. CASE STUDY: SENEGAL.

Arinaitwe, J., Taylor, N., Broadbent, E., and Oloya, C. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation and Support: CASE STUDY: UGANDA.

Taylor, N. and Robinson, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation and Support. CASE STUDY: SOUTH AFRICA.

Uwase, J. & Taylor, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation Support. CASE STUDY: RWANDA.

4. **Overview Report**

Taylor, N., Deacon, R. and Robinson, N. (2019). SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA: Teacher Preparation Support. OVERVIEW REPORT.

APPENDIX 2: Market scan questions

The Market Scan was guided by the following questions.

1. **ITE SELECTION**
   1.1. What admission criteria are applied in selecting prospective teachers into ITE Programmes?
   1.2. What selection criteria are applied in selecting prospective teachers into ITE programmes?
   1.3. What skills and knowledge areas are tested during entry exams?

2. **ITE INSTITUTIONS**
   2.1. What kinds of institutions train teachers?
   2.2. What are the delivery modalities?
   2.3. Give a rough average of the number of Enrolments
   2.4. Give a rough average Through-put rate
   2.5. Give a rough average Drop-out rate
   2.6. Give a rough average Number graduating
   2.7. What is the spend per teacher on teacher training per programme type?
   2.8. List the financial support offered to students.
   2.9. How many candidates has access to the financial support offered?
   2.10. Percentage of the education budget allocated to Teacher Education.
   2.11. Regional differences in provision of teacher training institutes.
   2.12. Regional differences in capacity of institutes.

3. **THE CONTENT OF ITE PROGRAMMES**
   3.1. List of core courses.
   3.2. List of optional/further courses.
   3.3. Length of study per course?
   3.4. Are the courses practice or theory?
   3.5. What is the nature of academic support programmes offered to assist student teachers with poor schooling results?
   3.6. Do teacher students have access to Supervisors/Management, Work Groups, Mentoring, Workshops, online assistance programmes, Other?
   3.7. Are there differences between programmes for upper and lower secondary teachers?
   3.8. How do they differ?
   3.9. Describe the content of the various programmes.
   3.10. Give a brief summary of the success of the academic support received.

4. **THE TYPES AND NATURE OF ITE QUALIFICATIONS**
   4.1. What kinds of qualifications are offered?
   4.2. Length of study per qualification?
   4.3. How is assessment done?

5. **EARLY WORK EXPERIENCE AND INDUCTION**

5.1. Is there any data collected on teachers' experiences during their first year of service?

5.2. How was the data collected?

5.3. Experiences of teachers during their first year?

5.4. Is there a formal induction process?

5.5. Give a brief summary of the process?

5.6. Is induction process school based or teacher training institutes based?

5.7. Do student teachers receive mentoring?

5.8. Who does the mentoring?

6. LICENSE TO PRACTICE

6.1. Is there a formal licensing process?

6.2. Is there a formal qualifications registration process?

6.3. Who is the licensing/registration body?

6.4. What is the duration of the licensing/registration process?

6.5. What is the validity period for license/registration?

6.6. When do teachers renew their licenses?

6.7. How are prospective teachers assessed?

7. APPRAISAL AND PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS

7.1. Is there a formal Appraisal and Performance Management System in place?

7.2. If no, what Appraisal and Performance management system is being used?

7.3. What are the standards?

7.4. Who enforces the standards?

7.5. What is the frequency of assessment?

7.6. What are the challenges?

8. CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

8.1. Is CPD formal? (Y/N)

8.2. Are teachers required to acquire a number of CPD point over a certain period of time or is it ad hoc?

8.3. What types of programmes are typically offered?

8.4. Length of Study of various development programmes.

8.5. Content of Programmes.

8.6. Is professional development linked to salary progression?

8.7. Is there a once off incentive for upgrading qualifications?

9. PROMOTION

9.1. Does promotion depend on further training?

9.2. What types of training programmes are required?

9.3. If promotion does not only depend on further training then how are teachers promoted into leadership roles?

10. EVALUATION AND REVIEW

10.1. Do evaluations or reviews on CPD programmes exist?

10.2. Who conducts the evaluation/reviews?

10.3. Who funds the evaluation/reviews?

10.4. When do evaluation/reviews occur?

APPENDIX 3: Data density by question

Questions	Number of countries for which data was found
1.1 What admission criteria are applied in selecting prospective teachers into ITE Programmes (e.g. High School Qualifications)	30
1.2 What selection criteria are applied in selecting prospective teachers into ITE programmes? (E.g. Interviews, Entry Exam, Both)	30
1.3 What skills and knowledge areas are tested during entry exams?	31
2.1 What kinds of institutions train teachers (colleges/universities/schools)?	37
2.2 What are the delivery modalities (face-to-face/distance/mixed)?	35
2.3 Give a rough average of the number of enrolments	31
2.4 Give a rough average through-put rate	30
2.5 Give a rough average drop-out rate	30
2.6 Give a rough average number graduating	33
2.7 What is the spend per teacher on teacher training per programme type.	30
2.8 List the financial support offered to students.	32
2.9 How many candidates has access to the financial support offered?	31
2.10 Percentage of the education budget allocated to Teacher Education	32
2.11 Regional differences in provision of teacher training institutes	31
2.12 Regional differences in capacity of institutes	30
3.1 List of core courses	33
3.2 List of optional/further courses	32
3.3 Length of study per course?	33
3.4 Are the courses practice or theory	32
3.5 What is the nature of academic support programmes offered to assist student teachers with poor schooling results? (Scale of 1 – 5, 5 = High and 1=Low)	30
3.6 Do teacher students have access to Supervisors/Management, Work Groups, Mentoring, Workshops, online assistance programmes, Other	33
3.7 Are there differences between programmes for upper and lower secondary teachers? (Y/N)	31
3.8 How do they differ?	32
3.9 Describe the content of the various support programmes	31
3.10 Give a brief summary of the success of the academic support received	31
4.1 What kinds of qualifications are offered (certificate/degree/diploma)	36
4.2 Length of study per qualification?	34

Questions	Number of countries for which data was found
4.3 How is assessment done?	32
4.4 What are the throughput rates?	30
4.5 What are the graduation numbers?	30
5.1 Is there any data collected on teachers' experiences during their first year of service? (Y/N)	31
5.2 How was the data collected? (source)	30
5.3 Experiences of teachers during their first year?	30
6.1 Is there a formal induction process? (Y/N)	32
6.2 Give a brief summary of the process?	31
6.3 Is induction process school based or teacher training institutes based? (School, University, College)	31
7.1 Do student teachers receive mentoring? (Y/N)	31
7.2 Who does the mentoring (e.g. Peer, Mentor Teacher, Specialist, Expert)	31
8.1 Is there a formal licensing process? (Y/N)	31
8.2 Is there a formal qualifications registration process? (Y/N)	31
8.3 Who is the licensing/ registration body?	30
8.4 What is the duration of the licensing/registration process?	30
8.5. What is the validity period for license/registration?	30
8.6 When do teachers renew their licenses? (e.g. license expired, qualifications upgraded, CPD points/credits)	30
8.7 How are prospective teachers assessed?	31
9.1 Is there a formal Appraisal and Performance Management System in place? (Y/N)	31
9.2 If no, What Appraisal and Performance management system is being used.	31
9.3 What are the standards?	30
9.4 Who enforces it?	31
9.5 What is the frequency?	31
9.6 What are the challenges/gaps?	31
10.1 Is CPD formal? (Y/N)	31
10.2 Are teachers required to acquire a number of CPD point over a certain period of time or is it ad hoc?	30
10.3 What types of programmes are typically offered? (In School/Out of School)	31
10.4 Length of Study of various development programmes	30
10.5 Frequency of Programmes	30
10.6 Content of Programmes	31
10.7 List of the modules used	30
10.8 Is professional development linked to salary progression	32
10.9 Is there a once off incentive for upgrading qualifications (Y/N)	32

SECONDARY LEVEL TEACHER EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA MARKET SCAN REPORT

Questions	Number of countries for which data was found
11.1 Does promotions depend on further training?	32
11.2 What types of training programmes are required?	31
11.3 What qualifications are needed to be promoted to the next level of the profession? (e.g. Teacher to Senior Teacher)	30
11.4 If promotion does not only depend on further training then how are teachers promoted into leadership roles? **(e.g. Academic Qualifications, Teacher Performance, Experience)**	31
12.1 Do evaluations or reviews on CPD programmes exist? **(Y/N)**	30
12.2 Who conducts the evaluation/reviews?	30
12.3 Who funds the evaluation/reviews?	30
12.4 When does evaluation/reviews occur?	30
12.5 If there is access to this data, list the evaluation sources.	30
12.6 If there is access to the data, list the review data sources.	30
13.1 Source of Information (Internet Search or Ministry)	37

Data could be found for every one of the 70 questions for at least 30 of the 48 countries (63%).

On the negative side, no data was found at all for the 12 countries listed below:

1. Central African Republic
2. Chad
3. Côte d'Ivoire
4. Guinea
5. Guinea-Bissau
6. Mali
7. Mauritania
8. Niger
9. Sao Tome and Principe,
10. Sudan
11. Togo
12. Western Saharah