



An international network for education in emergencies
Un réseau international pour l'éducation en situations d'urgence
Una red internacional para la educación en situaciones de emergencia
Uma rede internacional para a educação em situações de emergência
الشبكة العالمية لوكالات التعليم في حالات الطوارئ



WHERE IT'S NEEDED MOST:

QUALITY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL TEACHERS

The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) is an open, global network of members working together in humanitarian and development contexts to ensure all persons the right to quality, safe and relevant education.

© Copyright: INEE, 2015

Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE)

c/o International Rescue Committee (IRC)

122 East 42nd Street, 14th Floor

New York, NY 10168

USA

www.ineesite.org

To become an INEE member, visit www.ineesite.org/join

To view all INEE's tools and resources, visit www.ineesite.org/toolkit

Front cover photo credit:

Colin Crowley / Save the Children

ISBN: 978-1-4951-3905-5

Suggested citation:

Burns, M. and Lawrie, J. (Eds.). (2015). Where It's Needed Most: Quality Professional Development for All Teachers. New York, NY: Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies.

If you are interested in translating this publication or any other INEE tool or resource pro bono, please contact the INEE Secretariat for a written permission: MinimumStandards@ineesite.org. Thank you in advance.



An international network for education in emergencies
Un réseau international pour l'éducation en situations d'urgence
Una red internacional para la educación en situaciones de emergencia
Uma rede internacional para a educação em situações de emergência
الشبكة العالمية لوكالات التعليم في حالات الطوارئ

WHERE IT'S NEEDED MOST:

QUALITY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL TEACHERS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This guide was edited by Mary Burns, Education Development Center and James Lawrie, Save the Children, UK. Qualitative data and thematic analysis was done by Mary Burns and Beth Mayberry, Education Development Center. Additional research and development of the annotated bibliography was provided by Timothy Sullivan, INEE Minimum Standards Intern, and comments on mental health and psychosocial topics were provided by Judy Greenberg, Licensed Psychologist, Core Faculty of Child Trauma Institute, Mental Health and Trauma Consultant for World Learning's School for International Training Graduate Institute. We are grateful for the valuable input, guidance and support provided by the following individuals: Tzvetomira Laub (INEE), Cynthia Koons (INEE), Shannon Lee (INEE), Jonathan Penson (War Child Holland), Mary Mendenhall (Teachers College, Columbia University), Varalika Singh (INEE) and Michelle Hollett (consultant). Thanks also to EDC, Save the Children UK and WarChild Holland.

The Teacher Professional Development in Crisis Online Discussion Series took place from February 1-May 31, 2013 and is archived at <http://www.ineesite.org/en/blog/teacher-professional-development-in-crisis-series>.

The editors of this work have made every effort to create an original work, to check the originality and authenticity of all authors' contributions and to properly cite any sources or references. All authors have confirmed in writing that their contributions here are their own original work and that they have fully cited all references. The editors do not take responsibility for the contributions of the authors.

A list of authors and topics in the *Teacher Professional Development in Crisis* Online Discussion Series are listed below.

Week	Author	Organization	Topic
1	Mary Burns	Education Development Center (USA)	Teacher professional development in crisis: How can we begin to move forward?
2	James Lawrie	Save the Children (UK) (previously War Child Holland)	Using ICT for more effective teacher professional development in fragile contexts
3	Kate Shevland	Orewa College (New Zealand)	School based professional development: Modeling effective pedagogical practice
4	John Morefield	Consultant (US)	TPD and School Leadership
5	Saouma Boujaoude	American University of Beirut (Lebanon)	Continuous professional development of Lebanese teachers
6	Heidi Biseth	Save the Children (Norway)	Quality education in emergencies – is it possible?
7	Phalachandra Bhandigadi	Wawasan Open University (Malaysia)	Educational broadcasting for professional development of teachers in India
8	Atul Gawande (Previous podcast recording). His work is not represented in this guide.	Journalist and surgeon, Brigham and Women's Hospital (Boston, MA)	Coaching at the heart of learning (Radio interview courtesy of the Harvard Graduate School of Education Radio and Dr. Atul Gawande)
9	Sara Hennessy & Björn Haßler	University of Cambridge (UK)	A new approach and open resources for school-based professional development in sub-Saharan Africa
10	Hannah Snowden	UNESCO (South Sudan)	In the absence of chalk: Teacher's experience of professional development in South Sudan
11	Carol Taylor	Institute of Education, University of London (UK)	TPD makes a difference? To whom and how do we know?
12	Silje Sjøvaag Skeie	Norwegian Refugee Council (Norway)	When there are no teachers...
13	Karen Edge	Institute of Education, University of London (UK)	If you want me to change my practice, convince me!
14	K. Victoria Dimock	SEDL (US)	Getting rid of professional development and implementing professional learning
15	Deborah Haines	Independent Consultant (UK)	Teacher training, classroom realities, sustainable solutions
16	Jenni Donohoo	Greater Essex County District School Board, Windsor, Ontario (CA)	Professional development and developing formal and informal leadership
17	Catherine Gladwell	Refugee Education Trust and Jigsaw Consult(UK)	Value of and challenges in participatory and creative approaches to teacher PD
18	Paul St. John Frisoli	Collaborative Learning Resources (US)	Teachers' experiences of professional development in crisis and post-crisis Democratic Republic of Congo
19	Mary Burns and James Lawrie	EDC, Save the Children UK	What have we learned and what do we do with what we have learned?

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword	6
I. Introduction	7
II. Fragility and Education	15
III. The Absence of Chalk: Teaching, Learning and Professional Development in Fragile Contexts ..	25
IV. Recommendations	37
Recommendation 1:	39
Focus on teachers in fragile contexts – as professionals, learners and individuals	
Recommendation 2:	57
Develop, apply, measure and institutionalize standards for teacher professional development	
Recommendation 3:	69
Create professional development opportunities that promote teacher collaboration	
Recommendation 4:	83
Provide teachers with ongoing support	
Recommendation 5:	103
Invest in high-quality teacher educators	
Recommendation 6:	117
Build instructional leadership at all levels of the educational system	
Recommendation 7:	131
Use ICT to provide access to content, professional development and professional learning communities	
V. Professional Development for Teachers in the World's Most Fragile Contexts Cannot Wait ..	145
VI. Annotated Bibliography	155
VII. Index	157

FOREWORD

Education is a human right, regardless of gender, age, ability or location, and it can establish the foundations of a better future. Every person deserves the right to a quality education, even when living in fragile contexts or in times of emergencies and crises. When a crisis strikes, disrupting education service delivery, the first target population to be considered for remedial or resumed assistance are the students. As the response is envisioned, developed and implemented, teachers quickly become the front line for delivering this human right to children and youth. Yet, teachers' needs in emergency contexts are oftentimes overlooked and not explicitly addressed. Due to the conflict or disaster, teachers come to this front line with varying levels of education and experience and are often given this big responsibility out of necessity. As teachers play a critical role in shaping the future of their students, their role should not be an afterthought but should be an integral part of the preparedness and planning phases for education in emergencies. As such, teachers require well-planned and well-executed professional development in order to be the best that they can be, especially in times of crisis.

This guide is based on rich information that emerged from the INEE-hosted online forum on *Teacher Professional Development in Crisis*. Experts from around the world participated in this forum to discuss the status of teacher professional development (TPD) in fragile and crisis-affected contexts. The forum resulted in the ideas and recommendations that are presented throughout the guide, including TPD standards; continued support of teachers; the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT); and the definition of quality teachers in such contexts, among others.

We hope that this guide will continue the discussions that are already happening to advance TPD and initiate new conversations on how to better plan, implement and sustain TPD in crisis situations. Teacher quality is strongly connected to student success. Therefore, TPD plays a critical role in preparing teachers to provide the best education possible, no matter where they live, the conditions in which they serve, or the challenges they face.

Sincerely,
Carine Allaf, Co-Chair
Howard Williams, Co-Chair
Tzvetomira Laub, Senior Coordinator

INEE Working Group on Minimum Standards and Network Tools

I. INTRODUCTION

Mary Burns, Education Development Center

We face a crisis in teacher professional development.

In many parts of the globe, teachers consistently receive professional development that they do not value, that they believe has little impact (OECD, 2008; Burns, 2007) and that research shows does not meet the threshold needed to produce strong effects on their practice or on student learning (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

In many parts of the globe, a majority of the world's teachers, despite the diversity of their professional contexts, participate in a remarkably uniform model of professional development – the workshop or “training” – despite research showing that such a model is unlikely to influence teacher practice or student achievement (Wei, Darling-Hammond, & Adamson, 2010).

In many parts of the globe – particularly in the world's poorest and most fragile contexts where the need for quality teaching is greatest – the frequency of professional development is episodic, its quality variable, its duration limited and support or follow-up for teachers almost non-existent.

In many parts of the globe, the teachers who need the most professional development – teachers who are new to the profession, who are under-qualified or who teach outside their content areas – often receive the least professional development (OECD, 2008). Further, they participate in formal learning opportunities not when and where it matters most – in their classrooms as they are teaching – but away from their schools and outside of the school calendar.

“If we want schools to produce more powerful learning on the part of students, we have to offer more powerful learning opportunities to teachers. ... Unless teachers have access to serious and sustained learning opportunities at every stage in their career, they are unlikely to teach in ways that meet demanding new standards for student learning or to participate in the solution of educational problems.”

Feiman-Nemser, 2001, pp. 1013–1014

And in many parts of the globe, teachers regularly fail to apply – or fail to implement with any degree of quality or fidelity – what they have learned from the “trainings” they have received. Consequently, and almost universally, teachers are blamed for this omission, despite the fact that it is most often the professional development system itself that so often fails teachers and, in turn, fails their students.

In many parts of the globe, teachers may experience professional development characterized by some of the above practices. But the world’s poorest and most at-risk teachers in the most fragile contexts often experience professional development characterized by all of the above practices.

But change is afoot. In many parts of the globe there is a growing understanding that teacher quality is inextricably linked to – and indeed drives – student achievement (Rice, 2003; Sanders & Rivers, 1996). There is increasing awareness that teachers, like all professionals, must be carefully recruited and prepared to be teachers, and developed professionally throughout the course of their careers in order to be effective. In many parts of the globe, nations, districts and schools are beginning to move away from the poor professional development practices described above toward what we know is effective professional development – school-based teacher learning, differentiated teacher professional development, greater school-based support for teachers and teacher collaboration. This has happened mainly in wealthy and non-fragile countries, but increasingly, it is also occurring in low-income and fragile contexts. This guide attempts to capture those examples.



Copyright: Colin Crowley / Save the Children

ABOUT THIS GUIDE

However, a greater focus on teacher professional development and on education in fragile states has not necessarily extended to teacher professional development in fragile states. Indeed, teacher professional development in crisis and fragile contexts remains an under-theorized and under-researched domain, further perpetuating the cycle of poor teacher professional development and, consequently, poor overall education delivery in the parts of the globe most in need of both. This guide aims to redress this omission by outlining a set of best practices in high-quality professional development for teachers who work in fragile contexts.

From January to May 2013, the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) hosted a 19-week online forum, *Teacher Professional Development in Crisis*, (referred to throughout this guide as *TPD in Crisis*) to discuss the state of professional development in some of the world's most fragile contexts. The forum was facilitated by Mary Burns and James Lawrie.

Nineteen nationally- and internationally-known professional development experts participated in this forum. They were asked to address the following question: How can we improve teacher professional development in the world's poorest and most fragile places? Authors shared their views on effective professional development or teacher learning in "fragile" contexts – in post-conflict contexts like Lebanon, newly formed and politically vulnerable nations such as South Sudan, low-income contexts in Sub-Saharan Africa and urban, at-risk schools in the United States. These experts touched on a range of factors that contribute to effective professional development – leadership, resources, using appropriate professional development models, appropriate uses of technology and the need for skilled teacher educators. Experts shared, commented on and discussed the merits and demerits of one another's ideas about effective teacher professional development in fragile and crisis areas.

This exchange of ideas – the writings of experts and discussions among experts and forum participants – was catalogued, analyzed and manually coded. Codes were combined to form themes and patterns and, in some cases, were tabulated as frequencies. The main themes and patterns that emerged from this largely qualitative process form the basis of this guide. These themes and patterns were then triangulated by research on professional development in fragile contexts – *where such research exists* – by an extensive body of research on effective teacher learning in non-fragile contexts,¹ and by INEE Minimum Standards and other INEE tools to support further study on and implementation of teacher professional development in fragile contexts.

¹ See the annotated online bibliography at <http://www.ineesite.org/en/annotated-bibliography-teacher-professional-development-in-crisis>.

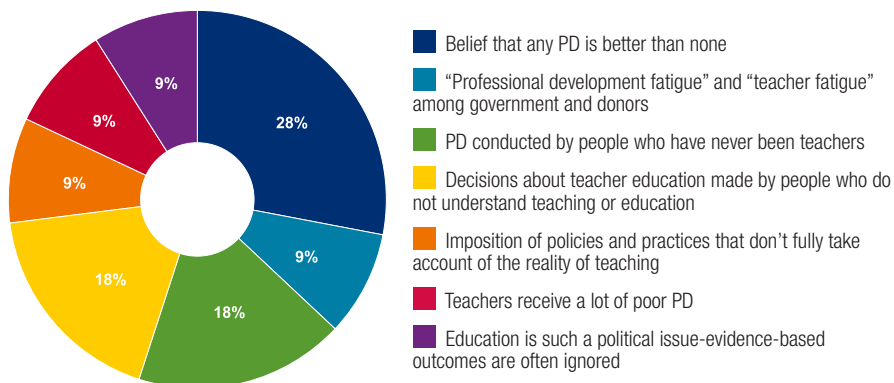
ORGANIZATION OF THIS GUIDE

The guide is organized into the following sections:

- **Fragility and Education:** This section discusses our working view of fragility, providing a more expansive definition than may be found in existing literature.
- **Teaching, Learning and Professional Development in Fragile Contexts:** This section describes barriers to effective teacher professional development as gathered through content analysis of authors' articles and the ensuing discussion in the *Teacher Professional Development in Crisis (TPD in Crisis)* series.
- **Recommendations:** This section presents a set of seven recommendations that emerged from the *TPD in Crisis* series on how to improve teacher professional development in fragile contexts. The recommendations are listed below.
- **Professional Development Cannot Wait:** A summary of recommendations and other themes that emerged from the *TPD in Crisis* discussion series.
- **Annotated Bibliography:** The guide includes an online list of annotated resources that touch on issues of teacher professional development in fragile contexts (<http://www.ineesite.org/en/annotated-bibliography-teacher-professional-development-in-crisis>).

Most chapters contain a circular chart tabulating the key themes associated with that chapter as reflected in *TPD in Crisis* blog posts and participant discussions. Percentages refer to the instances in which a particular issue or recommendation was made within discussion of that particular topic. As an example, Figure 1 outlines some of the issues impacting quality teacher professional development (TPD) in fragile contexts. As can be seen from Figure 1, 28 percent of the forum responses addressing this question referred to the belief among many that any TPD is better than none; 18 percent of responses focus on the lack of teaching experience of professional development providers, and so forth.

Figure 1: What are some of factors impacting the quality of professional development in fragile contexts?



IMPROVING QUALITY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL TEACHERS: A SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

Below are the seven major recommendations emerging from the *Teacher Professional Development in Crisis* online forum:

- **Recommendation 1:** Focus on teachers in fragile contexts – as professionals, learners and individuals
- **Recommendation 2:** Develop, apply, measure and institutionalize standards for teacher professional development
- **Recommendation 3:** Create professional development opportunities that promote teacher collaboration
- **Recommendation 4:** Provide teachers with ongoing support
- **Recommendation 5:** Invest in high-quality teacher educators
- **Recommendation 6:** Build instructional leadership at all levels of the educational system
- **Recommendation 7:** Use ICT to provide access to content, professional development and professional learning communities

TEACHERS AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Within this guide, a teacher includes any person, whether trained or untrained, formally qualified or non-qualified, who is charged with or assumes responsibility for the instruction of children in early education, primary or secondary educational settings. This may include formally qualified teachers in established school systems, “refugees who teach but (are) not qualified to do so” (Sesnan et al., 2013, p. xv), or short-term emergency teachers. These educational settings may be formal (i.e., school) or non-formal settings. They do not include children who are “home schooled” as in rural and remote areas of Afghanistan or Pakistan.

The reader will note that though pre-service teacher education is often the teacher’s primary professional formation, the guide touches only lightly on pre-service education. There are two primary reasons for this omission. First, the majority of authors work in the area of in-service teacher education (teacher professional development). Next, the pre-service teacher education systems in many very low-income and fragile states are weak, and many teachers working in conflict and crisis areas, some of whom are volunteers or emergency teachers, have no experience with this formal system. If they get any preparation at all, it is through emergency training or in-service training, and this is the only formation these teachers receive.

Thus, **professional development** (also known as, **continuous professional development**) in this guide refers exclusively to teacher “in-service” education. Here we use the following modified definition provided by the OECD (2008) that describes professional development as “a body of systematic (formal teacher learning activities), including training, induction courses, in-service training, and continuous professional formation within school settings” (p. 19).

LIMITATIONS OF THIS GUIDE

It is important to define what this guide is – and what it is not. This guide focuses on a very narrow topic (teacher professional development (TPD) or teacher “in-service” education) within a very broad context (fragile environments). It builds on an original set of conversations, which have been coded, analyzed and developed into a set of themes, about authors and participants’ own experiences in improving TPD within a range of low-resource contexts.

The real limitation of this guide rests with available research on professional development in fragile contexts. Such research is, at best, scant. Some of what exists is inaccessible behind journal pay walls. Of what little that does exist, it is hard to ascertain either rigor or quality. *Where editors and authors were able to find research on TPD in fragile contexts*, it has been used to supplement the main themes of the guide. In the majority of cases, where editors and authors were unable to find research from fragile, emergency or crisis contexts, we use general (often developing world) research on teacher professional development – the quality of which, in many cases, also is not verifiable. Where we were able to discern the provenance of the research (developing versus developed world; fragile versus non-fragile contexts) authors will make this clear. However, the reader should be aware that unless it references specific fragile contexts, much of the teacher professional development research in this guide comes from wealthier, industrialized contexts.

“Improved teacher professional development in itself is insufficient. It has to go hand in hand with planning for and tackling head-on challenges related to teacher pay, recruitment, motivation and retention.”

Rowan Salim,
Teacher and Education Consultant,
England

Though editors and authors recognize that there are a host of additional issues that germane to professional development – teacher recruitment, remuneration, teacher supply and demand, regulatory issues around teaching (particularly for refugee teachers in host countries), etc. – the focus of this guide remains on models and methods of teacher professional learning.

This guide is not the last word in teacher professional development in fragile contexts – it is a first step. As will be seen, this guide does not provide “the” answers to professional development in contexts of fragility. In many cases, like policymakers and planners, we too lack definitive answers for some of the most vexing questions facing teacher professional development, particularly within areas of conflict. However, what this guide does do is gather the collective wisdom of practitioners, complement and supplement this lived wisdom with research and data (where they exist), and present the findings of a specific group of practitioners with a range of experiences. Our hope is that this “modest proposal” will serve to galvanize more rigorous and long-term research in this important but under-theorized area.

Poorly qualified teachers, poorly performing teachers and the absence of or low-quality professional development are symptoms of weak educational systems. These systems are often characterized by low salaries, weak management and poor working conditions – conditions that serve to further suppress both teacher quality and effective teacher

education systems. Within such systems, even the best professional development is not a panacea – it cannot “fix” the broken education systems found in so many fragile contexts. It cannot compensate for people who are poorly paid, feel their work has no meaning, lack identity as teachers or are part of a dysfunctional system. It cannot compensate for teachers who face grave and acute physical dangers in the midst of a crisis situation.

But as our experts share repeatedly, and as research makes clear, in every phase of conflict or disaster, especially within the recovery phase, effective professional development is absolutely essential. It is essential for teachers in stable and wealthy countries. And it is even more essential for teachers in low-income and fragile ones, especially because many of them have received weak pre-service formation, because their students have the greatest academic and psychosocial needs and because these countries need so much help in order to make progress in their development targets.

Effective teacher professional development, though a central ingredient in improved teacher quality, must be part of a system of reforms that address issues of teacher selection, recruitment and preparation; teacher salary (INEE, 2009) and motivation issues; adequate teaching materials and resources; and functioning and effective leadership at every level of the educational system.

REFERENCES

- Burns, M. (2007). *Assessing teachers' professional development needs: Data from four Indian states*. Bangalore, India: Education Development Center, Inc.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1013-1055.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2009). *INEE guidance notes on teacher compensation in fragile states, situations of displacement and post-crisis recovery*. Retrieved from http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/INEEcms/uploads/files/GN_Teacher_Comp_2013_Eng.pdf
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2010). *Minimum Standards for education: Preparedness, response, recovery*. New York, NY: INEE.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2008). *TALIS 2008 technical report: Teaching and learning international survey*. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/16/14/44978960.pdf>
- Rice, J. K. (2003). *Teacher quality: Understanding the effects of teacher attributes*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Center.
- Sesnan, B., Allemano, E. P., Ndugga, H., & Said, S. (Eds.). (2013). *Educators in exile: The role and status of refugee teachers*. London, UK: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., & Adamson, F. (2010). *Professional development in the United States: Trends and challenges*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.



Copyright: Jane Hahn / Panos

II. FRAGILITY AND EDUCATION

KEY POINTS

- Fragility is not just armed conflict or post-conflict recovery. It has multiple causes and effects (conflict, gang violence, poverty, political instability, natural disaster, weak political systems, ethnic or religious conflict).
- Because it has multiple causes and effects, fragility affects schools, teachers and learners in different ways.
- Fragility disproportionately impacts the most poor and marginalized people in any society (including religious and ethnic minorities and women) and, by extension, the quality of education these children receive.
- High-poverty and institutionally weak areas are least well-equipped to resist the effects of fragile conditions on their education systems.

*Mary Burns, Education Development Center and
Silje Sjøvaag Skeie, Norwegian Refugee Council*

“We have been experiencing war and conflict for the past 40 years (not counting the regional wars that always have an effect on Lebanon). This has allowed the Lebanese education system to be very adaptive.”

Saouma BouJaoude, American University of Beirut, Lebanon

INTRODUCTION

This guide focuses on teacher learning/professional development within fragile contexts. “Fragility” encompasses a myriad of definitions – from conflict-affected and fragile states (CAFs) to failed and collapsed states to poorly performing or institutionally weak ones. While numerous agencies have their own definition of fragility (for instance, the United States Agency for International Development), this guide begins with and adapts the definition offered by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2006): *Fragile states are those that fail to provide basic services to low-income people because they are unwilling or unable to do so.*

THE IMPACT OF ARMED CONFLICT ON TEACHERS AND TEACHING

The most obvious and acute manifestation of fragility is armed conflict. Indeed, within the international education world, “fragility” is often synonymous with “armed conflict,” but as will be discussed in this chapter, the concept of “fragility” is, in fact, far more broad and multidimensional.

Fragility is often acute in nature, and its implications for education are far-reaching. In nearly every conflict² around the world, children, teachers or schools often become the targets of attacks. The United Nations estimates that 3,600 education facilities were attacked in 2012 alone (Save the Children, 2013). In Colombia, between 2009 and 2012, 140 teachers were killed and almost 1,100 threatened, according to that country’s Ministry of Education (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014, p. 14). In the first six months of 2013, Afghanistan experienced 40 attacks on schools, students and teachers. In Syria, two million children have dropped out of school in that nation’s civil war and 3,000 school buildings have been damaged or destroyed (Ibid, 2014; Ibid, 2013).

In many conflict-affected areas, teachers are a direct target of government forces, paramilitaries and non-state armed groups. In Gaza, in 2014, Palestinian schools were

The Conflicting Views of Conflict

There is no single accepted definition of a conflict-affected country and the definitions that do exist are often “nebulous, contested and problematic” (Bengtsson, 2011). For instance, which countries are “in conflict” may vary according to the source accessed. See, for example, UNESCO’s Education for All Global Monitoring Report (<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002216/221668E.pdf>) versus the Uppsala Index (http://www.pcr.uu.se/research/ucdp/datasets/ucdp_prio_armed_conflict_dataset/).

The Education for All Global Monitoring Report identifies a conflict-affected country as: “any country with 1,000 or more battle-related deaths over (a certain time period)” and “any country with more than 200 battle-related deaths in any one year” (UNESCO, 2011, p. 138). But in any one year, there are often more civilian-related deaths in countries not at war (Honduras) than those at war or in post-conflict recovery (Iraq).

2 At the time of this publication, Save the Children (2012) lists 32 countries as having some sort of armed conflict.

aerially bombed. Teachers are frequently exposed to intimidation, torture and persecution. They are killed in conflicts and often flee their communities because of fear of reprisals against them or their families. Documented attacks on teachers include “killings, disappearances, abductions, forced exile, imprisonment, torture, maiming, rape and sexual violence and the recruitment of child soldiers – all taking place in schools – as well as the destruction of educational buildings and materials” (Save the Children, 2013, p. 2). In nations like Syria, the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic, military takeovers of schools have made students, teachers and their school buildings vulnerable to attack from opposition forces and exposed teachers and students to violence and physical and sexual abuse (INEE Advocacy Group, 2012).

Armed conflict is one manifestation of fragility, and perhaps the most acute (or “crisis”) manifestation of fragility. But in post-conflict contexts, fragility can continue for years, decades or generations. War and conflicts may have severely damaged and/or destroyed community networks, linkages, social capital and trust among groups. An area of conflict may become almost Maslovian in nature, with many communities or regions having to focus on satisfying their most basic needs, like adequate food, shelter and physical safety, versus education. This often results in limited participation of parents and communities in improving the school environment for their children (Spink, 2004, p. 32). For most countries recovering from crisis, the main educational goal may simply be to get children back in school to show that things are “normal.” But educational priorities may end here. Teachers may still lack teaching expertise, basic teaching and learning materials and professional development opportunities, and they may continue to lack these because they are simply not priority areas in a recovering educational system (Spink, 2004).

When crisis hits and an education response is being established, efforts to recruit teachers from a displaced population often prove futile. As UNICEF (2005) notes, “In emergencies, qualified teachers are often unavailable, unready, or themselves suffering from the physical and psychological effects of the crisis.” (p. 230). Many teachers, perhaps part of an urban middle class, may have emigrated to another country at the beginning of a crisis. Teachers may have been targeted during the conflict and lost their lives, or they may have found other paid work, scholarships or even been resettled in

“Emergencies disrupt professional development but they also offer new opportunities to introduce new methods, content, practices; or revisit previous practices which need to be improved. Recognizing that teachers in the context of conflict or fragile situations also have limitations is important: teachers and other education staff are equally affected by the emergency. Teachers themselves need psychosocial support and should be provided with skills to recognize and provide basic psychosocial support to students.”

Tzvetomira Laub,
Senior Coordinator, INEE

“Militants are not only targeting the schools – especially the girls – but the teachers are also not allowed to teach in the conflict areas of Pakistan.”

Imtiaz Alam,
Higher Education Commission,
Pakistan

other locations. They may work with relief and humanitarian organizations in another professional capacity. Host countries for refugees may not recognize a teacher's professional credentials (Sesnan et al., 2013).

Combined with teacher retirement and what are often high rates of teacher attrition, the above situation presents a fundamental challenge: When there are no teachers, how do countries or regions restart their education system? Often, additional teachers need to be rapidly recruited among community members present at the emergency site (UNICEF, 2005, p. 230). In such situations, INEE's (2010) Minimum Standards underscores that systems should have "a sufficient number of appropriately qualified teachers" (p. 8), which may feel more like wishful thinking than a realistic requirement. And in such cases, how can the teaching force comply with the Minimum Standards' admonition that the teaching force should "reflect diversity and equity?"

MANIFESTATIONS OF FRAGILITY

"In a typical Gujarati secondary school there are at least 75 students crammed into a decrepit and dilapidated, dusty classroom equipped with maybe 20 desks and one small chalkboard. Teachers there feel hopeless in delivering innovative lessons. Their classes are too large, their time is too limited, and their resources are non-existent. In fact, they spend much of the class period disciplining troublemakers and managing the large group in an over-sized class with a plethora of learning styles, behavioral issues and interest levels..."

Emily Richardson, Teachers College, Columbia University, USA

The previous section discusses the most common and acute manifestation of fragility in conflict and post-conflict societies. But fragility doesn't always announce itself with a bang; sometimes it manifests itself in a whisper. Thus, a few caveats about fragility are in order as they impact discussions of teacher professional development in this guide.

First, "fragility" is not monolithic and can assume many forms. Lebanon, Honduras and Pakistan are all fragile environments— but their fragility arises from a diversity of situations – post-conflict (and some would say, pre-conflict), organized crime and gang violence and a weak and poorly functioning state, respectively, and perhaps even cumulatively. Similarly, there is great diversity among fragile contexts. For instance, in refugee contexts, one sees great differences in preparation and quality among, say, Iraqi and Syrian teachers versus those from the Central African Republic or South Sudan.

"My students are mothers and fathers. They are working full-time jobs and some sell drugs to survive. They don't know their fathers or sometimes even their mothers. They carry guns to protect themselves on their way to school, if they come at all. My students have been arrested and murdered. They see people shot and killed in their neighborhoods on a weekly basis. I grew up five miles from where these kids live, but I feel like we grew up on different planets."

Mary Burns, 1990, in a letter about her Boston school

Second, “fragility” is often relative within a particular context. Many fragile states – Syria, Lebanon, Honduras and Colombia – are middle-income countries. There are fragile regions in non-fragile and wealthy countries; and a thriving, but still tenuous post-conflict city, like Belfast, can be considered fragile. In the United States, for example, many urban core areas – plagued by unemployment, drugs, poverty, violence and a lack of hope – are themselves “fragile” and have education indicators more representative of a least-developed versus a developed country. Indeed, as an example, one of the authors (Mary) worked in an inner-city US school in which teachers were regularly attacked or threatened, male students murdered and incarcerated, a plurality of female students pregnant or already mothers, and the school plagued by gang violence from competing housing projects. This school was located in a rich US city, but its students had more in common with students in low-income communities in Latin America than they did with their wealthy American counterparts in the suburbs of Boston.

Inner cities aside, wealthy countries in Europe and the US often deal with the ramifications of regional fragility, as they are a destination for those fleeing conflict. In the 2014-2015 academic year, the US Office of Refugee Settlement estimates that more than 30,000 Central American refugee children, most fleeing gang violence in Honduras and El Salvador, will enter US schools.³ Many US teachers will now face the same professional challenges as their counterparts in Kenya, Uganda, Thailand, India, Ethiopia and Pakistan – providing a basic education to thousands of displaced children who have acute psychological, health and learning needs, who may have little or no prior education and who do not speak the language of instruction.

Fragility can often be geographically, and therefore demographically, biased. In middle-income Ecuador, indigenous populations in Andean communities and in the Amazon who live in areas of natural and physical vulnerability, who lack access to infrastructure and who are often linguistically and culturally marginalized, might arguably be classified as living in “fragile” contexts. Native American reservations in the United States have rates of teacher turnover, school violence, student dropout and low academic achievement that rival or exceed those of low-income countries.⁴ In low-income, but seemingly stable, Sub-Saharan African countries, rural areas, often lacking institutions and the capacity to provide basic services to local populations, may be deemed fragile. Indeed, across many parts of Africa, Asia and Latin America, rural teachers are especially vulnerable – often lacking access to pre-service preparation, in-service training or in-service support (Adedeji & Olaniyan, 2011). And across the globe, as the vignettes in Figure 2, make clear, teachers in areas of conflict and high poverty are vulnerable to violence on an almost daily basis.

3 See <http://www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/orr/programs/ucs/state-by-state-uc-placed-sponsors>.

4 For an example of such statistics, see http://www.nrcprograms.org/site/PageServer?pagename=press_reservation. The author has visited the South Dakota's Pine Ridge reservation on several occasions. It is the second largest in the US and has teacher turnover rates that are 8 times higher than the US average. See http://www.backpacksforpineridge.com/Stats_About_Pine_Ridge.html.

Figure 2: Attacks on teachers

*“In **Colombia**, 22 teachers were killed in 10 departments in 2010. According to government sources, non-state armed groups, including the Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia – Ejército del Pueblo (FARC-EP), Los Rastrojos, Los Urabeños and Los Paisas, have threatened teachers leading community initiatives against sexual violence and child recruitment” (Save the Children, 2013, p. 9).*

*“In **Syria**, official Ministry of Education data reports that 222 teachers and other educational personnel were recorded as having been killed since the conflict began” (Save the Children, 2013, p. 9).*

*“In the **United States**, the Department of Education reports that in the 2007-2008 school year, 127,120 public school teachers were physically attacked at school – hit, kicked, bitten, punched, stabbed or shot. Another 222,460 teachers were threatened by students with acts of violence” (National Education Association, 2011).*

*“In the **United Kingdom**, the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL) reports that in 2008, 39% of teachers were confronted by an aggressive parent or guardian, and approximately 25% of teachers endured physical violence from a student” (Lipsett, 2009).*

Third, fragility has institutional and human dimensions. It is important to note that poverty and violence can result in societal fragility as well as institutional and personal fragility. For example, the impact of conflict or natural disasters is greater in low-income contexts because they have fewer resources to counteract the attacks or for recovery. There is less capacity (UNESCO, 2010, p. 98). Poor countries with weak institutional systems can be overwhelmed and incapacitated by drugs, crime, gangs and violence (Central American nations such as Honduras, El Salvador and Guatemala are emblematic of this). In Latin America and the Caribbean, school violence is one of the most serious issues impacting educational quality (Muggah & Aguirre, 2013). In addition, poor, ostensibly “non-fragile” countries or regions can be thrust into fragility through natural disasters such as earthquakes, cyclones or tsunamis (such as Banda Aceh, Indonesia, following the devastating 2004 earthquake and tsunami or New Orleans following Hurricane Katrina in 2005).

“Educationally fragile contexts are those that fail to provide appropriate basic educational support and services to students and teachers because they are unwilling or unable to do so.”

Bird, 2007, p. 2

Finally, some populations are more vulnerable than others within conditions of fragility – women, religious and cultural minorities, migrants, refugees and displaced populations are but a few of these groups. Female teachers, in particular, often have lower status, operate within more rigid boundaries and have less formal and institutional power than

their male counterparts.⁵ Because their status and position in society and school is different, their professional needs are often different from those of their male colleagues (Kirk, 2008, p. 81; Ashra, 2013). Finally, as the attempted assassination of Malala Yousafzai – a young Pakistani girl who defied the Taliban and pursued her education – and the 2014 kidnappings of Nigerian school girls by Boko Haram demonstrate, in many parts of the globe, children – especially girls – who want to partake in one of the most fundamental rites of childhood – going to school – are also highly vulnerable.

With these caveats in mind, this guide defines fragility expansively versus narrowly and attempts to understand local contexts of fragility, drawing on resources, expertise and examples from a variety of fragile contexts to understand how they impact teacher issues around professional development. Each context of fragility is different and, within them, teacher abilities and needs will be different. However, what they all have in common is a severely weakened education system. Poorly functioning educational delivery systems, a lack of resources, limited human capacity, low status and salaries, poor management (including recruitment, selection, deployment, career advancement, motivation, incentives and retention of and for teachers) (Dembélé & Rogers, 2013, p. 174), poor working conditions and poor educational outcomes result in a teaching force that is high-risk for non-compliance of duties, attrition, poor performance, poor well-being and demotivation. This, in turn, further weakens the overall system and denigrates the quality of teaching and learning.

This broad definition of fragility matters from a pragmatic teacher professional development perspective for two reasons. First, there is a dearth of empirical research on quality professional development from “traditionally” defined fragile contexts – areas of armed conflict, of internally displaced and external refugee populations and emergencies. By limiting our understanding of fragility to areas of conflict and acute emergencies, we foreclose access to research, models, interventions and experiences from other contexts (US inner-city schools or migrant border communities, Shia communities in south Beirut, or newly recovering conflict areas within wealthier countries like Northern Ireland) that may have potential cross-over and spillover to “traditionally” fragile locations.

Second, it acknowledges the tremendous variation in teacher preparation and quality and educational delivery we see across fragile settings and allows us to draw from a broader range of examples and research, hopefully, in time, resulting in the creation of multiple models of TPD in a variety of fragile contexts (e.g., conflict, high poverty, marginalization, post-conflict, post-natural disaster, etc.).

The next section of this guide begins to outline some of the challenges facing teacher professional development in fragile settings with the hope that once identified, policymakers and planners can begin to close this gap in terms of the skills and knowledge that teachers need to help students in such fragile systems become successful learners.

5 For suggestions on addressing issues facing girls and women as learners and teachers, see INEE's Pocket Guide to Gender: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Pocket Guide to Gender:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>

REFERENCES

- Adedeji, S. O., & Olaniyan. O. (2011). *Improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools across African countries*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: UNESCO.
- Ashra, D. (2013). Women teaching and leading in Pakistan: Exploring the challenges and possibilities. In J. Kirk, M. Dembélé & S. Baxter (Eds.), *More and better teachers for quality education for all: Identity and motivation, systems and support* (pp. 165-173). Retrieved from http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/more-and-better-teaching_september-2013.pdf
- Bengtsson, S. E. L. (2011). Fragile states, fragile concepts: A critical reflection on the terminology of fragility in the field of education in emergencies. In J. Paulson (Ed.), *Education, conflict and development symposium* (pp. 33-58). Oxford, UK: Symposium Books Ltd.
- Bird, L. (2007). *Children in crisis: Education rights for children in conflict affected and fragile states*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001555/155578e.pdf>
- Dembélé, M., & Rogers, F. H. (2013). More and better teachers: Making the slogan a reality. In J. Kirk, M. Dembélé & S. Baxter (Eds.), *More and better teachers for quality education for all: Identity and motivation, systems and support* (pp. 174-180). Retrieved from http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/more-and-better-teaching_september-2013.pdf
- Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack. (2014). *Education under attack 2014*. Retrieved from http://protectingeducation.org/sites/default/files/documents/eua_2014_full_0.pdf
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies Advocacy Group. (2012). *Education cannot wait* [PDF document]. Retrieved from http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/Education_Cannot_Wait_presentation_for_INEE_WGEF.pdf
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2010). *Minimum standards for education: Preparedness, response, recovery*. New York, NY: INEE.
- Kirk, J. (2008). Impossible fiction: The lived experiences of women teachers. In J. Kirk (Ed.), *Women teaching in South Asia* (pp. 56-86). New Delhi, India: Sage.
- Lipsett, A. (2009, April 6). Abuse of teachers by parents and pupils on the rise, says survey. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theguardian.com/education/2009/apr/06/teachers-abuse-violence-pupils-parents>
- Ministerio de Educación del Gobierno del Ecuador, Subsecretaría de Desarrollo Profesional Educativo. (2013). *Proyecto de creación de la Universidad Nacional de Educación estructura orgánico funcional*. Quito, Ecuador: Ministerio de Educación del Gobierno del Ecuador.

- Muggah, R., & Aguirre, K. (2013). *Assessing and responding to youth violence in Latin America: Surveying the evidence*. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil: Igarapé Institute.
- National Education Association. (2011, February). When educators are assaulted. *NEA Today*. Retrieved from <http://www.nea.org/home/42238.htm>
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2006). *Integrating human rights into development: Donor approaches, experiences and challenges*. Paris, France: OECD
- Save the Children. (2013). *Attacks on education: The impact of conflict and grave violations on children's futures*. London, UK: Save the Children.
- Sesnan, B., Allemanno, E. P., Ndugga, H., & Said, S. (Eds.). (2013). *Educators in exile: The role and status of refugee teachers*. London, UK: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Spink, J. (2004). *Situational analysis: Teacher education and professional development in Afghanistan*. Kabul, Afghanistan: Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit.
- UNICEF. (2005). *Emergency field handbook: A guide for UNICEF staff*. Retrieved from: http://www.unicef.org/lac/emergency_handbook.pdf
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2010). *Education under attack 2010*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2011). *The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education. Education for all global monitoring report 2011*. Paris, France: UNESCO.



Copyright: Mark Kaye / Save the Children

III. THE ABSENCE OF CHALK: TEACHING, LEARNING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN FRAGILE CONTEXTS

KEY POINTS

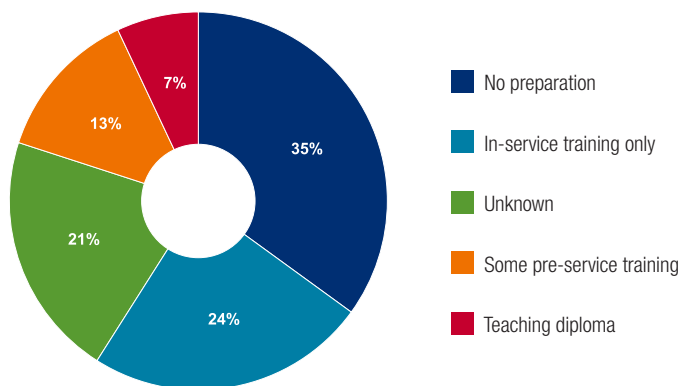
- Fragility (long term, protracted, or episodic in nature) has adverse impacts on quality education and learning and presents substantial barriers to teachers and teacher development.
- In emergencies, qualified teachers are often unavailable, unprepared or suffering from the physical and psychological effects of crisis.
- Poor working conditions adversely impact teachers' sense of identity and pride in their profession, weaken teacher confidence in terms of applying new learning and contribute to the reluctance to change.
- Teachers in fragile contexts further suffer from poor professional development, dysfunctional systems and the direct impact of conflict.

*Mary Burns, Education Development Center;
Hannah Snowden, UNESCO South Sudan;
Silje Sjøvaag Skeie, Norwegian Refugee Council;
Saouma BouJaoude, the American University of Beirut*

“Sometimes we buy it ourselves, but when salaries are delayed that’s not possible.” Mr. Victor Tom, the geography teacher at Juba Girls Secondary School in Juba, South Sudan discusses the school’s limited chalk supply. Trying to identify something these schools do have can be difficult, as the list of “don’ts” is overwhelming. Even in this school, in the center of the capital of this new country that boasts stone-built classrooms and relatively privileged students, teachers’ experience of professional development reflects the national education crisis.⁶

⁶ To learn more about issues surrounding the compensation of teachers, see INEE’s Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation in Fragile States, Situations of Displacement and Post-Crisis Recovery: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>.

Figure 3: Percentage of primary school teachers by type of training in South Sudan, 2011 (Source: EMIS, 2011)



South Sudan, a nation born of conflict with the larger nation of Sudan, epitomizes the very notion of a fragile nation. The Ministry of General Education and Instruction mandates that primary school teachers should have completed grade 8, while secondary school teachers should have completed secondary school.

Yet, as South Sudan's own official data show (See Figure 3), fewer than half of its 23,025 teachers have received formal training to become teachers. USAID (2009) data are even grimmer, reporting that 96 percent of teachers lack any formal teaching qualification. While oil revenues remain untapped, the government of South Sudan struggles to cover the costs needed to run the country's eight teacher training institutes. Half of all teachers' training colleges are abandoned – a sight at odds with the desperate need to produce more teachers to keep up with increases in school enrolment and achieve Education for All. Approximately 8,000 of the country's 28,000 teachers work on an informal basis and are typically paid through school fees, which keep many children out of school. Even highly trained teachers face an impossible task in the classroom: Teacher-student ratios are as high as 1:106 in some parts of the country. The national ratio of qualified teachers to students is 1:117, and the lack of female teachers perpetuates the challenge of enrolling and retaining girls in school.⁷

⁷ For suggestions to tackle barriers faced by girls and young women specifically, review INEE's Pocket Guide to Gender: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>, as well as the resources in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1059>.

South Sudan, like all fragile contexts, is Maslovian in terms of its needs. The lack of teaching materials, textbooks, stationary and supplies eclipses talk of the need for professional development in South Sudan. There are few in-service and pre-service programs, and teacher professional development to date has failed to have any significant impact on getting teachers into the classroom (USAID, 2009). Only a handful of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) work on issues of teacher training.

The only related opportunity offered to the teachers of Juba Girls Secondary School is language training. Most of the country's trained teachers are certified under the Arabic system. The recent transition to English as the medium of instruction in schools symbolizes separation from the former regime, but few teachers are fluent enough to translate subject knowledge and share this with students who themselves grow up speaking one of the country's 66 national languages. Even language courses have not been attended by all teachers and, as with most teacher training opportunities in South Sudan, secondary teachers are last on the list as an emphasis on primary enrolment has left other levels neglected.

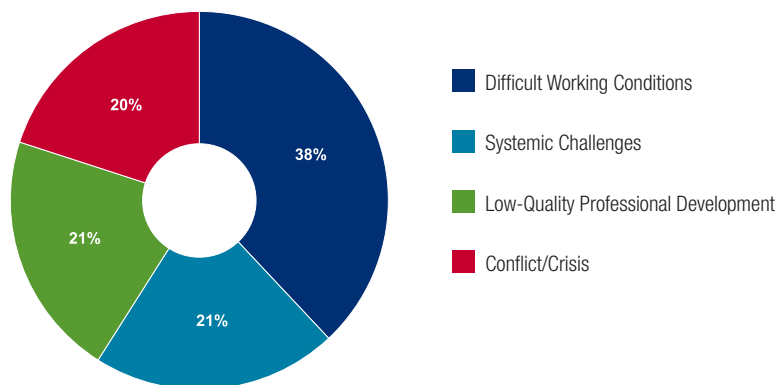
As South Sudan vividly evokes, teachers in many fragile contexts never receive the most basic preparation needed to carry out the most rudimentary activities associated with teaching. In many fragile contexts, there is no clear policy or path for the professional development of teachers. A regional assessment of 15 countries conducted by the Southern African Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), for example, found that a significant percentage of students in the Southern African region are being taught by teachers with less than a junior secondary school qualification. A 2007 UNICEF survey in Somalia noted that 13 percent of Somalia's almost 14,000 teachers had a teacher training diploma and 48 percent had a secondary education certificate (Mononye, 2012). In developing countries, teachers often receive little instruction in the practical applications of teaching and little supervised instruction and feedback in teaching, thereby creating a large gap between theory and actual classroom practice (Reiser, 2013).⁸

BARRIERS TO TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN FRAGILE CONTEXTS

Teachers in fragile contexts like South Sudan face formidable impediments in accessing pre-service preparation, in-service training, in-service support, or indeed opportunities for learning. This lack of initial training and in-service professional development (PD) results in instruction that is routine and ineffective. This, in turn, results in a lack of learner engagement and overall poor educational delivery. Figure 4 illustrates *TPD in Crisis* authors' and participants' categorization of these barriers.

⁸ To learn more about teacher recruitment, training and support, see Domain 3: Teaching and Learning and Domain 4: Teachers and Other Education Personnel in the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>.

Figure 4: What are the major barriers to teacher learning in fragile contexts? (Chart displays percentages of *TPD in Crisis* author and participant responses to this question)



The remainder of this chapter discusses the barriers presented in Figure 4 in greater detail. We do so with the belief that making explicit and unpacking these categories (about which we often have tacit and broad knowledge) and understanding the specific details associated with each barrier will help us begin to design new or adjust existing professional development systems accordingly and take into consideration such barriers when designing future professional development opportunities for teachers.

1. Difficult working conditions: By far, the greatest barrier to accessing opportunities for professional learning, according to *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants, is the difficult conditions in which teachers work. Lack of – or irregular, delayed or low – remuneration, overcrowded classrooms, the potential for sexual harassment or abuse, a lack of respect from school leaders and community members, violence and intimidation by students and co-workers, and a dearth of teaching and learning materials are some of the barriers teachers in fragile contexts face, according to authors and participants. Simply put, many teachers in fragile contexts, especially those who have been victims of physical and sexual violence, suffer from high rates of depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). These conditions, alone or in combination with one another, often prompt teachers to look for alternative work or demotivate teachers to work hard or partake of any additional efforts (such as professional development).

In addition to being highly demotivating, the above conditions may impact teachers on three important fronts, all of which are critical to effective teaching performance. The first is their identity as teachers. As Kirk and Winthrop (2013) note, “many teachers in fragile contexts may never have planned or wanted to become teachers in the first place and, therefore, may lack a strong professional identity” (p. 124) or the desire to strengthen that identity, even in places where respect for teachers is high and where education is seen as important and even restorative, such as in Haiti following the 2010 earthquake.

The second area is efficacy – teachers’ own self-efficacy and that of their students. Efficacy beliefs form the basis for performance expectations so that the teacher who considers herself/himself more competent tends to perceive greater control over the teaching/learning process. Yet, depending on the type and duration of professional development, even where teachers receive pre-service instruction or training and professional support, they may continue to lack confidence in their own abilities as teachers. They may continue to doubt their own efficacy, potentially further undermining the quality of teaching and learning.

The third area is in terms of openness to change. Teacher obstacles to change arise from a multitude of factors. First, teachers suffer from what Lortie (1975) called “the apprenticeship of observation.” As students themselves, teachers have, for years, observed what teaching “is.” This image – often at odds with what professional development promotes – is often ingrained in teacher beliefs and difficult to shed. Next, teachers, so exhausted and worn down by the conditions in which they work and live, may resist change or new ideas of any sort because they are trying simply to survive, above all emotionally, in the face of so much adversity. Finally, change and innovations are often imposed by external agents. The innovation that teachers are asked to adopt – especially instructional methods – may not conform to, and may even conflict with, local cultural and communication practices.

“The lack of motivation and effort we often see in very poor environments is a completely rational response to larger dysfunction. To state the obvious but overlooked – it is not simply teachers who are unmotivated. It is principals, administrators and government officials – we find this lack of motivation at every level of the educational system. It isn’t simply salary (though that is part of it) or status (that is part, too) or crushing bureaucracies, but autonomy, meaning, control, being poorly trained, under-resourced, dealing with hundreds of kids in a class, sexual harassment or even violence against female teachers. The list goes on. What amazes me is that despite all of these barriers to motivation and the factors that sap motivation, so many teachers actually show up every day and do their jobs to the best of their abilities.”

Mary Burns,
Education Development Center,
USA

2. Low-quality professional development: In many post-conflict environments, what professional development does exist for teachers is often piecemeal versus sustained and intensive. It often occurs only on a short-term basis and is sometimes disconnected from policies around teacher recruitment, assessment, retention, support and compensation. Professional development is not explicitly aligned with broad ministry goals and strategies. It often does not take into account the tenets of adult learning.⁹ It does not focus on nurturing supportive working relationships and networks among teachers. While teacher training in many fragile systems can bridge some gaps in terms of the quality and relevance of pre-service teacher education, it often fails to foster the skills teachers need to respond to particular learning needs and psychosocial needs of children (UNESCO, 2014). It may be perceived, especially by teachers, as being of low quality.

Based on authors' and participants' observations and additional research, "low-quality" professional development encompasses four specific areas. These are design, delivery, structure and support/services, and they are discussed below:

- **Design:** Design issues include instruction that is the same for all teachers regardless of their actual classroom conditions and needs (a standardized, or more negatively, "one-size-fits all approach" also mentioned below); and professional development that lacks relevance, is unaligned with national goals, is not contextual and does not take into account the needs of adult learners or learners who have been affected by natural or manmade emergencies. Research on teacher professional development in Afghanistan (Spink, 2004), for example, found that professional development is often based, not on research-proven practices but on anecdotal evidence and ideology that focuses more on "appropriate" behaviors for teachers rather than student learning. Finally, professional development may fail to take into consideration that many teachers are often themselves the victims of the aforementioned violence, assault, intimidation and abuse.
- **Delivery:** Delivery issues include a lack of modeling of the desired behavioral outcome or intended practice; professional development that is highly didactic and fails to demonstrate good practice versus hands-on and support-based; and professional development carried out by poorly qualified and poorly trained instructors. Delivery issues also include an over-reliance on only one "format" for teacher training – the ubiquitous training or workshop; and one approach to capacity building – the "cascade" or "train-the-trainers" model. These standardized professional development programs risk neglecting rural teachers and often ignore opportunities to harness existing innovation, which can abound in crisis contexts.
- **Structure:** Structural issues involve issues of duration, location, time and number – that is, professional development that is not long enough or intensive enough (for example, a week-long workshop versus sustained instruction or in-service

9 This includes relevance to one's context, a focus on teachers' goal orientations, learning that is practical (versus theoretical) and learning that taps into teachers' prior knowledge.

mentoring over a period of months); professional development that takes place, not in the teachers' schools but in a centralized location that bears no reality to the teacher's place of work; too many teachers in a workshop; and a focus on the cascade approach, which tends toward demonstration versus hands-on practice and follow-up support. This also includes professional development that is highly fragmented – organized by many different and independent actors (such as Non-Governmental Organizations) versus being coordinated by a national authority on teacher professional development.

- **Support/Services:** Support and services issues touch on monitoring, coaching or ongoing follow-up, almost all of which are lacking for teachers in fragile contexts. In refugee settings where qualified teachers are in short supply, teachers are recruited directly from refugee communities with no teacher training or experience, sometimes with low levels of education themselves.

As UNHCR (2014) notes, this may be particularly true “in refugee settings [where] a significant capacity gap exists in provision of school-based in-service support to teachers (including peer observation, collaboration, coaching and mentoring) and therefore limits the effect and investment of teacher training. To address this capacity gap, refugee teacher training modules need to be accompanied by a secondary layer of guidance and training for teacher educators to build capacity for effective school-based, in-service support to teachers.”

Teacher support, such as coaching, which is so critical to successful implementation of innovations, is perceived as “expensive” and thus is not integrated into existing teacher professional development programs. If “support” exists, it is typically conflated with evaluation, particularly when conducted by administrators; is often haphazard, infrequent and irregular; or increasingly, human supports are replaced by text messaging and/or phone calls. Because of this lack of ongoing follow-up and support, there is a great deal of leakage as teachers rarely implement what they have learned.

3. Systematic challenges: Systematic challenges include leadership; understanding of teacher needs in the given context and circumstances; the need for high-quality professional development, administrative capacity and budget; and the existence of coordination between entities, agencies, departments or personnel that design, coordinate or oversee issues related to teacher professional development. As noted in the previous chapter, many very low-income countries (whether experiencing conflict or not) are unable to provide teachers with salaries and working

“Teachers in conflict zones are among those most in need of a coherent strategy to upgrade their skills... Refugee teachers are ineligible for admission to higher education institutions in Kenya, and so require alternative qualification options. A teacher management and development strategy for 2013–2015 aims to provide them with training, including school-based practice. The strategy also recommends qualification and certification options for teachers who meet minimum higher education admission requirements, as well as options for the majority who do not meet the requirements.”

UNESCO, 2014, p. 27

conditions or professional opportunities that one finds in other professions. Many fragile contexts lack qualified personnel who can help teachers master content or research-proven instructional or assessment strategies, for example, and they lack systems and incentives to encourage and help teachers to improve their practice.

Where some form of professional development does exist, its effects may be nullified by problems related to coordination between the entities that deal with teacher education or between entities that evaluate teachers. Additionally, there are often problems with the quality and variety of the tools used to observe/supervise teachers and provide them with feedback about their teaching.

- **Conflict:** Countries in conflict house half of the world's out-of-school children (UNESCO, 2014). In areas of conflict, opportunities for teacher professional development are often unavailable and, indeed, often inconceivable (holding classes for students, never mind teachers, is often challenging). Even when and where professional development opportunities exist, it simply may be too dangerous for teachers to attend them, even if they want to. Female teachers, in particular, may be at very high risk for rape or other forms of sexual assault or harassment. Professional development providers may be seen as too closely aligned with an unpopular government, in the case of civil conflict, and thus are potential targets. Infrastructure, such as roads, electricity, cellular networks, Internet and phone landlines may be destroyed, thus making even distance learning for teachers difficult or impossible. Additionally, professional development offered to one social group at the exclusion of another may actually contribute to the exacerbation of tensions and/or violence.¹⁰

Increasingly, even in countries that are not in conflict, but in areas of the globe with very high incidents of urban violence (for example, Kingston, San Pedro Sula, Michoacán, Guayaquil, Johannesburg), teachers may not avail themselves of professional development opportunities, especially those after school hours because of fears of violence. This link between crime and violence, as well as the lack of teachers' access to formal educational opportunities, is increasingly being recognized (Novelli & Lopes Cardozo, 2008).

10 For more guidance on conflict-sensitive education, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>. To learn more about implementing professional development opportunities for teachers in fragile contexts, see the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 3: Teaching and Learning, Standard 2: Training, Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>. Also see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning, Section 2: Training, Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

CONCLUSION

Fragility results in a teaching force that is at high-risk for attack or violence, non-compliance with professional duties, absenteeism, poor performance and demotivation. Teacher motivation is a particularly critical component in effective educational systems since it is linked to improved teaching performance, implementation of educational innovations and lower absenteeism and attrition. Motivated teachers are more likely to implement educational reforms and less likely to be absent and/or leave the teaching profession (Jesus & Conboy, 2001).

The stakes for improving quality of education through teacher professional development are particularly high in low-income contexts. Research suggests that a well-trained and qualified teacher is the single greatest school-level predictor of student academic achievement in wealthy and poor countries alike (Burns, 2011). In the US, teacher quality is estimated to account for 23 percent of variation in student test scores; in Sub-Saharan Africa, it accounts for 27 percent of student achievement (Rockoff, 2004).

Fragility – whether it is extreme poverty, crime, conflict, political instability or a natural disaster – adversely impacts teacher well-being, teacher performance and the availability to and quality of professional learning that teachers receive as this chapter has outlined. But these barriers must be addressed. The crisis state of professional development in fragile contexts does not simply affect a nation's educational system – it affects its economic well-being and its stability (Blank & de las Alas, 2009; Hattie, 2009; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2009). While education may contribute to conflict, it also contributes to social transformation and stability. Qualified and well-trained teachers and, therefore, a quality teacher education system, are crucial for stabilizing the education system and preventing grievances that may lead to conflict (INEE, 2013).¹¹

The problems with the type and quality of professional development outlined here and the failure of professional development to produce measurable degrees of educational improvement or significant gains in student achievement have prompted some policy makers and donors to abandon their faith in professional development as a vehicle for measurable improvement of student outcomes. But we must not throw the proverbial baby out with the bath water – that is, abandon teacher learning in the face of adversity of disappointment. Rather, as authors and participants in the INEE *TPD in Crisis* forum have noted, professional development in fragile contexts must be re-conceptualized and re-designed. The remainder of this guide outlines key recommendations from the *TPD in Crisis* discussion series for doing so.

11 For more guidance on conflict-sensitive education, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards for Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>

INEE Pocket Guide to Gender:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>

INEE Toolkit- Gender Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1059>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>

REFERENCES

- Blank, R. K., & De las Alas, N. (2009). *Effects of teacher professional development on gains in student achievement: How meta analysis provides scientific evidence useful to education leaders*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Burns, M. (2011). *Distance education for teacher training: Modes, models and methods*. Retrieved from <http://go.edc.org/07xd>
- Hanushek, E. A., & Woessmann, L. (2009). *Do better schools lead to more growth? Cognitive skills, economic, outcomes, and causation*. Retrieved from http://www.nber.org/papers/w14633.pdf?new_window=1
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2013). *INEE guidance note on conflict sensitive education*. New York, NY: INEE.
- Jesus, S. N., & Conboy, J. (2001). A stress management course to prevent teacher distress. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(3), 131-137.
- Kirk, J., & Winthrop, R. (2013). Teaching in contexts of emergency and state fragility. In J. Kirk, M. Dembélé & S. Baxter (Eds.), *More and better teachers for quality education for all: Identity and motivation, systems and support* (pp. 121-139). Retrieved from http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/more-and-better-teaching_september-2013.pdf

- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study of teaching*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Mononye, C. (2012). Teacher migration and education in conflict and post-conflict countries: Experience from Somalia. In J. Penson & A. Yonemura (Eds.), *Next steps in managing teacher migration: Papers of the sixth Commonwealth Research Symposium on teacher mobility, recruitment and migration: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 8–9 June 2011* (pp.94-100). Paris, France: UNESCO and London, UK: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Novelli, M., & Lopes Cardozo, M. T. A. (2008). Conflict, education and the global south: New critical directions. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28(4), 473-488. doi: 10.1016/j.ijeducdev.2008.01.004
- Reiser, R. (2013, February). *Teacher education for children with disabilities: A literature review*. Retrieved from http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/docs/Teacher_education_for_children_disabilities_litreview.pdf
- Rockoff, J. E. (2004). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *American Economic Review* 94(2), 247–252.
- Spink, J. (2004). *Situational analysis: Teacher education and professional development in Afghanistan*. Kabul, Afghanistan: Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for all global monitoring report 2013/4*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2014, July 1). *World: Teacher training specialist (consultancy)* [Job listing]. Retrieved from http://www.unpostings.com/jobs/other/world-teacher-training-specialist-consultancy.html#.U9_Y_6OTKNw
- United States Agency for International Development (USAID). (2009). *The status of teacher professional development in Southern Sudan*. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADT230.pdf



IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

- **Recommendation 1:** Focus on teachers in fragile contexts – as professionals, learners and individuals.
- **Recommendation 2:** Develop, apply, measure and institutionalize standards for teacher professional development.
- **Recommendation 3:** Create professional development opportunities that promote teacher collaboration.
- **Recommendation 4:** Provide teachers with ongoing support.
- **Recommendation 5:** Invest in high-quality teacher educators.
- **Recommendation 6:** Build instructional leadership at all levels of the educational system.
- **Recommendation 7:** Use ICT to provide access to content, professional development and professional learning communities.



Copyright: Anna Kari / Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 1: FOCUS ON TEACHERS IN FRAGILE CONTEXTS – AS PROFESSIONALS, LEARNERS AND INDIVIDUALS

KEY POINTS

- To raise both teacher quality and the quality of teacher professional development (TPD) in fragile contexts, educational planners and implementers must focus on teachers as professionals, as individuals, as members of a community and as people coping with the effects of crisis or conflict or fragility.
- Donors and policymakers should engage in a rigorous process of reflection on the current state of teacher professional development, work together to establish international standards on quality teaching and develop strategies for improved TPD with sufficient funding.
- Despite the impulse to rapidly scale, research is increasingly clear that successful TPD should be adapted to context and culture.
- Fragility-specific TPD, such as programs that utilize a group-based approach and psychosocial supports, should be offered to teachers.
- We must see teachers, as we do students, as learners and design professional development that focuses on best practices and offers accommodations and supports that promote, not impede, teacher learning.

*Mary Burns, Education Development Center;
Carol Taylor, Institute of Education, University of London;
K. Victoria Dimock, SEDL;
Hannah Snowden, UNESCO;
Deborah Haines, Independent consultant (UK)*

“The critical issue missing from the conversation is the incentives that teachers must have to actually change their practices. Change theory and incentives theory tell us that people will not make changes in their habits unless they are incentivized to do so. In situations with so few monetary rewards available, and those available coming at irregular/inconsistent intervals, how can teachers be inspired to change their ways, to put in the huge amounts of extra work to change their practices in the classrooms?”

Jeffrey Dow, The Schools Project, Afghanistan

“I think we know how to improve teacher PD, but I think there is a serious lack of will.”

John Morefield, Independent consultant, USA

“I am a teacher and I sit in seminars, read articles on quality education, then go back to class, and continue doing the normal business the way it is done! What is the problem? The curriculum does not change until there are numerous sittings by, more often than not, the ‘wrong’ people. The review that is done is by and large with good intentions but as the changes trickle down to classes, they meet tired teachers who are only informed about the changes via circulars from the ministry of education. No seminars on how to implement, no updated materials to give direction or even in-service courses for the teachers.”

Mary, Teacher, Kenya

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed barriers to effective professional development in fragile contexts. This chapter begins to propose suggestions for addressing such barriers.

We begin this chapter with the same statement with which we ended the previous one – deliberately so. A quality teacher is critical to a quality education for a child. Simply put, when we improve the quality of teaching, we improve learning outcomes for children (Hattie, 2009). But, high-quality teaching demands high-quality professional development, and this does not happen ex nihilo. High-quality professional development requires careful attention, planning, time and resources, as will be discussed in greater detail throughout this guide.

However, the need to enhance their knowledge and upgrade their skills is more urgent for teachers in areas of extreme fragility, as in conflict zones. In many refugee settings where qualified teachers are in short supply, emergency teachers are recruited directly from refugee communities with no teacher training or experience, and often with low levels of education and academic content knowledge themselves. For example, in the Dadaab refugee camp in northern Kenya, 90 percent of teachers are hired from the refugee community, but only 2 percent are qualified (UNESCO, 2014, p. 27). In many parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, many teachers have been hired as community or contract teachers with no pre-service teacher education or prior exposure to the classroom

(UNESCO, 2014). Even “middle-income” countries face shortages of qualified teachers. Ecuador’s Ministry of Education estimates that 67 percent of that middle-income nation’s teachers are technically “unqualified” (Ministerio de Educación, 2013).

What is often most striking about teachers in fragile contexts is their invisibility – in decisions that impact their livelihood, their personal well-being and their professional performance. The first recommendation from INEE’s forum, *TPD in Crisis*, is this: Within fragile contexts, policymakers, education officials and designers of professional development must focus on teachers – (1) as *professionals*, (2) as *learners* who deserve proven and (3) contextualized professional learning and supports and (4) as *human beings* dealing with the consequences of crisis or conflict.

Each of these is discussed in detail below.

1. Professionalize the teaching force

In many, if not most, places around the globe, teachers suffer from low status vis-à-vis other professions. In many fragile contexts, teachers are often not trained or even paid. In many other environments, teachers may be illiterate or unable to teach in the national language. Teachers are often seen as the problem, not the solution. These are issues that plague the poorest of contexts (in contrast to, for example, middle-income fragile contexts where teacher knowledge and level of training may be quite high). Unfortunately, many who work with teachers – decision makers, NGO staff, educational planners – often unwittingly internalize this larger lack of understanding and respect for teachers.

Educators and educational decision makers, whether at the donor, ministerial, district, school or refugee camp level, must shift their own views on teachers. They must begin to view teachers as professionals – and treat them as such. In many places, this may include improving teacher pay or giving teachers extra pay for extra work. In contexts where teachers cannot earn a living, teaching will continue to attract low- versus high-quality candidates. If teachers cannot earn a living, they will make the rational economic decision of doing additional paid work. Unfortunately, this has predictable results. Teachers may be so exhausted that they do not focus on their teaching or lack time to prepare lessons. Those who give private lessons may save “good” lessons for private-pay students. Teachers may not show up to class, migrate within a country or emigrate to another country with better teacher pay.¹² This issue of low pay further exacerbates teacher motivation,

“Hiring untrained teachers may well serve to get more children into school, but it can jeopardize education quality... In 34 of the 98 countries with data on trained teachers, less than 75% of teachers are trained according to national standards.” In Guinea-Bissau, São Tomé e Príncipe, Senegal and Sierra Leone, fewer than half of primary school teachers have minimum qualifications.”

UNESCO, 2014, pp. 85-86

¹² To learn more about issues surrounding the compensation of teachers, see INEE’s Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation in Fragile States, Situations of Displacement and Post-Crisis Recovery: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>.

teacher shortages, poor teacher quality, poor quality of education that students receive and poor perceptions of teachers in general.

A living wage is an extremely important consideration for improving teacher professionalism, but money alone will not confer a sense of professionalism. Decision makers and educational planners must recognize that teaching is a highly specialized profession involving a specific body of knowledge and skill set; that entry into teaching should be based on academic qualifications; that becoming a teacher must be based on attainment of a set of qualifications; and that continued teaching should be governed by standards. The latter is increasingly being recognized as organizations such as the Refugee Teacher Working Group¹³ and nations like Ethiopia¹⁴ and Pakistan¹⁵ (to name two) develop international and national teaching standards, respectively. Raising the qualifications of teachers through such tools as a mandatory teacher certification exam can positively affect the quality of new teachers and provide benefits to students in the most disadvantaged schools (Boyd et al., 2008).

Recruitment, pay and performance-based standards are all critical to recruiting a quality teaching force. Once in the system, teachers need to be brought into school- and classroom-based decisions and given a say over matters that impact them. Indeed, policies impacting teachers can only be effective if those responsible for implementing them are involved in shaping them. Yet a survey of teachers in 10 countries showed that only 23 percent thought they had influence over policy and practice (UNESCO, 2014, p. 27).

This notion of teacher professionalism (affecting non-teacher education personnel and teachers themselves) links directly to the issue of teacher professional development. First, viewing teachers as professionals may often involve convincing teachers that, as professionals, they are responsible for their own learning and the learning of their colleagues, just as they are responsible for the learning of their students. As students should take responsibility for their own learning, so too should teachers – and be provided the requisite supports and structures to help teachers develop, direct and assess their own learning.¹⁶

Next, and more fundamentally, if teachers are responsible for their own professional learning, they must be seen – as is the case with students – as *learners*. This involves designing professional development that focuses on best practices versus expedient ones, and professional development and support that promotes and accommodates teacher *learning*.

13 Comprised of representatives from the United Nations High Commission on Refugees, the International Rescue Committee, Norwegian Refugee Council, UNICEF and Save the Children.

14 See <http://www.moe.gov.et/English/Resources/Documents/TeachersProfessionalStandards.pdf>.

15 See <http://unesco.org.pk/education/teachereducation/files/National%20Professional%20Standards%20for%20Teachers.pdf>.

16 For more on teaching and learning in emergencies, review INEE's Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>. For more on supporting teachers' development, review the Training and Capacity Development Tools: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1157>.

2. Design high-yield professional development

In a crisis situation, emergency education services must be established, temporary learning spaces built, education materials distributed and teachers identified and trained. All of this must happen quickly, and these tasks may be especially onerous in under-resourced nations, in high-need emergency contexts and over-extended and underfinanced NGOs.

These are necessary first steps. In the recovery phase, educational program planners and designers can begin to focus on “high-yield” professional development – that is, professional development that has been demonstrated across international settings and through more rigorous research to foster the greatest return (i.e., student achievement) on investment. This section suggests three areas of teacher learning that have been shown to be “high-yield” in terms of improved teaching and student learning outcomes.¹⁷

a. Link professional development to measurable student learning outcomes

The ultimate goal of professional development should be improved student learning outcomes (see Figure 5). Therefore, teacher professional development must be linked to specific student learning outcomes and intended impact should be considered *before* – not after – designing any teacher professional development activity (Guskey, 2002). These outcomes should be appropriate to the context in which teachers teach and students learn.

Unfortunately, most teacher professional learning “does not meet the threshold needed to produce strong effects on practice or student learning” (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p. 5). Where teacher professional development (TPD) exists, decisions about TPD are often made for a variety of reasons, some of which have nothing to do with student learning outcomes.

High-yield professional development should focus on the *how* of teaching – teaching teachers mastery of the most effective instructional strategies that result in higher student achievement. These include (among other instructional strategies) student

Figure 5: How student learning outcomes can drive TPD

Student Learning Outcome 1: Students deepen content knowledge

Type of TPD: (1) Working alongside a more knowledgeable colleague or a content specialist, (2) Teacher study group on pedagogical content knowledge

Student Learning Outcome 2: Students successfully complete a collaborative task

Type of TPD: Workshop on collaboration with follow-up coaching by a master teacher

Gaining clarity about the student learning outcomes to be promoted will inform decisions about the most appropriate TPD activities.

¹⁷ This research comes from research on professional development, primarily in the US. Like most professional development research around the globe, a minority are quasi-experimental or experimental with control groups using a pre- and post-design.

expectations around their own performance, micro-teaching, formative assessment, classroom discussions and teacher feedback.¹⁸

Two additional pieces of information are key: Engaging teachers in curriculum and lesson planning has been shown to improve both the quality of instruction and student achievement (and many nations like Japan and Singapore are international models in this area). Next, research (Timperley, 2008) cites teacher engagement as an important determinant of student academic success (this falls under the rubric of “motivation” discussed in the previous chapter). In turn, teacher engagement depends heavily on an educator’s experience of the positive impact of professional development on student learning. Training alone cannot change practice unless corresponding changes occur in the classroom environment. When and where professional development programs demonstrate their impact on student achievement, in addition to their impact on teacher practice, they have been embraced by teachers.

b. Teacher collaboration

John Hattie’s meta-evaluations and analyses of student achievement (2009) note that the biggest effect on student learning is “when teachers become learners about their own teaching.” Teacher collaboration that involves teachers creating and examining student work, solving mutual school-based problems and trying out different instructional approaches together has been shown to result in greater student learning outcomes (Hattie, 2009). Hattie’s research validates more than two decades of research on teacher learning (see earlier citations of Joyce & Showers, 2002; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Rather than isolating teachers in a classroom with no opportunities to talk to one another, educational planners and decision makers must work to help shape the culture and structure of the educational system and schools so that they provide time and support for teachers to work together to examine student work or to engage in problem solving with one another. They must also provide structured and facilitated opportunities for teachers to study, learn, plan and teach together (for example, lesson study and study groups) so that teachers can begin to form communities of interest, learning and practice (Burns & Dimock, 2007). This knowledge sharing has proven, tangible benefits – knowledge can also be shared widely at little cost, and additional investments in knowledge creation can lead to continuous growth and development of both individuals and organizations (Stiglitz & Walsh, 2002).

Teacher collaboration will be discussed in greater detail in Recommendation 3.

c. Long-term (versus short-duration) professional development

Providing professional development in emergency situations often, and necessarily, focuses on providing the most basic training to teachers – for example, helping

18 At this point in time, principal understanding of high-yield instructional strategies comes primarily from the work of John Hattie, whose meta-evaluation examined 800 studies of six areas that contribute to learning: the student, the home, the school, the curricula, the teacher and teaching and learning approaches. For a full list, with explanation, of these high-yield strategies, see <http://visible-learning.org/glossary/>.

community members assume teaching roles or supporting volunteer/contracted teachers to attain some basic level of proficiency – and doing so quickly and under often dangerous and chaotic conditions. In many such contexts, both teaching and the professional development that teachers receive “relies on traditional approaches such as lecturing, rote learning and repetition, rather than fostering transferable skills such as critical thinking” and creativity (UNESCO, 2014, p. 27). Teachers receive little in terms of supervision and feedback.

Often less is more, but when it comes to professional development, more appears to be more. Professional development that is of longer duration (more than 49 hours per school year) appears to be associated with stronger impact on teachers and student learning than short-duration professional development (Garet et al., 2010). Experimental studies in the United States found that professional development ranging from 30 to 100 hours over six to 12 months showed positive and significant effects on student achievement gains, while an of average of 49 hours of TPD in a year increased student achievement by approximately 21 percentile points. In contrast, a limited amount of professional development (between five to 14 hours per year) showed no statistically significant effect on student learning (Wei et al., 2009).

More sustained professional development appears to work in part because it allows for clinical supervision and feedback, application and practice of new ideas and ongoing support like coaching (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). The Aga Khan Development Network, through its various education programs in East Africa and Central Asia, has emphasized this kind of school-based teacher professional development, providing ongoing support, assistance and monitoring and evaluation over long periods of time.

This notion of support, so critical to sustained improvements in teacher practice, will be discussed in greater detail in Recommendation 4 in this guide.

3. Balance research-proven with localized, contextualized professional development

This guide argues for the inclusion of research-proven professional development practices for teachers in the world's most fragile contexts. Yet, most research on effective teacher professional development comes from high-income nations (though in many cases from fragile or low-resource contexts within these countries). Therefore, authors suggest that research-proven professional development be carefully balanced with accommodations toward realities on the ground. For instance, in the preparatory phase of a rapid educational emergency response, humanitarian or education organizations may concentrate simply on identifying and quickly providing community members with the minimum skills needed to teach. In later phases of the emergency response where educational activities are becoming more consolidated, and particularly within the recovery phase, organizations can offer, for example, initial supervision and coaching to these new teacher recruits to help them become more skilled.

Further, despite the impulse to standardize and scale professional development programs, research is increasingly clear that successful TPD programs, particularly in

low-resource environments, be adapted to suit the specific context/culture of teachers and schools. A teacher's *environment*, instead of his/her *attitude*, often dictates a teacher's selection of pedagogical practices from the range that he/she has mastered (Johnson, Monk, & Hodges, 2000).

Stein's (2011) research on South African teacher professional development programs shows that a lack of understanding of local teaching context and/or failure to contextualize teacher professional development increases the likelihood of failure of professional development initiatives. Overall, context-specific programs and interventions have greater impact on teachers than fixed programs that apply across a range of settings (Timperley, 2008).

Where professional development programs in fragile contexts are successful, they have often been characterized by the following practices:

- Analyzing the specific contexts in which teachers are working and consulting with them about the real needs of the children in their communities.
- Demonstrating contextual sensitivity to the lived realities of teachers (in addition to strong leadership and teacher buy-in) (Stein, 2011).
- Integrating context-specific approaches to address unique teacher challenges and cultural complexities (Cordingley et al., 2007).
- Fostering sensitivity toward the difficulties of developing specific types of new knowledge and skills (Cordingley et al., 2007).
- Providing tailored instruction that is appropriate to the context in which the teacher works and builds on teacher resourcefulness (Timperley, 2008).
- Focusing on specific needs of teachers as identified by teachers (Garet et al., 2010).
- Professional development that is horizontally and vertically aligned with national and school-specific policies and human resource strategies (Garet et al., 2010).
- Embedding professional development in local school cultures in conjunction with local stakeholders and involving all teachers.
- Allowing teachers to select strategies based on their perceived structural constraints and the institutional culture (Johnson, Monk, & Hodges, 2000).
- Training professional development providers to be sensitive to current teacher practice versus "focusing on some yet unrealized imagined future" (Johnson, Monk, & Hodges, 2000, p. 188).

Realization that externally-imposed, standardized professional development must change is starting to take hold, though how successfully or meaningfully, remains to be seen. The Philippines Department of Education has stated its opposition to cascade or

train-the-trainer approaches to professional development, though it is not clear what will replace such approaches. In Gujarat, India, the State Education Department has acknowledged that “stand alone, one-size-fits-all” in-service teacher professional development is ineffective and is now asking primary teachers what they want to learn. The State Education Department plans to replace traditional trainings with customized professional development that they call a “cafeteria approach.” While hopeful, once again, time will tell what comes of these efforts.

“The country went through a civil war two years ago, and I never heard of any psychological support offered to instructors and learners.”

Kadidia Doumbia,
Gender and Education Specialist,
Côte d'Ivoire

4. Help teachers deal with crisis and conflict

In many contexts or regions, neither conflict nor human-caused crisis can be predicted. But in many other nations, conflict and crisis are not only predictable, but inexorable, with resentments and animosities festering until they explode. Thus, teachers in fragile contexts need an additional layer of help and support in dealing with conflict and crisis and the impact on their own well-being and that of their students.¹⁹ This is often absent from formal professional development programs. However, conflict and crisis are the contexts within which schools operate, and, like students, teachers cannot learn when they are dealing with their own distress.

Teachers in areas in the midst of or post-conflict or natural disasters need help on two levels. First, they need professional development and support that take into consideration the psychological and physical toll that conflict and humanitarian disasters have had on teachers personally as well as professionally in order to help teachers move forward in positive ways and focus on their teaching with support and consultation from other professionals. These may include:

- Supporting teachers to meet their and their families' basic needs of food, water, shelter and safety in order to enable them to focus on their work.
- Coordinating teacher compensation across service-providing organizations to reduce grievances caused by inequitable compensation (INEE, 2013, p. 35).
- Coordinating with relief, humanitarian and medical organizations to help teachers learn basic strategies to help calm their (and students') nervous systems so that they can move away from a state of hyper-vigilance/ hyper-arousal.
- Helping teachers with possible mental health and post-traumatic stress issues (Many of Colombia's provincial and municipal *secretarías de educación* in areas impacted by the decades-long conflict have developed such supports for teachers).
- Helping teachers to learn strategies and skills to regulate their own nervous

¹⁹ For ideas on conflict-sensitive strategies to teacher training, professional development and support, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education, pages 30 and 34: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.



Copyright: Susan Warner/Save the Children

systems so that they can remain calm and professional as well. Recent research on trauma makes clear that trauma survivors must first and foremost learn how to regulate and calm their nervous systems before any other learning can possibly take place.

- Coordinating with mental health and medical organizations to provide teachers, especially female teachers who have been sexually attacked, with psychotherapy and counselling. Research demonstrates that such interventions can play “a crucial role in improving survivors’ emotional and physical wellbeing, even if counselling is received some time after the incident” (Holmes & Bhuvanendra, 2014, p. 11).
- Engaging teachers in therapeutic programs that utilize a group-based approach, which teach social skills and are adapted to the local cultural context. These have been shown to be “critical components in contributing to the improved emotional and physical wellbeing of [gender-based violence] survivors” (Holmes & Bhuvanendra, 2014, p. 20).
- Coordinating with psychosocial support groups to take into account gender-based coping strategies (INEE, 2010a, p. 28).

Second, teachers need professional development and support that are responsive and appropriate to particular crisis events and that are coordinated with emergency responses so they can best support their students. These may include:

- Focusing on teacher well-being (Peru and Colombia have developed teacher well-being programs at the national and provincial level).
- Providing teachers with and helping them learn how to provide psychosocial support to students who are distressed.²⁰
- Providing instruction in gender-sensitive and inclusive education and diversity awareness so that teachers do not promote cultural, religious or ethnic stereotypes or practices that can enflame tensions (INEE, 2013, p. 30).²¹
- Helping teachers and teacher educators understand “distress” (Save the Children, 2013, p. 28), including the “red flags” or warning signs of mental health distress that teachers should recognize.
- Promoting critical thinking skills among teachers so that they begin to see that different groups have multiple perspectives on current and historical events.

20 For additional resources on psychosocial support in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>.

21 For suggestions and considerations about gender-sensitive teaching and schools, see the INEE Pocket Guide to Gender: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>. For inclusive education guidance, see the INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007> and INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1138>).

- Helping teachers understand factors that contribute to children's well-being and mental health.
- Understanding signs of physical and sexual abuse, reporting mechanisms (if they exist) and strategies for helping children who are abused.
- Encouraging links between schools and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in the area to alleviate conflict or address post-conflict recovery.
- Providing teachers with knowledge and skills for "formal and non-formal curricula, including hazard awareness, disaster risk reduction and conflict prevention" (INEE, 2010b, p. 19).
- Building teachers' conflict-resolution and dispute skills.²² (Again, such programs are being implemented by Colombia's education secretariats for teachers in conflict-impacted areas).
- Helping teachers learn about and be sensitive to students' gender-based coping strategies.
- Helping teachers become effective facilitators, using participatory methods of teaching, and promote more student-centered and inquiry-based approaches in which students analyze, infer and develop their own points of view about events.
- Helping teachers develop skills to be first school-responders to a crisis (for example, basic first aid, response protocols, getting children to a safe place) and responsive to recovery phase (for example, recognizing symptoms of grief and distress and knowing strategies that help to lower anxiety).

Successful initiatives that focus on teacher well-being in crisis and conflict areas, such as INEE's Conflict Sensitive Education Pack²³ and the International Rescue Committee's Healing Classrooms Initiative²⁴ (HCI), use alternative approaches that recognize and build on the different experiences of teachers. "These approaches are more holistic, working with the principles of psychosocial well-being and the 'healing' of children and teachers and integrating them with culturally appropriate notions of good teaching" (Kirk & Winthrop, 2013, p. 123).

Similarly, INEE's Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction (2010b) provide a framework for focusing on protection, peacebuilding and quality education in fragile contexts and focus on teacher recruitment, training and support, as Figure 6 explains.

22 For more resources on conflict resolution and mitigation, see the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1053>. For additional information on disaster risk reduction, see the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1054>.

23 See <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.

24 See <http://healingclassrooms.org/>.

Figure 6: Teacher Recruitment, Training and Support in Emergency and Early Recovery Phases of Crisis (INEE, 2010b, p. 20)

Emergency	Early Recovery and Preparedness
Chronic Crisis	
Stakeholders	
Who should be involved in assessing needs and capacity of teachers based on context and changing educational needs and policies? Who are the teachers? • How can the teaching force be formally identified and recognized in financial terms? • Are there a large number of people with necessary levels of education, competencies, and local language skills to teach? • Is there a way of attracting more teachers? • Who are the teacher trainers? • Who supervises the teachers and what type of training and support do they receive?	Have the available teachers changed? • Has the teaching force or balance of teaching force changed? • Does the ethnic and religious breakdown of teachers reflect student demographics? • What are needs and experiences of recruits? • Who has the authority to recruit teachers? • Is there a clear chain of command in regards to teacher support and supervision? • How is information shared between teacher and support staff? • Do teachers have a voice and a way of regularly feeding into the curriculum review process or training plan?
Training	
What training structures are available and operational for qualified and unqualified teachers? • What are the priorities for pre- and in-service training? • Do pre- and in-service training programs include new content and learner-centered, active methods? • Is psycho-social support for teachers part of the pre- and in-service training? • Have strategies been identified to minimize disruption to teaching schedules for in-service training? • Is there a teacher training plan in place for emergency phase and beyond?	What are the interim and longer term training needs and priorities for teachers? • What human and financial resources are required to support Teacher Training Institutes (TTIs) and centers?²⁵

25 For more on training, see INEE's Training and Capacity Development Tools: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1157>.

CONCLUSION

Fragility presents its own set of issues that must be addressed in any teacher professional development program. The current paradigm of teacher training in low-income and fragile contexts has often been emergency-driven, top down, not linked to student learning outcomes, *ad hoc*, designed and implemented without the voice of teachers. This has often been driven by the need to provide training – any training – to teachers in order to get schools up and running again and attain a level of normalcy, particularly in the acute phases of disaster or conflict. However, authors' research has been unable to find empirical evidence of such practices on teacher behavior, teacher engagement or student learning.

In all situations of fragility, particularly within the recovery phases of an emergency, this chapter has called for the need to focus on teachers in emergency, crisis and fragile contexts – as professionals, as learners and as individuals. It has argued that teachers in fragile contexts need high-yield professional development that is long term. This chapter calls for a focus on practices, resulting in improved student learning, that is collaborative and that judiciously balances what research says with teacher learning opportunities that are relevant and contextualized. Finally, it calls for interventions and supports that help teachers, many of whom may be survivors of war, natural disasters, conflict or physical or sexual violence. Teachers who have experienced such events often face high rates of depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and may need therapeutic and psychosocial supports so that they can begin the healing process and begin to help students heal.

High-quality professional development, especially in areas of acute crisis (conflict, natural disasters, etc.) requires both a humanitarian response and an emergency education response, as well as a long-term plan for dealing with immediate and protracted needs of those affected. This demands that humanitarian and emergency responders and education organizations work together to establish a coherent and sequential educational response to a crisis.

Similarly, donors/funders, educational policymakers and planners must engage in a rigorous process of reflection about current teachers' practices and what needs to change, especially in the world's poorest contexts where traditional models of TPD have been unsuccessful. This involves:

“In some educational jurisdictions, professional development takes the form of fixed programmes designed to develop particular knowledge and skills that have been identified as effective. While they may be based on sound research about student learning, such programmes are developed independently of the participating teachers’ practice contexts and tend to have less impact on student outcomes than approaches that are context-specific. Context-specific approaches promote teaching practices that are consistent with the principles of effective teaching but also systematically assist teachers to translate those principles into locally adapted applications. By developing this kind of knowledge teachers can better solve identified issues about student outcomes in their particular teaching situations.”

Timperley, 2008, p.10

- *Establishing a clear baseline picture of teacher practice that is supported by evidence and mechanisms for assessing change:* Can it be demonstrated that change or impact is a result of professional development? If not, what will need to change in terms of teacher practices, the professional development systems and organizational processes to ensure that this happens in the future?
- *Committing to long-term financing and support:* Linking teacher professional development to improved student learning outcomes is difficult, but necessary, work. It involves professional development that is long-term, focuses on core teaching competencies (content knowledge, instruction, assessment and classroom management) and involves ongoing monitoring and support.²⁶

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

Training and Capacity Development Tools:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1157>

INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>

INEE Toolkit - Psychosocial Support Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>

INEE Pocket Guide to Gender:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>

INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007>

INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1138>

INEE Toolkit - Conflict Resolution and Mitigation Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1053>

INEE Toolkit - Disaster Risk Reduction Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1054>

²⁶ See the Training and Capacity Development Tools in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1157>.

REFERENCES

- Boyd, D., Grossman, P., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2008). *Teacher preparation and student achievement*. Retrieved from http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/1001255_teacher_preparation.pdf
- Burns, M., & Dimock, K. V. (2007). *Technology as a catalyst for school communities: Beyond boxes and bandwidth*. Lanham, MD: Rowan and Littlefield.
- Cordingley, P., Bell, M., Isham, C., Evans, D., & Firth, A. (2007). *Continuing professional development (CPD): What do specialists do in CPD programs for which there is evidence of positive outcomes for pupils and teachers?* London, UK: Continuing Professional Development Review Group.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- DeMonte, J. (2013). *High-quality professional development for teachers: Supporting teacher training to improve student learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/DeMonteLearning4Teachers-1.pdf>
- Garet, M. S., Ludwig, M., Yoon, K., Wayne, A., Birman, B. & Milanowski, A. (2010). *Making professional development more strategic: A conceptual model for district decision makers*. Washington, DC: American Institute for Research.
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 8(3/4), 381-391. doi: 10.1080/13540600210000051 2
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Holmes, R., & Bhuvanendra, D. (2014). *Preventing and responding to gender-based violence in humanitarian crises*. London, UK: Humanitarian Practice Network.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2010a). *Gender equality in and through education: INEE pocket guide to gender*. Geneva, Switzerland: INEE.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2010b). *Minimum standards for education: Preparedness, response, recovery*. New York, NY: INEE.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2013). *INEE guidance note on conflict sensitive education*. New York, NY: INEE.
- Johnson, S., Monk, M., & Hodges, M. (2000). Teacher development and change in South Africa: A critique of the appropriateness of transfer of northern/western practice. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 30(2), 179-192. doi: 10.1080/713657456
- Joyce, B. & Shower, B. (2002). *Student achievement through staff development*. (3rd ed.) Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Kirk, J., & Winthrop, R. (2013). Teaching in contexts of emergency and state fragility In J. Kirk, M. Dembélé & S. Baxter (Eds.), *More and better teachers for quality education for all: Identity and motivation, systems and support* (pp. 121-139). Retrieved from http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/more-and-better-teaching_september-2013.pdf

- Ministerio de Educación del Gobierno del Ecuador, Subsecretaría de Desarrollo Profesional Educativo. (2013). *Proyecto de creación de la Universidad Nacional de Educación estructura orgánico funcional*. Quito, Ecuador: Ministerio de Educación del Gobierno del Ecuador.
- Save the Children. (2013). *Psychological first aid training manual for child practitioners*. Retrieved from http://resourcecentre.savethechildren.se/sites/default/files/documents/final_pfa.pdf
- Stein, G. M. (2011). Continuing professional development in South African schools: Staff perceptions and the role of principals. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 28(1), 43-53.
- Stiglitz, J. E., & C. E. Walsh. (2002). *Principles of macroeconomics* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.
- Timperley, H. (2008). Teacher professional learning and development. *Educational Practices Series*, 18. Geneva, Switzerland: International Academy of Education and International Bureau of Education.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for all global monitoring report 2013/4*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the U.S. and abroad*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.



Copyright: Mark Kaye/Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 2: DEVELOP, APPLY, MEASURE AND INSTITUTIONALIZE STANDARDS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

KEY POINTS

- Teaching, especially in fragile contexts, is a specialized skill that should be based on a set of qualifications and governed by standards.
- Definitions of quality professional development in fragile contexts remain elusive, with a lack of standards, lack of goals, limited research and a lack of metrics for success.
- Given this void (combined with a research void), anyone or any organization can claim to be delivering quality or professional development or “solutions” to issues around poor teacher quality even when that may not be the case.
- Effective professional development contains a set of characteristics that include alignment with national goals, modeling effective practice, opportunities for collaboration and ongoing support.

*Mary Burns, Education Development Center;
Heidi Biseth, Save the Children, Norway*

“‘Quality’ is not self-evident. In some cases, it is ascertained by measuring how much the learner knows and to what extent. A description of a standard is developed, making it possible to measure the level of achievement. In other cases, quality is a policy issue where creating an education system that facilitates the realization of the learners’ rights to education and development of their capabilities is achieved.”

Heidi Biseth, Save the Children, Norway

“For most countries recovering from crisis, the main goal is to put children back to school to show that things are going back to normal. Teachers don’t have the necessary materials, there is no professional development and teachers cannot learn or improve their teaching strategies. In such a situation, the word ‘quality’ cannot be used and is not used.”

Participant from West Africa

“The issue of professional development is one of the major concerns for teachers worldwide, and especially in western Africa. There is no professional development program available, unless the Secretary of Education wants to show the Prime Minister that the department is working hard. Then a big workshop is organized, without asking educators what their needs are, and no feedback is given... There is a lack of understanding of what education should be, especially when teachers are not part of the conversation.”

Kadidia Doumbia, Gender and Education Specialist, Côte d’Ivoire

INTRODUCTION

Is it possible to implement high-quality professional development in emergency situations? If so, what characteristics must this teacher professional development (TPD) demonstrate? What is “quality” in a conflict- or fragile- or acute emergency? What is necessary to provide teachers with high-quality training and preparation in fragile contexts, especially volunteer or emergency teachers who have never before taught but are chosen by their community to be teachers?

“Teacher professional development” holds multiple expectations, priorities and meanings for the many stakeholders involved in educational programs. But while all stakeholders may agree that teachers need quality professional development, a commonly agreed-upon definition of quality PD is still elusive. Yet, if we do not agree on what constitutes “quality professional development,” how can we achieve it in fragile environments? How can we educate teachers so that they develop the desired skills enabling them to provide quality education in emergencies?²⁷ If definitions of quality professional development in fragile contexts remain elusive, how can we develop standards, goals and metrics for success?

“Quality” is often contextually defined and determined, and there is no one universally accepted definition of high-quality teacher professional development. That difficulty aside, for *TPD in Crisis* authors, international donors, educational ministries, educational policymakers, planners and implementers must come to consensus about what quality professional development is, how it can be implemented and how it can be measured.

This is the second major recommendation from the *TPD in Crisis* series.

²⁷ For more information on teacher training in emergencies, review the Minimum Standards training resources in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1129>.

THE “QUALITY” DILEMMA

“Quality” is often reflective of particular national policies and assumes different meanings depending on the values and needs of a particular population. Therefore, definitions of quality in emergency contexts will naturally differ from notions of quality in developed contexts (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2006).

Beyond that, quality professional development in very low-income and fragile contexts is often difficult to ascertain for a number of reasons:

- There often have been no efforts to define quality or come to agreement on what constitutes quality professional development in fragile environments.
- Too much of the ongoing quality debate is related to management issues instead of pedagogy (Soudien, 2012).
- There is often a lack of standards to define quality and – if standards exist – a lack of data to prove that a particular teacher professional development approach is meeting these definitions of quality.
- While there may be talk about improving the quality of professional development, there is often much less emphasis on implementing professional development programs to improve the quality of teacher learning.

In particular, professional development in fragile states suffers from a “research void” that makes determinations of quality difficult:

- There is little or no research on effective professional development in developing countries; and even a lack of cost/benefit analyses of some of the most common professional development approaches (the cascade approach) versus more effective types of professional development (for example, instructional coaching).
- It is extremely difficult (in all contexts) to prove causality between teacher professional development and student learning outcomes.
- There is, as Dembélé and Rogers (2013) note, a paucity of rigorous evidence about the “effectiveness of different types of programs in different contexts and a real need for better designed experimental studies to evaluate the impact of different kinds of professional programs on student learning outcomes” (p. 178).
- There is not enough research on how to best implement quality professional development in fragile states, what models work and how to prove the impact of particular teacher professional development programs in crisis situations.
- The exact conditions under which more support-based programs, such as coaching, are most likely to be effective are still unclear.

Even where quality professional development is defined, as in national policy documents, it often focuses less on the learning characteristics associated with PD and more on measures, such as *cost-effectiveness*, *quantity*, *exceptionality*, *consistency*, *fitness for purpose*, *value for money* and *transformative potential* (Harvey, 1995). Yet,

these are broad definitions that are often difficult to operationalize and make quality difficult to implement and measure. Many of these measures (e.g., cost effectiveness) may contravene the optimal amount and type of professional development that teachers in very low-income contexts need. If such terms are used to determine quality, they must be carefully fleshed out and linked explicitly to the ways in which professional development demonstrates and promotes these concepts in practice; and they must be vertically aligned with district policies and horizontally aligned with other human resources strategies (Garet et al., 2010).

DEFINITIONS OF QUALITY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Given the above challenges, it is important to decide how, and on what basis, quality professional development (and by “quality” we mean “high quality”) will be defined. Without definitions of quality, governments, donors and implementers lack standards, goals and metrics for success. Without standards for quality professional development, anyone can claim that he/she or his/her organization is delivering “quality” professional development. And without standards for quality, teacher performance in a country will vary by region or demographic group.

While there is no one agreed-upon definition of quality professional development, there are many avenues available for defining quality professional development, and below we examine a few of these options.

Quality based on research: One way to develop definitions of quality is via existing research on professional development. Most of our definitions around “quality” professional development come from more developed-country contexts. Though there are only a handful of rigorous research studies on professional development, these studies tend to be fairly consistent in identifying activities that can have an impact on teaching and learning when they are implemented well.

Such studies (Archibald et al., 2011, p. 6; Kleiman, 2004; Sparks, 2002; Wei et al., 2010; Yoon et al., 2007) note that high-quality professional development:

1. Is aligned with national, regional or school goals, national or international standards and assessments, and other professional-learning activities.
2. Focuses on core content and modeling of teaching strategies for the content.
3. Includes opportunities for active learning of new teaching strategies.
4. Provides teachers the chance to collaborate.
5. Includes follow-up support and continuous monitoring and feedback.

Quality as a deliberately constructed value: There are numerous “constructs” and “models” around quality education from which educational planners can draw. As one example, Nikel and Lowe (2010) emphasize that the quality of education is much like a “fabric” – strongest when stretched – and that quality consists of seven dimensions: effectiveness, efficiency, equity, responsiveness, relevance, reflexivity and sustainability.

These seven elements must be constantly held in balance. Though broad in its scope, these constructs represent a starting point around “quality.”

International standards of quality (non-context specific): Most standards for quality professional development (as with research), at this point in time, originate in Western countries, such as the United Kingdom’s *Professional Standards Framework*²⁸ (which also applies to higher education pre-service institutions). Learning Forward (2011), a US-based education association that links student achievement with teachers’ professional learning, outlines standards for quality professional learning, as well as qualifications that professional development providers should possess. These standards have been adopted by numerous nations and outline the characteristics of effective professional learning for teachers, the conditions under which professional learning should occur and the expectations for teachers based on professional development. They also serve as indicators to guide design, facilitation, implementation and evaluation of teacher professional development (Learning Forward, 2011). According to Learning Forward’s standards, teacher professional learning should (be):

- Competency-based – focused on helping teachers develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes and dispositions demonstrably shown to improve teaching.
- Based on an understanding of teachers’ needs and of their work environments.
- Focused on deepening teachers’ content knowledge and pedagogical skills.
- Model the exact behaviors that teachers are supposed to employ in their own classrooms.
- Include opportunities for practice, research and reflection.
- Use information related to student learning for teacher development.
- Embedded in educators’ workplaces and take place during the school day.
- Sustained over time.
- Grounded in a sense of collegiality and collaboration among teachers and between teachers and principals to solve important problems related to teaching and learning.
- Build professional learning communities.
- Build teacher leadership and distributed leadership.
- Focus on a small number of student learning goals.
- Match adult learning processes to intended outcomes.²⁹

28 See https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/sites/default/files/downloads/UKPSF_2011_English.pdf.

29 Note that these set of standards are similar to, and overlap with, research on quality professional development discussed previously.

International standards of quality (fragility specific): There are examples of teaching standards that pertain to emergency and fragile contexts specifically. Best known and most widely used in emergency settings are INEE's Minimum Standards. Ethiopia's Education Sector Development Program IV lays out some standards or requisites for teachers in emergency contexts.³⁰ As part of its Teacher Development and Management Strategy (TDMS 2008–2013), Tanzania has developed a competency framework for teachers, which includes subject and professional knowledge, teaching skills, assessment and evaluation, and professional values and behavior (Hardman et al., 2011).

Within refugee and emergency settings, the Refugee Working Group has established a set of standards and guidance to train refugee teachers with no previous teaching experience or qualifications. Also in development is an accompanying set of competency-based teacher training modules and a basic set of materials on school-based, in-service support to teachers – so critical to teacher development, yet a significant capacity gap in many refugee settings (UNHCR, 2014). Though not officially a set of standards, IRC's Healing Classrooms curriculum also offers priority areas and guidelines for teacher in post-conflict settings.³¹

Though it does not focus on teaching per se, the Brookings Institution's Learning Metrics Task Force³² addresses the lack of assessments of quality learning, a lack of data to assess quality learning and the lack of shared data among education stakeholders (a point that will be addressed in the Conclusion of this guide) across a number of low-resource and fragile countries. The success of such an initiative, particularly the development and use of national assessment systems (and supports for low-income countries to do so), could provide education stakeholders with critical indicators about quality learning, which could then inform the development of a shared set of teaching standards and metrics.

Quality as contextually defined: For many educational planners and policymakers, quality professional development must be defined, not according to universal standards, but based on the contexts in which teachers work (the previous chapter also speaks at length about the importance of contextualization). Context-specific programs and interventions appear to have a greater impact on teachers' learning and student outcomes than programs designed based on research about student learning but which are independent of a participating teacher's reality. Indeed, as Timperley (2008) notes, "Context-specific approaches promote teaching practices that are consistent with the principles of effective teaching but also systematically assist teachers to translate those principles into locally adapted applications. By developing this kind of knowledge teachers can better solve identified issues about student outcomes in their particular teaching situations" (p. 10).

Quality as a hybrid construct: Quality professional development can be derived from

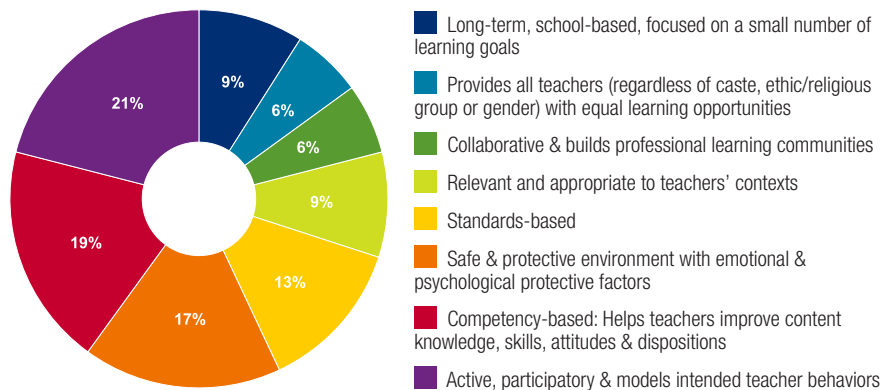
30 See http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Ethiopia/Ethiopia_ESDP_IV.pdf.

31 See http://healingclassrooms.org/downloads/CHC_Tools_for_Teachers_TEs.pdf.

32 See <http://www.brookings.edu/about/centers/universal-education/learning-metrics-task-force-2>.

a number of the above sources, such as research, standards derived from research and best practice, national and regional educational priorities and strategic documents, and local realities. For *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants, quality has both a universal (i.e., research-based) dimension and a contextual one – taking into account the realities of fragile contexts, as Figure 7 shows. Below we discuss *TPD in Crisis* authors’ and practitioners’ definitions of quality professional development in fragile contexts.

Figure 7: What defines “high-quality professional development” in fragile contexts? (Chart displays percentages of *TPD in Crisis* authors and participant responses to this question)



Each of the characteristics shown in Figure 7 deserves a thorough discussion. However, in this chapter, we discuss only the top five characteristics of quality profession development as determined by *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants. Thus, for authors and participants, “quality” professional development is:

1. *Active, participatory and models intended teacher behaviors.*
2. *Competency-based* – helping teachers improve content knowledge, skills, attitudes and dispositions.
3. *Safe and protective and provides emotional and psychological protective factors for teachers.*
4. Designed according to *recognized standards* of best practice.
5. *Relevant and appropriate* to teachers’ contexts.

These characteristics of quality professional development are corroborated by research on effective professional development. They also hold several policy ramifications for those who fund and design professional development.

First, in order to implement active-learning approaches and other effective instructional practices, teachers will require supportive policy environments, leadership that promotes new instructional practices and communities of practice where teachers support one

another and implement these active-learning approaches together (Leu & Price-Rom, 2006).

Second, if professional development is to be truly competency based, then the prevailing paradigm of professional development (whole group instruction, defined by number of hours) will need to change to a more individualized, differentiated approach that is less concerned with how teachers acquire their skills and more concerned with how teachers successfully demonstrate those skills via reliable and valid measures. As noted earlier in this chapter, this will require policy and program alignment around a set of agreed upon competencies; licensing, appraisal and promotions based on such competencies; and pre- and in-service teacher education curricula that demonstrate such competencies.

These changes, in turn, will require additional resources for teachers' professional learning, a greater variety of models of professional development, the need to develop measures of teaching effectiveness that can be monitored for quality using classroom-level data – and more resources for and investment in teacher professional development.

“Education is one of the most important issues to work against poverty and the problems associated with armed conflict... Professional development, most of the time, does not touch the issue of armed conflict; and young people don't receive a quality education that can improve their situation.”

Carlos Rincon,
War Child, Colombia

Third, if traveling from one area to another to attend professional development sessions poses a physical risk for teachers, then educational planners and implementers should make use of several options. One is bringing teachers together in a local, safe setting and providing structures, protocols and steps allowing them to work together. A second option – if technologies like Interactive Radio (or Audio) Instruction, DVDs/ video, mobile learning or online learning are available – is to use these modalities to make sure that teachers receive the professional development they need while ensuring their safety. Finally, if postal systems are functional, print-based materials can be sent to teachers if conflict or crisis makes travel impossible. Whatever mode of delivery is used, professional development in crisis contexts must equip teachers with not just pedagogical skills but with socio-emotional and psychosocial skills to help students who may be suffering from distress.³³ This must be an ongoing process, not a single event. Training needs to be followed up with regular supervision and support in the area of psychosocial skills for teachers.

Fourth, while professional development should be based on research of best practices, the research must be localized and adapted to address the teachers' contextual reality. Ongoing monitoring and evaluation data should be used to refine teacher professional development programs and to ensure corrective feedback during implementation.

Finally, professional development must be aimed at the specific needs of teachers,

³³ For additional resources on psychosocial support for teachers, see the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>.

including being based on their own self-perceived needs, linked to research and local context. Through these approaches, schools might create a more relevant set of professional development options that address a central school improvement strategy and improve instructional and curricular content (Garet et al., 2010).

IMPLEMENTING AND MEASURING QUALITY

Once decision makers have decided upon standards of quality professional development, these standards must be applied to all aspects of professional development – to the planning and design of professional development programs; to content and materials; to the actual professional development itself (i.e., instructional activities); to the professional development providers; and to teacher learning outcomes. There are currently a number of existing quality frameworks – from the aforementioned United Kingdom’s Professional Standards Framework to Australia’s National Professional Standards for Teachers³⁴ to, on the other end of the spectrum, the Refugee Working Group standards for professional development for teachers in refugee contexts. All of these are necessary to ensure that teachers emerge from professional development with a set of useful and usable knowledge and skills. Again, they must be contextualized to the setting in which they will be applied.

This systematic focus on quality obviously requires the implementation of quality management frameworks and a quality assurance system with verification and validation carried out internally and externally, by an impartial accrediting agency or an external quality assurance team. It also demands that those who fund, design and deliver teacher professional development programs use findings from any assessment of their work to continually improve the design and delivery of professional development.

CONCLUSION

Educational processes and outcomes are complex, multi-dimensional and contextual, and ministries of education, donors and implementing agencies will need to come up with standards of quality professional development that are most germane and feasible for their own particular contexts. This chapter has outlined some of those options for determining quality. That said, determinations of quality professional development are imperative. Further, if we want high-quality professional development in fragile contexts, we need to move beyond basic material concerns – infrastructure, material resources, access – to more conceptual ones – determining what we mean by quality, how we implement and sustain quality, how we measure it, how we certify it so designations of “quality” are meaningful and not merely slogans, and how we institutionalize it so that the range of professional development actors often found in fragile contexts are all operating according to the same standards and principles of quality. The content of education, how it is conveyed and the environment in which we expect teacher learning and a teacher’s professional development to take place must be at the core of this system of quality. Whatever definitions of quality or standards of professional

34 See http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/_resources/AITSL_National_Professional_Standards_for_Teachers.pdf.

development are agreed upon, it is important to apply them equally to teachers of all identity groups and across all regions in order to not exacerbate intergroup tensions and inadvertently contribute to conflict.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards Training Materials:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1129>

INEE Toolkit- Psychosocial Support Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>

REFERENCES

- Archibald, S., Cogshall, J. G., Croft, A., & Goe, L. (2011). *High-quality professional development for all teachers: Effectively allocating resources*. Washington, DC: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality.
- Dembélé, M., & Rogers, F. H. (2013). More and better teachers: Making the slogan a reality. In J. Kirk, M. Dembélé & S. Baxter (Eds.), *More and better teachers for quality education for all: Identity and motivation, systems and support* (pp. 174-180). Retrieved from <http://moreandbetterteachers.files.wordpress.com/2013/09/more-and-better-teaching-september-2013.pdf>
- Garet, M. S., Ludwig, M., Yoon, K., Wayne, A., Birman, B., & Milanowski, A. (2010). *Making professional development more strategic: A conceptual model for district decision makers*. Washington, DC: American Institute for Research
- Hardman, F., Ackers, J., Abrishamian, N., & O'Sullivan, M. (2011). Developing a systemic approach to teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa: Emerging lessons from Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 41(5), 669-683. doi: 10.1080/03057925.2011.581014
- Harvey, L. (1995). Beyond TQM. *Quality in Higher Education*, 1(2), 123-146. doi: 10.1080/1353832950010204
- Kleiman, G. (2004). *Meeting the need for high quality teachers: E-learning solutions*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education.
- Learning Forward. (2011). *Standards for professional learning*. Retrieved from <http://learningforward.org/docs/august-2011/referenceguide324.pdf?sfvrsn=2>
- Leu, E., & Price-Rom, A. (2006). *Quality of education and teacher learning: A review of the literature*. Washington, DC: USAID. Retrieved from: <http://www.equip123.net/docs/E1-QualityEdLitReview.pdf>
- Nikel, J., & Lowe, J. (2010). Talking of fabric: A multi-dimensional model of quality in education. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 40(5), 589-605. doi: 10.1080/03057920902909477

- Soudien, C. (2012). "Quality's" horizons: The politics of monitoring educational quality. In S. J. Klees, J. Samoff & N. P. Stromquist (Eds.), *The World Bank and education: Critiques and alternatives* (pp. 95-107). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers. doi: 10.1007/978-94-6091-903-9_7
- Sparks, D. (2002). *Designing powerful professional development for teachers and principals*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.
- Timperley, H. (2008). Teacher professional learning and development. *Educational Practices Series, 18*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Academy of Education and International Bureau of Education.
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2006). *Teachers and educational quality: Monitoring global needs for 2015*. Montréal, Canada: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2014). *Refugee teacher working group terms of reference*. Geneva, Switzerland: UNHCR.
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., & Adamson, F. (2010). *Professional development in the United States: Trends and challenges*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.
- Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement* (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007–No. 033). Washington, DC: US Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest.



Copyright: Mark Kaye / Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 3: CREATE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES THAT PROMOTE TEACHER COLLABORATION

KEY POINTS

- Successful teacher professional development is often grounded in teacher collaboration.
- Peer classroom visits and peer teaching have combined benefits of modeling, two-way support, shared reflection and complementary skills development.
- Opportunities for shared collaboration and reflection, such as teacher learning communities, learning circles and the *Professional Teaching and Learning Cycle*, have been used in a number of fragile contexts and bring teachers together through a process of shared enquiry and collaboration.
- Effective collaborative practice requires time and space, support from school leaders, access to external expertise, a sense of autonomy and a belief that everyone has something to offer.
- There are numerous low-cost opportunities for teacher collaboration in fragile settings.

Mary Burns, Education Development Center;

K. Victoria Dimock, SEDL;

Saouma BouJaoude, the American University of Beirut;

Paul St. John Frisoli, International Rescue Committee;

Jenni Donohoo, Provincial Literacy Lead, Ministry of Education in Ontario

“Intrinsic motivation is a key factor of effective teacher professional development. If we can support teachers to feel their own experience is worth reflecting on and sharing, and forms part of planning for student success, then we are reinforcing the professionalism of teachers. This helps them to strengthen their practice based on a variety of feedback sources, including peer input and self-reflection even in poorly resourced and fragile systems this should be possible... Teachers, no matter what their situation, need professional support and time to collaborate, in order to progress in their practice and gain satisfaction in their work.”

Kate Shevland, Principal, New Zealand

INTRODUCTION

When and where teacher professional development has been successful – when it has resulted in improved instruction and improved student learning outcomes – it has been grounded in teacher collaboration.

This is true in the world's wealthiest and most stable contexts. In Ontario, Canada, for example, top-down professional development has been replaced by teacher-led collaborative inquiry focusing on common student learning needs where teachers within and across schools are given the time and opportunity to learn from and with each other. In Chile, the Program for the Improvement of the Equity and Quality of Secondary Education (MECE) created Teacher Professional Groups (TPGs) to improve teaching and learning outcomes. TPGs produced numerous social gains among teachers, such as stronger collegiality and increased collaboration. They improved teachers' understandings of the linkages between subject areas. Finally, teachers noted the value of being exposed to materials and ideas that were not immediately familiar but that proved useful as strategies in the classroom (Avalos, 1998).³⁵

The power of teacher collaboration is also true in the world's most fragile contexts. In rural schools in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), teacher learning circles (TLCs) have contributed to a sense of collegiality, lessened professional isolation and helped to create a collegial professional environment that has impacted teachers' social and emotional well-being (Frisoli, 2014). In a two-year USAID-funded project in rural India, math and science teachers who collaborated on lessons and instruction outperformed teachers who did not collaborate on measures of effective teaching and knowledge of learner-centered instruction (Burns, 2010; Burns et al., 2014).³⁶

For authors and participants in the *TPD in Crisis* Forum, collaboration is one of the hallmarks of successful professional development programs, regardless of context, and is the third major recommendation to emerge from the discussion series. In the world's most improved education systems, "collaborative practice establishes norms of good instruction and makes teachers the custodians of that model" (Mourshed et al., 2010, p. 81). As this chapter will show, collaborative approaches to professional learning can promote school change that extends beyond individual classrooms. "When all teachers in a school learn together, all students in the school benefit" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009, p. 5).

35 For ideas about improving teaching and learning, see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

36 Comparatively speaking, there appears to be more research – at least "grey research" of NGO reports, etc. – on the impacts of collaboration on teachers in fragile contexts than there is for the other recommendations in this guide.

This chapter discusses some of the more successful models of collaboration-based TPD within fragile contexts, as identified by authors in the *TPD in Crisis* Forum.³⁷ As Figure 8 shows, these range from “looser” types of collaboration to “tighter” models of collaboration. Whatever the model of teacher collaboration used, where feasible, consider encouraging the cooperation of teachers across conflict lines. Doing so may contribute to peacebuilding while also allowing students to observe tolerance and cooperation.³⁸

Figure 8: Continuum of Collaboration Models



PEER VISITS

Teachers, regardless of their context, benefit when they see their peers in action – they acquire new ideas; they compare their performance against that of a colleague; they see affirming practices; they realize they are not alone. Peer visits or class visits involve setting up structured teacher visits to one another’s classrooms for some designated period of time. Peer visits can be highly structured (like instructional rounds discussed in the next chapter) or less structured such as “walkthroughs.” They can be of long duration (lasting several days), shorter duration (a class period) or even very short duration (“learning walks” of 10-minute visits). The purpose of peer visits is to allow teachers to make their practice public, learn from one another and build collegial relationships. They work best if teachers are prepared or trained to recognize a set of intended or “model” practices (this can often be supplemented by the use of protocols) and if they are followed by structured debriefs (made even more helpful if a well-trained facilitator is available). Many peer visits are structured as reciprocal visits where a defined set of teachers takes turns visiting one another’s classrooms over the course of the school year.

37 For more ideas on teacher training and professional development, including collaborative approaches, see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning, Section 2: Training, Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

38 For more ideas of conflict sensitive strategies for teacher professional development and support, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education, page 30: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.

PEER TEACHING

A second collaborative model successfully implemented in fragile contexts is peer teaching. Peer teaching involves teachers instructing one another in a particular skill or domain. It can be formal (as part of training or professional development) or informal, as in teachers getting together to instruct one another in a particular area. Below we describe three models of peer teaching:

- **Paired teaching:** Paired teaching is, as its name implies, teachers teaching together in pairs. Their interactions can be highly structured, as in co-teaching (discussed below), or more loosely structured, with teachers “getting together” to teach a lesson. Student Action for Education (SAFE), a grassroots Sudan-based program established by the British Council Sudan, was a two-year project that trained university students to be English teachers. Though the program used a cascade (train-the-trainers) approach, it supplemented this with weekly mentoring sessions and pairing teachers in schools in Khartoum. By working in pairs, new teacher graduates were able to support each other in lesson planning and delivery, which resulted in greater confidence and more focused support for their students.³⁹
- **Open lessons:** One example of peer teaching that has been used successfully in low-resource environments is open lessons. In an open lesson model, teachers create lessons and invite colleagues (and in some cases, parents and teachers from other schools) to observe the lesson and provide feedback in a post-observation session. Education Development Center (EDC) has used the open lessons approach in schools in tribal insurgency areas of northeast India, as well as in low-income rural and urban communities in southern India and in rural schools in Indonesia. Evaluation results demonstrated that the open lesson model – peer observations, combined with structured feedback, time for discussion and teacher incorporation of feedback into a future lesson – helps teachers in low-resource environments make their teaching practice public, better understand how to reflect on and revise practice and see colleagues as knowledgeable sources of support and guidance (Burns, 2010).
- **Co-teaching:** Co-teaching is a highly structured model of paired teaching and involves several explicit variations. In a co-teaching model, two teachers teach a lesson together. They can do this in a variety of ways – for example, dividing up the lesson *chronologically* (i.e., one teacher teaches for the first half of class; the other for the second half of class) or *physically* (i.e., students are divided into two groups and each teacher teaches one group within a separate physical space). Another method is for one teacher to lead a class activity while the other teacher circulates among students to make sure they understand. Co-teaching is often carried out with a more experienced teacher working with a less experienced teacher or two teachers of comparable skills teaching together. Both variations have been used successfully by EDC in projects in rural parts of Indonesia.

39 Thanks to Paul Fean, (formerly) British Council, Sudan, for this information.

The joint enterprise of co-planning and co-instructing offers numerous benefits to teachers. Some of these are noted here:

- **Complementarity:** A teacher who is strong in one area (e.g., discipline) can model strategies for a teacher who is weaker in this area.
- **Modeling:** Teachers demonstrate for one another different ways of communicating, presenting information and asking questions. In many locations, these may not be optimal ways but the fact that they are different can spur reflection and conversation.
- **Support:** In planning and teaching together, teachers lessen the traditional isolation of solo practice. They can also help one another figure out how to improve practices and work with harder-to-reach students.
- **Instructional consistency:** Instructional practices begin to become more similar and more consistent.
- **Reflection:** As they plan and teach together, teachers observe one another's thinking and practice. If followed by structured time for debriefing, teachers can work together to improve their teaching.

TEACHER LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Teachers are often surrounded by expertise – that is, other teachers. Though many teachers in many fragile contexts lack basic teaching and even content skills, other teachers possess those skills, and others still have accumulated the wisdom of practice over many years of teaching. Similarly, many teachers, especially those who come from local communities, may have deep knowledge about a community, its families and students, which is valuable in terms of working with students.

Structured *teacher learning communities* that allow teachers to come together in communities at a classroom/school level within structured programs appear to be effective and promising professional practice. Though, again, more research in highly fragile contexts is needed here.

Teacher learning communities (sometimes referred to as “teacher learning circles” or “continuous professional development clusters”) are becoming increasingly popular in international educational development projects. Below, we discuss two variations of teacher learning circles from two countries struggling with their own variation of fragility – Lebanon and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Lebanon: Teacher Learning Circles (TLCs) have been used to supplement the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) Training of Trainers program focused on helping teachers improve content knowledge and pedagogical skills. MEHE has begun supplementing this training using teacher learning circles and subject hubs.

A Teacher Learning Circle is a teacher-initiated classroom investigation. It involves four to eight subject-area teachers and a facilitator who come together eight to 10 times a year to work on areas that can be improved further. The TLC facilitator could be the subject coordinator, if he or she exists in the school. TLCs meet regularly to develop ways to assess students' mastery of the content, while also reflecting on the relationship between their teaching practices and student learning outcomes. In addition, they encourage peer observation and provide opportunities for teachers to exchange experiences and lessons learned to improve their teaching practices inside the classroom.

The purpose of these TLCs is to provide a platform for teachers to collaborate in order to improve student learning outcomes. Experience shows that teacher capacity building that emphasizes the use of formative assessment along with peer observation and reflection ultimately has the potential to improve student learning outcomes. Furthermore, when professional development takes place in a collaborative setting among teachers who can support each other through ongoing reflection on how to improve their instruction, the results are even greater (Birenbaum, Kimron, Shilton, & Shahaf-Barzilay, 2009; Levine, 2010; Lieberman, 2009; Nelson, Slavitz, Perkins, & Hathorn, 2008).

TLC members start by collecting data about students through a pre-test designed to assess the learners' mastery of specific subject area skills. The TLC teachers reflect on and discuss how to face the learning challenges that emerged from the pre-test and how to adjust their teaching practices accordingly. During the implementation of proposed changes, teachers are encouraged to observe their peers' teaching and provide constructive feedback. After the material has been taught again with the new practices, the learning outcomes are assessed through the post-test. The cycle then goes on this way as teachers seek to ensure that their students are achieving progress in the learning process. Using a "critical friend" protocol with structured questions, teachers can ask probing questions that surface one another's tacit and explicit knowledge. For a "critical friend" approach to work, professional development providers, teachers themselves or head teachers must establish an environment of trust and mutual respect.

Democratic Republic of Congo: The International Rescue Committee's (IRC) early-grade reading project in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) has also used Teacher Learning Circles as part of its professional development model. In this case, TLCs function as school-based study groups where teachers regularly meet to provide support to one another. Within these TLCs, teachers carry out the following actions:

1. **Reflect** on successes/challenges in the classroom as well as troubleshoot potential solutions;
2. **Learn** new content as well as reinforce previously learned concepts;
3. **Plan** and practice how to use the new/reinforced content and techniques; and
4. **Take action** in the classroom.

Research from the DRC suggests that, in TLCs that function more regularly, teachers share more about their teaching practices, share their materials and tackle classroom-based challenges together. Such TLCs are characterized by collegial atmospheres where teachers support one another technically, socially and emotionally. Teachers see each other as “friends;” they try out new teaching techniques alone and together; and they build their own competencies. In essence, TLCs that function well can lead to communities of practice where teachers adopt more student-centered teaching techniques, demonstrate a belief in their own competencies (positive self-efficacy), encourage one another and serve as role models for one another.

In contrast, in schools where TLCs function irregularly, teacher relationships appear strained; there are lower rates of participation; teachers share less; they use fewer types of instructional innovations in their teaching; and teachers demonstrate low levels of self-efficacy. This may be due to the ongoing conflict in the DRC where certain teachers have been directly impacted by conflict. Other teachers may be indirectly impacted by conflict, where the Ministry of Education has not been able to provide consistent salaries and administrative funds to schools because of increased military budget spending. All of these factors, combined with a lack of leadership and community support, negatively impact teachers' willingness to participate in TLCs.

Teacher participation, sharing and attempting techniques within TLCs that work well, even in emergency contexts, have been shown to positively impact teachers' motivation and the school environment. In schools where TLCs function regularly, teachers talk about being intrinsically “satisfied” and feel a sense of pride in their schools (positive school environment) because other schools view them as a model to follow. This impact on motivation is particularly important given the demotivation that teachers in low-resource, conflict and emergency environments often feel.

PROFESSIONAL TEACHING AND LEARNING CYCLE (PTLC)

A Professional Teaching and Learning Cycle (PTLC) is a model for the stages of a process to support teacher-led professional learning (Cowan, Joyner, & Beckwith, 2012). PLTCs have been used in many fragile environments within the US – in schools on the Texas-Mexico border with teachers who work with migrant children from Mexico and refugee children fleeing urban gang violence in Honduras and El Salvador; in Native American reservations; and in inner-city urban US school districts. The PLTC model follows the following sequence:

- Teachers meet together on a regular – ideally weekly – basis.
- Together, teachers study content standards (much like teachers study the curriculum in Lesson Study).
- Teachers examine formal and informal student assessment data to decide together the priority areas for their attention.

- Teachers then select particular areas of the curriculum on which they wish to focus their learning.
- Together they study the concepts and content underlying the priority areas they have selected and develop lesson plans.
- Teachers then teach these lessons independently (Tobia, 2007).

The next series of steps are the most powerful.

- Teachers bring student work generated during the lesson to their next meeting to examine where students were successful and where they were not.
- In collaboration, these teachers work together to determine possible causes for student misunderstandings and errors.
- They work through the lesson plan to try to determine where students may have gone off track.
- They plan how to provide additional instruction and support to students who failed to understand the concepts of focus in the lesson. In this way, teachers have chosen what they need to learn, worked together to learn it and assessed the success of their use of what they have learned (Tobia, 2007, pp. 4-5).

Thus, the PTLC provides a structure for “what teachers do” in a professional learning community (Tobia, 2007). PLTCs normally do not require outside experts – unless teachers decide they need the support of content or pedagogical experts (though until capacity is created among teachers, they will need an outside expert). It occurs at the school site, so teachers don’t need to travel to a workshop. It builds a community of practice. Within this structure, teachers come together around a common topic that they have chosen as a focus for learning (a community of interest), learn content and pedagogy together (a community of learning) and take action together to improve student learning through collaborative problem solving (a community of practice) (Burns & Dimock, 2007).

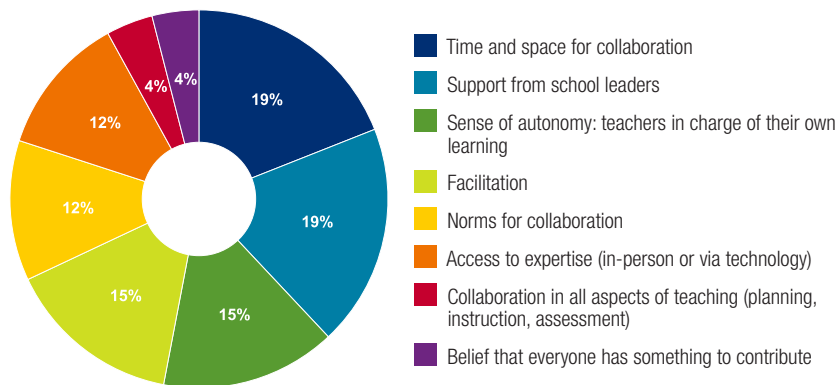
The PTLC meets most, if not all, of the national standards for professional learning developed by the US organization, Learning Forward (2011). While the PTLC may sound simple, it is not necessarily easy to implement. Nor does it proceed in a lock-step fashion. Access to expertise when needed must be available, whether in person or via telecommunications. Teachers must be supported by leaders as they learn to collaborate because collaboration is not necessarily a natural act given the isolationist culture of teaching. For the learning process to occur, school leadership and teachers must believe that they should be, and are, in charge of their own professional learning. Further, they must be provided time and space to engage in that learning.

WHAT MUST BE IN PLACE FOR SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATION TO OCCUR?

There's a mistaken presumption that collaboration just happens and that it needs little planning or investment. This is not true. As Figure 9 shows, for *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants, successful collaboration demands certain inputs. It must convey the belief that all teachers have ideas worth sharing. It must be carefully planned, nurtured and supported (with dedicated time, space, resources and access to expertise). Teachers must learn communication and working skills and norms for successful collaboration. Teachers must come to value the collaboration and see results so these collaborative structures can be sustained after a donor or emergency education or humanitarian agency leaves. School leaders must believe this collaboration is valuable for the school and provide teachers with opportunities to collaborate at every level – from planning to teaching (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hattie, 2009; Burns & Dimock, 2007; Lieberman, 2009; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2013; Mourshed, Chijioke, & Barber, 2010).

Finally, collaboration must be deep and rich enough to allow teachers to learn from shared experience and the accumulation of evidence of improved learning outcomes. When these conditions are in place and when teachers see improvements in student learning and connect these to changes in their teaching, they change not just their practices, but their beliefs about how children learn and the particular instructional approaches most optimal for children's learning. This is the beginning of sustainability.

Figure 9: What conditions must be present for successful teacher collaboration? (Chart displays percentages of *TPD in Crisis* author and participant responses to this question)



LOW-COST OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER COLLABORATION

There are numerous low-cost ways to promote opportunities for teacher collaboration. These may include:

- Establishing time and space each week or month with teachers from a school or area schools to share experiences and knowledge.
- Assigning teachers to work together in pairs so they can plan and co-teach together.
- Assigning “homework” for each teacher to research on a specific topic (through books, radio, television or speaking with community members or education staff) and come back as a group to teach each other.
- Holding open lessons/classrooms in or across schools so that teachers can see one another teach.
- Asking the school or community to establish a “learning center” for teachers. This may be a small space where teachers have quiet time to reflect and prepare for lessons, meet with their peers and store teaching and learning materials.
- Having teachers meet on a regular basis to develop low-cost or no-cost teaching and learning materials together with community members, parents, other teachers or small groups of learners.



Copyright: Veejay Villafranca/Getty Images for Save the Children

CONCLUSION

The experiences of the *TPD in Crisis* authors suggest that when schools create the time, space and emotional and logistical supports for productive collaboration among teachers, the benefits include greater consistency in instruction, more willingness to share practices and try new ways of teaching, a greater *esprit de corps* among teachers and more success in solving problems of practice. A number of large-scale studies, many conducted globally, have substantiated these findings by noting how teacher collaboration and community building deepen teachers' knowledge, build their skills, improve instruction and narrow the achievement gaps in math and science among low- and middle-income students (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Collaboration increases both the individual and social capital of a school. *Individual capital* refers to personal ability and agency while *social capital* is the networks of relationships among people who work together in an organization, enabling that organization to function effectively (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2013). Of the two, social capital is more important than human capital for overall school improvement – though human capital is an ingredient of social capital (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2013). Schools function better when the collective ties of its members lead to an improvement in the “common good” of the school (Burns, 2011). Even teachers with low human capital who happen to work in a school with higher social capital attain better student learning outcomes than those in schools with lower social capital. In other words, being surrounded by colleagues who work effectively “rubs off” on other teachers and makes them also work more effectively (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2013).



Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>

REFERENCES

- Avalos, B. (1998). School-based teacher development: The experience of teacher professional groups in secondary schools in Chile. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14(3), 257-271. doi: 10.1016/S0742-051X(97)00040-1
- Birenbaum, M., Kimron, H., Shilton, H., & Shahaf-Barzilay, R. (2009). Cycles of inquiry: Formative assessment in service of learning in classrooms and in school-based professional communities. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*. 35(4), 130-149. doi: 10.1016/j.stueduc.2010.01.001
- Burns, M., & Dimock, K. V. (2007). *Technology as a catalyst for school communities: Beyond boxes and bandwidth*. Lanham, MD: Rowan and Littlefield.
- Burns, M. (2010). *Active learning in math and science: Case study report on technology tools for teaching and training (T4)*. Report prepared for United States Agency for International Development. Bangalore, India: Education Development Center.
- Burns, M. (2011). *Distance education for teacher training: Modes, models and methods*. Retrieved from <http://go.edc.org/07xd>
- Burns, M., Pierson, E., & Reddy, S. (2014). Working together: How teachers teach and students learn in collaborative learning environments. *International Journal of Instruction*, 7(1), 19-34. Retrieved from http://www.e-iji.net/dosyalar/iji_2014_1_2.pdf
- Cowan, D., Joyner, S., & Beckwith, S. (2012). *Getting serious about the system: A field book for district and school leaders*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N., Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional Learning in the Learning Profession: A Status Report on Teacher Development in the United States and Abroad*. Oxford, OH: Learning Forward
- Frisoli, P. St. J. (2014). *Teachers' experiences of professional development in (post)crisis Katanga province, southeastern Democratic Republic of Congo: A case study of teacher learning circles* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2013). The power of professional capital: With an investment in collaboration, teachers become nation builders. *The Journal of Staff Development*, 34(3), 36-39. Retrieved from <http://learningforward.org/docs/default-source/jsd-june-2013/hargreaves343.pdf>

- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (n.d.). *Implementation tools: Standard 2: Training, professional development and support: Teaching and learning*. Retrieved from <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1044>
- Learning Forward. (2011). *Standards for professional learning*. Retrieved from <http://learningforward.org/docs/august-2011/referenceguide324.pdf?sfvrsn=2>
- Levine, T. H. (2010). Tools for the study and design of collaborative teacher learning: The affordances of different conceptions of teacher community and activity theory. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 37, 109-130. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ872652.pdf>
- Lieberman, J. (2009). Reinventing teacher professional norms and identities: The role of lesson study and learning communities. *Professional Development in Education*, 35(1), 83-99. doi 10.1080/13674580802264688
- Mourshed, M., Chijioke, C., & Barber, M. (2010). *How the world's most improved school systems keep getting better*. London, UK: McKinsey and Company.
- Nelson, T. H., Slavit, D., Perkins, M., & Hathorn, T. (2008). A culture of collaborative inquiry: Learning to develop and support professional learning communities. *Teachers College Record*, 110(6), 1269-1303.
- Tobia, E. (2007). The professional teaching and learning cycle: Implementing a standards- based approach to professional development. *SEDL Letter*, 19(1). Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/pubs/sedl-letter/v19n01/professional-teaching-and-learning-cycle.html>
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the U.S. and abroad*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.



Copyright: Susan Warner / Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 4:

PROVIDE TEACHERS WITH ONGOING SUPPORT

KEY POINTS

- Support is especially important for new teachers, teachers operating in difficult conditions and teachers with limited professional training or education of their own.
- Support for teachers in fragile contexts can involve face-to-face support, classroom-observation, feedback, project-based learning, formative assessment and distance education.
- Coaching (video-coaching, peer-coaching, external coaching) empowers teachers to enact a particular set of skills and strategies independently and with fidelity and quality. Specific examples of good practice are available from Indonesia, Gambia, Bangladesh and Liberia.
- Technology or distance-based support can involve audio instruction, mobile-phone coaching, video training and online learning.

Mary Burns, Education Development Center;

Hannah Snowden, UNESCO;

Silje Sjøvaag Skeie, Norwegian Refugee Council

“Teachers often attend workshops and are inspired and motivated to apply their new learning and skills. (But) upon returning to school they find no support, no motivation, and no encouragement from the school director, so, in too many cases the teachers revert back to doing what they have done before.”

John Morefield, Independent consultant, USA

“Only the tiniest percent (single digit) of people who receive training or some sort of innovation will, in fact, implement it alone, without sustained prodding or support. The current model of TPD...which conflates inputs with outcomes is beset by an amazing amount of leakage – teachers who never implement what they have learned.”

Mary Burns, Education Development Center, USA

“Coaching is still seen as expensive because of the intensity and the required resources in the frequent/scheduled interactions with teachers over a period of time. But coaching or mentoring should be introduced as a quality initial investment of teacher professional development – both for pre-service and in-service teachers. Training in a cascade approach will cost more because of poor transfer of training and reduced quality.”

Petra Bodrogini, World Bank, Indonesia

INTRODUCTION

Professional development in many large-scale donor projects is characterized by a major *theoretical* flaw: It assumes that teachers – many of whom are poorly trained, motivated and remunerated – can learn new strategies, skills or ideas and that they will return to their school and transfer with fidelity and quality this learning to students who have widely differing abilities. It also assumes that these students will show increased academic attainment as a result of this professional development.

This theoretical flaw results in *program design* flaws. Many of the world’s poorest teachers receive a steady diet of workshops or trainings and no (or minimal) support or follow-up.

The result is *implementation failure* in the form of:

- **Leakage** – teachers who do not transfer learning from a “training” to their classroom;
- **Poor fidelity of implementation** – teachers who implement what they have learned but do so poorly or haphazardly or with poor quality;
- **Relapse or recidivism** – teachers who may implement what they have learned initially but quickly revert to “old” ways.

For instance, a United States Agency for International Development (USAID) evaluation of a large-scale Afghani teacher training project focused on active learning methodologies noted that “poor supervisory support” for teachers limited the success of professional development programs, stating in particular that, “Teachers also felt that they were not adequately prepared professionally and would appreciate more feedback and supervision” (Menon, 2008, p. 16).

There are no exact figures on the leakage associated with the cascade approach to training, so common in low-income contexts. Some estimates put its implementation rate at less than 10 percent. These low rates of transfer and implementation are true even for teachers who are considered “champions” or who volunteer for professional development (Showers & Joyce, 1996).

For authors and participants in the *TPD in Crisis* series, the message is clear. Because so many teachers in fragile contexts are so poorly trained, have poor skills and work in the most challenging conditions, the traditional professional development model

of trainings without support is of limited value. Teachers in fragile contexts, like their counterparts in more stable environments, need ongoing support during and after professional development. (Indeed, authors would argue that teachers in fragile contexts need more support because of the multitude of vexing challenges they face.)

This is the fourth major recommendation from the *TPD in Crisis* discussion series.

This support is especially necessary for new teachers, teachers with poor training, teachers teaching outside of their content areas, those teaching in difficult environments (e.g., large numbers of students, at-risk students or in conflict or post-conflict zones), teachers who are being asked to implement complex practices (e.g., different types of literacy techniques), teachers who need ongoing support, monitoring and guidance from well-trained and skilled peers and/or outside experts. This chapter will discuss face-to-face and technology-based support for teachers.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHER SUPPORT

The research on ongoing support as a driver of teacher change is clear (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Showers & Joyce, 1996). Teachers who receive on-the-job support, guidance and feedback from an external support person or peers practice new skills and strategies more frequently, apply them more appropriately and adopt a more diverse range of instructional practices than teachers who do not receive such supports (Showers & Joyce, 1996). Simple support strategies, such as teacher observation and feedback by a skilled educator, have been shown to positively influence teacher practice and motivation (OECD, 2009).

Research also demonstrates that teacher professional development (TPD) that includes peer coaching, study teams, peer visits, feedback and reflection, has generally an 80-90 percent implementation rate, versus a 5-10 percent implementation rate for TPD that is focused on theory and 10-15 percent implementation rate for TPD focused on practice without coaching or support (Joyce & Showers, 1995; Showers, Murphy, & Joyce, 1996). In short, a little coaching goes a long way to help teachers transfer learning from the training room to the classroom (Fixsen et al., 2005).

WHAT DO WE MEAN BY “SUPPORT”?

Teacher “support” is often poorly understood. Indeed, support is not one type of help, but rather a multilayered array of different types of assistance that help teachers successfully transfer learning from a professional development setting to a classroom setting. For teachers, support often includes the following:

- **Administrative support:** This can mean instructional leadership, compliance monitoring by principals, official recognition, serving as an interlocutor between school and district or school and community, expressions of support for implementation of new innovations and administrative decisions that provide teachers with time and resources to carry out new instructional practices.

- **Instructional support:** Typically, this means help from a coach, mentor or in-class support person who models, guides, co-implements or helps the teacher with content, instruction, assessment, classroom management and the conceptual and logistical issues arising from change.
- **Emotional support:** Implementing new approaches are difficult. A lesson won't go as planned or students may not be ready to participate in more active learning methodologies. Teachers want to know that, if they fail or struggle with implementation of new strategies, their colleagues and school leader will still provide encouragement and withhold censure or rebuke. Emotional support involves being in a professional environment characterized by listening, withholding judgment, loyalty, responsiveness, respect, honesty and care.
- **School-based community:** A community of colleagues also undergoing the same professional development is a significant source of support, as discussed in the previous chapter. This valuing of another teacher's perspective is a key component of constructivist learning theory.
- **Technical support:** In the case of PD focused on using technology, learning kits or science lab equipment. This includes help on how to use a particular innovation, troubleshooting help and the availability of someone nearby to fix a computer or help with lab equipment when they don't work.
- **Community and/or family support:** Formal and informal recognition and approval by parents of teachers' efforts can manifest itself in terms of resources or materials for the classroom.
- **Teaching and learning materials:** Teachers need this most basic level of support to gain access to authentic resources or to purchase or create curriculum-specific teaching and learning materials.
- **Time:** Release time for teachers to meet in-class support people is critical, as is dedicated time during the school day or week to engage in the extensive planning that is a requirement for learner-centered instruction. "Time" is also invoked by teachers who feel unsure of how to embark on change (Burns, 2011, p. 204).

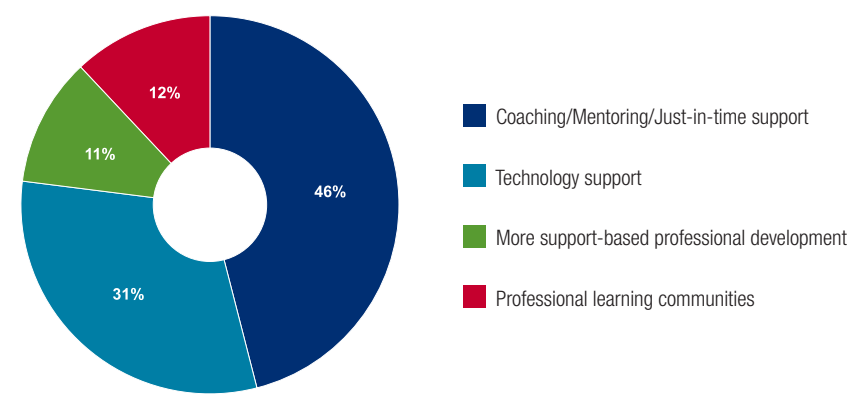
Though all forms of support are important, this chapter focuses primarily on instructional support.⁴⁰

How Do We Provide Teacher Support?

Authors and participants in the *TPD in Crisis* series suggest several strategies for providing ongoing support to teachers in fragile contexts. These are categorized in Figure 10, and (with the exception of learning communities, discussed in the previous chapter on collaboration) each will be discussed in detail.

⁴⁰ More information on ways to support teachers can be found in the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 4: Teachers and Other Education Personnel, Standard 3: Support and Supervision: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>.

Figure 10: How can we best support teachers in fragile contexts? (Chart displays percentages of responses of *TPD in Crisis* author and participant responses to this question)



COACHING AND MENTORING

By far, for *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants, coaching and mentoring are the most useful ways of supporting teachers and the most useful model of professional development. “Coaching and mentoring” are often conflated as if they were one intervention. Though similar, coaching and mentoring are distinct interventions. (Similarly, for each, there are multiple types of mentoring and coaching.) For this reason, we examine coaching and mentoring separately.

COACHING

Coaching is a method of directing, instructing and training a person or group of people to achieve a particular goal or to develop a set of specific skills. Within education, coaches have a number of roles, including classroom supporters, resource providers, facilitators, catalysts for change or instructional coaches. Unlike a mentor, a coach may be a peer or have the same amount of experience as the person he/she is coaching. While coaching involves a number of tasks, such as supervision, co-teaching, assessment and feedback and provision of emotional support (Spouse, 2001), a coach’s main goal is to empower the teacher to enact a particular set of skills and strategies independently and with fidelity and quality (Killion & Harrison, 2006; Burns, 2011, p. 73; Fixsen et al., 2005).

When done well, coaching has been shown to help teachers collaboratively develop skills, transfer concepts conveyed through training and enjoy collegial partnerships.



Copyright: Susan Warner / Save the Children

There are numerous *types of coaches* – instructional coaches, literacy coaches, content coaches, technology coaches, data coaches, etc. There are also a number of different *coaching strategies* (cognitive coaching, technical coaching, collegial coaching, etc.). In addition, there are many types of *coaching relationships* – peer coaching and external coaching. Here we conflate all types of and strategies for coaching. However, we will explore peer and expert coaching since there are specific examples from fragile contexts.

PEER COACHING

Peer coaching involves being directed, instructed, trained and supported by one's peers (in this case, teachers) to achieve a particular goal or to develop a set of specific skills (Burns, 2011). Peer coaching can also be carried out by a head teacher (though the term “peer” may be rather expansive in this case).

Successful peer coaching depends on a number of factors. The needs of those being coached must be clearly identified; education systems must invest time and resources to create strong and reciprocal relationships among teachers school-wide; and peer coaches should be intensively prepared in content, instruction, assessment and classroom management. When teachers have a certain level of capacity, peer coaching can result in quality implementation of the content and skills learned in workshops or seminars. Results also include greater consistency in instruction, greater teacher willingness to share practices and try new ways of teaching, teachers becoming more comfortable with feedback and more involved in professional development and more success in solving problems of practice (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Video-based peer coaching: One example of peer coaching comes from the University of Amsterdam and Edukans' project in Ethiopia and Uganda. This peer-coaching model uses video reflection for teacher improvement. Lessons are filmed and analyzed by the teacher alongside peers, facilitators or coaches (Hoeksma & Sieswerda, 2010). (The use of technology for TPD in fragile contexts will be discussed further in Recommendation 7.)

Instructional rounds: A more sophisticated example of peer coaching is instructional rounds. This involves a group of peers observing a colleague's practice and giving structured feedback. Based on a medical rounds model, instructional rounds have been shown to help teachers reflect on their own pedagogical approaches, promote greater collaboration among teachers and improve student learning by actually focusing on what and how students are learning (City, Elmore, Fiarman, & Teitel, 2009).

Peer coaches must also be given time and support to work on instruction and interaction with teachers, versus administrative work. The Kenyan Education Sector Support Program (KESSP 2005–2010) peer coaching program is illustrative of this challenge. Key Resource Teachers (KRTs) were selected from each school to move TPD away from a cascade approach toward more sustained, school-based professional development. While teachers who received instruction from KRTs showed some successes, their heavy workload and time spent on administrative duties left less time and energy for peer coaching (Hardman et al, 2011).

EXTERNAL COACHING

Most coaching involves external coaching – that is, an expert or competent “other” who may be at a local education office, associated with a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) or from a local teacher training college. In many cases, because of a shortage of local expertise, school leaders or supervisors may be tapped to be coaches, though we advise against this because of their supervisory role. In such cases, particular care and training must take place so that the supervisor-as-coach or principal-as-coach does not act in a judgmental or evaluative manner.

Though far from common in donor-funded programs, coaching has been increasingly used in several low-resource contexts, such as Gambia and Mali. Four coaching interventions from low-resource environments are described here:

The Gambia: As part of the Early Reading in National Languages Pilot program, the Gambian Ministry of Education, with technical support from the World Bank/Global Partnership for Education, developed a coaching program to support teachers in reading instruction. Thirty teachers, masters of national languages as well as trainers of trainers in the adult literacy domain, were selected and trained on principles of coaching and on the methodology of teaching reading in national languages. This group of national trainers, in turn, selected and prepared 60 teachers to become coaches for 150 grade one teachers.

Coaches provided continuous hands-on, school-based practical support to teachers teaching reading for the first time in their national languages. The coaching approach included helping teachers understand content and learn certain reading methodologies, and it also modeled teaching instructional approaches.

The pilot coaching program was evaluated at the end of the first year, showing promising results. Results seemed to suggest that the coaching model successfully introduced new teaching skills and practices.⁴¹

Indonesia: As part of USAID’s Decentralizing Basic Education 2 program, the Education Development Center, in 2009-2010, developed a coaching model to help teachers in rural schools implement learner-centered instructional practices as part of a one-computer classroom project. Three hundred teachers received weekly coaching from a pair of coaches (60 in all) who came to the school two or three times per week. The coaches themselves, who were master teacher trainers, subject-area specialists and/or supervisors, participated in a five-month online program where each week they learned a particular coaching technique online and then implemented it with their coaching partner as they worked with a group of teachers in schools. The coaching program was based on a gradual release approach in which coaches modeled a learner-centered activity for teachers, helped designers adapt this model for their classrooms and subject areas, co-taught the lesson with teachers, helped each teacher teach the lesson alone, and provided observation and feedback on the teacher’s “solo teaching” episode.

41 Thanks to Aglaia Zafeirakou, Senior Education Specialist, Global Partnership for Education Secretariat, for this information.

Many of these teachers had earlier participated in a large training from an international technology company, but fewer than 5 percent implemented what they had learned. In contrast, after being coached, 98 percent implemented their learner-centered activities using one computer.

Bangladesh: In 2010, a professional development program instituted by a Bangladeshi NGO utilized a coaching program to ensure continuous support for 1,600 teachers in approximately 400 Bangladeshi primary schools. The school supervisor performed the role of a coach and worked with five schools (20 teachers in total), helping the teachers implement what they learned from in-service sessions. Repeated classroom observations and interviews with teachers suggested that the technical and, at times, emotional support provided by school supervisors was a key feature in the continuous professional development of teachers. The familiarity that experienced supervisors had with each teacher and school enhanced the impact they were able to have on a teacher's ability to properly implement innovative instructional strategies. Challenges and successes experienced by teachers were shared with a supervisor who, in turn, transmitted these experiences vertically within the organization so that trainers and programmers had a greater awareness, understanding and empathy for the role, responsibility and daily challenges facing class teachers. Teachers who received coaching reported feeling more supported in and committed to their own ongoing learning and classroom practice, and they were judged more effective than teachers who did not receive such support and guidance.⁴²

Liberia: An Early Grade Reading Assessment in Liberia found that approximately one-third of grade two students were unable to read a word. As a result, in 2008, the Ministry of Education launched a new program consisting of teacher education and support, structured lesson plans, teaching resource materials and books for children to take home. Teachers participated in an intensive one-week course about early grade reading instruction and how to use formative and diagnostic assessment to identify and support weak learners. This was followed up with classroom-based support from trained mentors over two years. As a result of this intensive training and support, pupils in this program increased their reading comprehension scores by 130 percent, compared with 33 percent for non-participants (UNESCO, 2014).

COACHING CONSIDERATIONS

Effective coaching offers numerous benefits to teachers. It refines and solidifies crude and fragile knowledge, builds teacher efficacy (that is, teachers begin to see that students are capable of learning or performing well), helps teachers implement new practices and can improve teacher confidence to the point where teachers are able to coach each other, provided that the teachers continue to receive periodic follow-up in training settings (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

However, research notes that, while effective coaching is the most successful factor in

⁴² Thanks to Dr. Jaddon Park, Director, Ullens Kindergarten and Director of Ullens Early Childhood Teacher Development Program, Nepal, for this information.

terms of successful teacher implementation of programs and innovations, its quality is impacted by a number of intersecting factors. These include:

- **Availability:** A sufficient supply of coaches who are experts in content, techniques and rationales of the program (Denton, Vaughn, & Fletcher, 2003). Authors strongly believe that donors and ministries of education should focus efforts on developing systems of teacher support with highly-skilled coaches and mentors.⁴³
- **Training and support:** Ongoing training and support for coaches is necessary so that they can provide specialized coaching functions for teachers who require more support and organizational leadership (McCormick & Brennan, 2001).
- **Caseloads:** In addition to inadequately trained supervisors, high coach caseloads are major impediments to adequate supervision and coaching (Kavanagh et al, 2003).
- **Non-coaching duties:** Coaching quality often suffers if coaches are asked to focus too much time on administrative duties and paperwork versus learning outcomes (Kavanagh et al, 2003).
- **Other factors:** This includes time allotted to do the work, reluctance to seek information from the coach, inadequate resources, role confusion due to the role of supervisor and coach, poor match between coach and practitioners and lack of availability of coaches (especially in rural areas) (McCormick & Brennan, 2001; Kavanagh et al, 2003).

MENTORING

Mentoring involves a developmental relationship between a more experienced professional and a less experienced partner. Typically, mentors are established and seasoned teachers charged with the task of helping to train, advise and share practical experience with a teacher who is new to the school. Mentors share their body of experience, impart knowledge, offer wisdom and generally help novices (referred to as protégés or mentees) “learn the ropes” (Killion & Harrison, 2006). Mentoring is slowly taking hold in many low-resource and fragile contexts. In Egypt, the Ministry of Education has implemented a mentoring and induction program for new teachers for a number of years. In Rwanda and Ghana, ministries of education have introduced teacher (or teacher-trainee) mentoring programs. The Norwegian Refugee Council’s Accelerated Learning Program supplements its intensive training for new teachers in four Somali and Sudanese refugee camps in Kenya, as well as in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Afghanistan, with mentoring for these newly trained teachers. Ethiopia’s Higher Diploma Program, a program that prepares teacher educators, includes training on

43 Increasingly, donor RFPs are calling for some kind of coaching. While this new attention is welcome, many of these look suspiciously like cascade approaches – coaches who are trained in 5 weeks who then train other coaches who train other coaches.

mentoring.⁴⁴ How structured, how “high touch” (versus low touch), how formal and how successful such mentoring programs are is not yet known.

Good mentors are encouraging, committed, sensitive, flexible, diplomatic, patient and willing to share information, credit and recognition (McCormick & Brennan, 2001). Mentoring has been shown to aid in teacher retention and improve the professional skills of mentor-teachers (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011), especially mid-career teachers who have been shown to gain a number of new skills and reinforce certain competencies as a result of the mentoring process. Mentoring at an early career stage had a positive impact on mentees’ teaching practice, career development and commitment to teaching, as well as on student achievement (Moor et al., 2005).

Mentors can work with teachers or teacher educators. In the Indonesian coaching example mentioned in the previous section, each coach had a mentor. Despite the fact that coaches were participating in a time- and labor-intensive online course and rates of attrition for online learning are typically high, 89 percent of coaches successfully completed their online course of study.⁴⁵

Like any skilled teacher support person, mentors must be carefully recruited, instructed and supported so that they can develop the combination of cognitive and affective skills necessary for successfully supporting new teachers.

TECHNOLOGY-BASED SUPPORTS

The support discussed so far has been human, face-to-face support, but technology can also provide ongoing support and coaching to teachers, as suggested by *TPD in Crisis* authors. Though technology will be discussed in greater detail later in this guide, here we discuss three forms of technology-based supports for teachers in fragile contexts: interactive radio and audio instruction, mobile learning and flipped learning. These are by no means the only examples.

Interactive Radio Instruction/Interactive Audio Instruction

Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) and Interactive Audio Instruction (IAI), in addition to providing instruction to students, can also provide job-embedded, just-in-time instructional support to teachers. IRI and IAI have been used extensively as a form of instruction to students and teachers in fragile states, including those in and/or emerging from conflict. IRI and IAI offer learning opportunities to teachers and students in areas experiencing acute emergencies, natural disasters (depending on the degree of disruption or radio communication towers and/or electricity), crisis or conflict, and in areas where infrastructure is limited, where qualified teachers are scarce (or where there may be no teachers), where schools have been destroyed, and/or where traveling

44 See <http://www.moe.gov.et/English/Resources/Documents/ment.pdf>.

45 Additional information about mentoring can be found in the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning, Section 2: Training, Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.



Copyright: Lane Harthill / Save the Children

to school may imperil teachers and students. In locations that lack a radio signal or a strong radio signal, radio programs have been disseminated via mobile phones, MP3 players, CD-ROM players or audio cassettes, as in Bangladesh, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC),⁴⁶ Pakistan, India, Afghanistan, Madagascar, South Sudan, Rwanda, Guinea and Mali.

IRI/IAI is well documented as a vehicle for *student* learning but less so for *teacher* learning. In terms of the latter, one of the least discussed but more powerful components of IRI/IAI as a teacher professional development vehicle is that it is often accompanied by ongoing face-to-face support for teachers. For instance, from 1998-2005, the USAID-funded, EDC-administered Fundamental Quality in Education Level (FQEL) project in Guinea used bi-monthly *cercles de renforcement* to help teachers using IRI to reinforce lesson planning, assessment and instruction. The cercles also reinforced basic teacher skills – communicating with students, organizing students in groups, gender-sensitive education and identification and development of teaching and learning materials. The *cercles de renforcement* were carried nationwide by Guinea's 425 Délégués Scolaire d'Éducation Élémentaire (DSEE) charged with teacher training by the Ministry of Education. They were instructed in how to provide teacher support by EDC (Burns, 2006).

Mobile Coaching

Mobile phones can offer direct coaching and support to teachers via voice, SMS and SMS conferencing. This coaching can be from an external expert or peers via the use of free social networking tools, like *Mxit* via SMS and/or the voice capabilities of phones, as with *Stereo.me*. Indeed “mobile coaching” as part of formal teacher professional development has proliferated in Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, as teachers are increasingly provided with content, curriculum, short video examples of good teaching practice and audio supports.

For all the potential and excitement about mobile phones as teacher support tools, three caveats are worth bearing in mind. First, in some of the world's poorest places, like the Democratic Republic of Congo and Central African Republic, mobile infrastructure is still poor and mobile ownership is often limited to capital cities. Additionally, in conflict zones, cellular towers and cellular services are the first types of infrastructure that are disrupted or destroyed. Similarly, for all the excitement about mobile phones, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, their ownership is still concentrated in urban areas and in a small group of countries – Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya and South Africa.

Next, the real power of mobile devices rests with the ability to transmit data, use educational apps and access streaming video. In other words, the real power of mobile devices is mobile computing that demands *smart phones*. Yet, in the world's poorest places (cheap smart phone knock-offs notwithstanding), most phone ownership is limited to simple phones or feature phones, which have far less capacity as teacher learning devices.

46 IRI/IAI is not a silver bullet. For example, there are areas of the DRC that simply cannot support IRI or IAI because these areas are inaccessible, procurement of batteries not possible or because equipment has been stolen as soon as it arrives. Similarly, IRI, when broadcast by community radio stations (versus national ones), has seen severe degradation in coverage and quality.

Finally, there is little research at this point on the effectiveness of mobile phones as teacher professional development or support tools. Professional development designers and planners must take care to guard against a reductionist vision of learning that conflates teacher support with little more than text messages, phone calls and audio snippets – versus sustained face-to-face guidance from more knowledgeable and skilled teacher support personnel (Burns, 2013).

Flipped Professional Development

The flipped (or “inverted”) classroom, though widely used in developed contexts for student learning, has been little used in terms of teacher learning, particularly in fragile contexts. Though arguably, IRI and IAI are examples of flipped professional development. “Flipped professional development” describes a TPD approach in which teachers receive exposure to course content (for example, theory, demonstration and models of practice). Then money and time that would be normally spent on trainings – particularly since so many of them are theoretical or involve lecture – are invested instead in live, school-based coaching and support for teachers as they implement what they have learned from video or Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs). This way, scarce professional development funds are spent on the intervention that is often most expensive but which possesses the greatest impact – school-based human support.

In a flipped model, content can be delivered via video on laptops, tablets, television, mobile phones or text. Content can also be delivered through teacher participation via MOOCs (at Internet cafés or telecenters), which promise to become more common as vehicles for student and teacher learning in low-resource environments.

Flipped professional development offers several important advantages that can benefit teachers in fragile contexts (especially in donor-funded programs). First, it doubles teachers’ exposure to learning by offering learning opportunities before formal face-to-face professional development sessions. Next, it potentially maximizes the impact of professional development by blending technology-based learning with human support. Third, it offers some degree of scale. Because MOOCs or video can add additional teachers at a very low marginal cost, money targeted for professional development can go to more high-impact types of PD, such as coaching. Fourth, such a model offers teachers at least some kind of in-person coaching and support. Finally, the classic model of professional development (explanation of theory, demonstration, planning, practicing and implementation) can be divided between technology and human beings. Technology can focus on theory and demonstration, while coaches, mentors or support staff help with planning, practicing and implementation.

Where there is a functioning networked infrastructure or telecommunication system, technology can offer tremendous potential for reach, thereby furnishing teachers with technology-based coaching or moving the traditional “lecture and demonstration” model of TPD from the face-to-face realm to an online or video-based one. However, for all of its promise, it is important to remember that little research (versus extensive hype) exists in terms of the impact of technology for teacher support in low-resource and fragile

contexts. A number of African nations have attempted to capitalize on newly available teaching methods by using a blended learning approach similar to the ones described above. In Botswana, for example, the University of Botswana provided secondary school science teachers with an online platform for digital collaboration blended with the traditional aspects of professional development, like personal interaction and printed materials. After several months, however, little activity on the online platform had occurred (Phelps & Graham, 2008).

Support-based Professional Development

Ongoing face-to-face support is essential for teacher learning and teacher change (Hord et al., 2006; National Staff Development Council, 2002). If professional development and teacher education programs cannot offer structured supports for teachers as part of formal professional development, educational planners and policymakers should at least consider highly structured or “support-based” professional development models.

These can include technology-based interventions, such as Interactive Radio Instruction/Interactive Audio Instruction (mentioned previously), two-way audio, virtual classes, two-way audio-conferencing or blended learning (either online courses combined with face-to-face support or face-to-face classes combined with online or mobile supports).

These interventions all offer just-in-time, classroom-based, curriculum-supported and highly scaffolded instruction and support that “at-risk” teachers – untrained teachers, struggling teachers, teachers teaching outside their content area, teachers teaching a new grade or subject for the first time or teachers working in areas of crisis or conflict – may find most beneficial.

Clearly, technology-based interventions may not be feasible in areas lacking infrastructure because of poverty, conflict or both. Where highly scaffolded, technology-based professional development is not possible, program designers can use a number of highly structured, face-to-face professional development models that integrate support and learning. For instance:

- **Open lessons:** Mentioned in the previous chapter, in an open-lessons model, teachers create lessons and invite colleagues (and in some cases, parents and teachers from other schools) to observe the lesson and provide feedback in a post-observation session. In contrast to lesson study (see the next model), the focus of open lessons is on *teacher* behavior. If open lessons are used on a regular basis and if there is time for teachers to provide one another with structured feedback, engage in discussion and incorporate feedback into a future lesson, open lessons can provide a venue for teachers to support one another as they build and refine skills.
- **Lesson study:** In lesson study, teachers collaboratively plan, develop or improve a lesson; field test the lesson in a classroom; observe it; make changes; and collect data to see the impact of the lesson on student learning. This usually

occurs over a period of months. In contrast to open lessons, where the focus is on teacher action, the lesson study approach focuses on *student* actions. The design, implementation and revision process of lesson study is highly collaborative and iterative.

- **Study groups:** Teachers agree to meet over a period of weeks or months to study a particular issue (for example, improving student writing). Teachers collaborate, as a single large group or in smaller teams, to study a particular issue with the goal of solving a common problem or creating and implementing a plan to attain a common goal.

Low-Cost Opportunities for Support

There are numerous low-cost opportunities for teacher support. These may include (INEE, n.d.):

- Pairing younger, less experienced teachers with more experienced teachers who can serve as mentors.
- Establishing peer coaching teams where teachers provide one another with guidance and feedback.
- Promoting collaboration among teachers.
- Establishing teacher teams so that teachers work together and support one another.
- Setting up mobile coaching for teachers.
- Advocating for teachers to receive more structured and “support-based” types of professional development like Interactive Audio Instruction, lesson study or study groups.
- Teaching school leaders to conduct non-evaluative classroom observations and feedback that are not linked to the formal appraisal system.
- Encouraging teachers to seek student feedback and suggestions about lessons.

Finally, standardized professional development programs often risk neglecting rural teachers and ignore opportunities to harness existing innovations, which often abound in crisis contexts where people are forced to be creative to survive and thrive. Such innovation can be used to design more creative methods of teacher support. For example, in South Sudan, UNESCO teacher education projects have brought community workers, such as market sellers, farmers, etc., to classrooms to help teachers improve their content skills and show teachers and students how math and science, for example, can be connected to real-world contexts. This approach has stimulated new ideas, promoted the relevance of learning among communities who struggle to find the link between classroom lessons and real life and provided teachers with new and more creative teaching ideas.

CONCLUSION

Change is gradual, contextual and difficult for teachers (Guskey, 2002). Educational policy makers and planners must ensure that teachers, especially those in fragile contexts who face a plethora of educational and non-educational challenges, receive consistent feedback and support. Whether they are learning to adopt a new literacy practice, use an education kit or implement more interactive teaching methods, to implement an innovation well, teachers need ongoing school-based support in which a skilled support person (coach, mentor, etc.) models these new practices, guides and supports them as they implement new practices, observes and provides feedback to help them refine these practices and helps teachers feel both empowered and a greater sense of efficacy.

The kinds and degree of support will differ among locations, so they may not easily fit into development partners' interest in scaling up, but this support is absolutely essential if we are serious about improving teacher quality and, by extension, student learning outcomes.

Finally, in areas of conflict and inter-group animus, whatever support is provided must be undertaken in consideration of local conditions, actors in and drivers of conflict to ensure that this support does not exacerbate already fragile conditions.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards for Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

REFERENCES

- Burns, M. (2006). *Improving teaching quality in Guinea with interactive radio instruction: Working paper 2*. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/mpd5ged>
- Burns, M. (2011). *Distance education for teacher training: Modes, models and methods*. Retrieved from <http://go.edc.org/07xd>
- Burns, M. (2013, August 20). If we text it, will they learn? [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://globalpartnership.org/blog/if-we-%E2%80%98text%E2%80%99-it-will-they-learn>
- City, E. A., Elmore, R. F., Fiarman, S. E., & Teitel, L. (2009). *Instructional rounds in education: A network approach to improving teaching and learning*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Denton C. A, Vaughn S., & Fletcher, J. M. (2003). Bringing research-based practice in reading intervention to scale. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 18(3), 201–211. doi: 10.1111/1540-5826.00075
- Fixsen, D. L., Naoom, S. F., Blase, K. A., Friedman, R. M., & Wallace, F. (2005). *Implementation research: A synthesis of the literature*. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, Louis de la Parte Florida Mental Health Institute, The National Implementation Research Network. Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/bn6w5k8>
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 8(3/4), 381–391. doi: 10.1080/135406002100000512
- Hardman, F., Ackers, J., Abrishamian, N., & O’Sullivan, M. (2011). Developing a systemic approach to teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa: Emerging lessons from Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 41(5), 669–683. doi: 10.1080/03057925.2011.581014
- Hoeksma, M., & Sieswerda, S. (2010). *Learning in process: Quality of teaching and learning in rural Ethiopia*. Amsterdam/Addis Ababa: Graduate School of Child Development and Education, University of Amsterdam.
- Hord, S. M., Rutherford, W. L., Huling-Austin, L., & Hall, G. E. (2006). *Taking charge of change*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Ingersoll, R., & Strong, M. (2011). The impact of induction and mentoring programs for beginning teachers: A critical review of the research. *Review of Education Research*, 81(2), 201–233. doi: 10.3102/0034654311403323
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (n.d.). *Implementation tools: Standard 2: Training, professional development and support: Teaching and learning*. Retrieved from <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1044>
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1980). Improving in-service training: The messages of research. *Educational Leadership*, 37(5), 379–385.
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (2002). *Student achievement through staff development* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Kavanagh, D. J., Spence, S. H., Strong, J., Wilson, J., Sturk, H., & Crow, N. (2003). Supervision practices in allied mental health: Relationships of supervision characteristics to perceived impact and job satisfaction. *Mental Health Services Research*, 5(4), 187–195. doi: 10.1023/A:1026223517172

- Killion, J., & Harrison, C. (2006). *Taking the lead: New roles for teachers and school-based coaches*. Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.
- McCormick, K. M., & Brennan, S. (2001). Mentoring the new professional in interdisciplinary early childhood education: The Kentucky teacher internship program. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 21(3), 131-149. doi: 10.1177/027112140102100301
- Menon, G. (2008). *Active-learning pedagogies: Policy, professional development and classroom practices: A case study of two post-conflict contexts: Afghanistan and Somaliland*. Washington, DC: USAID.
- Moor, H., Halsey, K., Jones, M., Martin, K., Stott, A., Brown, C., & Harland, J. (2005). *Professional development for teachers early in their careers: An evaluation of the early professional development pilot scheme* (DfES Research Report 613). London, UK: Department for Education and Skills.
- Learning Forward. (2011). *Standards for professional learning*. Retrieved from <http://learningforward.org/docs/august-2011/referenceguide324.pdf?sfvrsn=2>
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments: First results from TALIS*. Paris, France: OECD.
- Phelps, R., & Graham, A. (2008). Developing technology together, together: A whole-school metacognitive approach to ICT teacher professional development. *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education*, 24(4), 125-133. doi: 10.1080/10402454.2008.10784598
- Showers, B., & Joyce, B. (1996). The evolution of peer coaching. *Educational Leadership*, 53(6), 12-16.
- Showers, B., Murphy, C., & Joyce, B. (1996). The river city program: Staff development becomes school improvement. In B. Joyce & E. Calhoun (Eds.), *Learning experiences in school renewal: An exploration of five successful programs* (pp. 13-51). Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.
- Spouse, J. (2001). Bridging theory and practice in the supervisory relationship: A sociocultural perspective. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 33(4), 512-522. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2648.2001.01683.x
- United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for all global monitoring report 2013/4*. Paris, France: UNESCO.



Copyright: Mark Kaye/Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 5:

INVEST IN HIGH-QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATORS

KEY POINTS

- Pre-service education systems are often weak in fragile contexts; therefore, quality professional development and professional development providers becomes even more critical.
- Fragile environments need pragmatic solutions to recruit, prepare and support teacher educators.
- The skill sets required for a good teacher educator are similar to those of effective teachers, as well as the ability to model intended teacher practices.
- Improving the quality of teacher education will require providing teacher educators with actual classroom experience, improving their ability to link practice with theory and providing these individuals with high-quality training and ongoing support.

Mary Burns, Education Development Center;

Deborah Haines, International Consultant;

Silje Sjøvaag Skeie, Norwegian Refugee Council;

Catherine Gladwell, Refugee Support Network and Jigsaw Consult

“They always use these words – “participation” and “active learning” – and tell us we should do this and why don’t we, but these are words they say, not things they do.”

Teacher, Kenya

“If projects and education systems invest in the right people [for role of teacher educator] with suitable responsibilities, then, genuine teacher learning which translates into classroom practice and improved child learning is possible. The wrong people, with the wrong skill-set, in the wrong context, using unwelcome methods is just too common, but when the opposite is the case... then change, even in the most fragile of contexts can be realized.”

James Lawrie, Save the Children, UK

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the individuals responsible for training teachers and how well prepared, supported and resourced they are to do so. Though focused primarily on teacher in-service education, it also touches on teacher pre-service education. The research cited in this chapter comes primarily from the United States, the United Kingdom, Sub-Saharan Africa and the Philippines.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SKILLED TEACHER EDUCATORS

Those who prepare and teach teachers play a pivotal role in building a quality educational foundation for any society – including fragile and conflict-affected areas. The competencies required for a good teacher educator are similar to those for good teachers – specialized content knowledge and in-depth knowledge of good instructional and assessment practices, for example. But the competencies required for effective teacher educators also include in-depth knowledge of effective professional development programs, of evaluation and monitoring and of coaching and mentoring (Sawka et al., 2002; Mink & Fraser, 2002).

Professional development supported by effective teacher educators is associated with positive outcomes among teachers and pupils (Sawka et al., 2002; Mink & Fraser, 2002). Yet, the preparation and training of teacher educators, both pre-and in-service, has been so neglected in many contexts that the instruction they provide teachers results in negligible improvements in teacher quality even after extensive professional development.

Improving the quality and skills of teacher educators is the fifth major recommendation emerging from the *TPD in Crisis* forum.

“The key role that teacher educators play in shaping teachers’ skills is often the most neglected aspect of teacher preparation systems, particularly in developing countries. Many teacher educators seldom set foot in local schools to learn about the challenges prospective teachers face. They do not have to pass an assessment showing mastery of basic skills or have any sort of clinical teaching experience or apprenticeship. Indeed, an analysis of six sub-Saharan African countries found that teacher educators helping train teachers how to teach reading skills were rarely experts in approaches used in the field.”

UNESCO, 2014, p. 27

WHY ARE THE CAPACITIES OF TEACHER EDUCATORS SO FREQUENTLY OVERLOOKED?

Despite their important role, teacher educators are often overlooked, including in academic research. Focus is typically on teachers and the training they receive, versus those who educate them. Yet the role of the teacher educator is difficult and complex and of great importance. In both developing and developed contexts, better student learning outcomes could be attained if teacher educators were better prepared,

resourced and supported (Deem & Lucas, 2007). Despite this reality, in very few countries are there effective frameworks for the professional development, support and guidance of the teacher educator. Rather than planned programs of work, many teacher educators approach their work in an ad hoc way.

International education development projects may be most guilty of negligence in terms of overlooking the capacities of teacher educators. Often, those who work as international “trainers” have no (or minimal) teaching experience; have no formal training or education themselves as teacher educators; lack teaching experience in the environment from which the teachers they are instructing come; and may be unfamiliar with the culture, conditions and language of the country in which they are now conducting professional development.

Further, in many organizations, those who do deliver professional development tend to be junior staff who, though less expensive than senior staff, also have less experience working with teachers, students and less of a professional repertoire of knowledge from which to draw. In short, some become pedagogues with responsibility for the development of a nation and its people, yet they may have limited pedagogical understanding, skill and experience. Whatever the level or background of the teacher trainers, consideration should be given to how their identity group characteristics will be perceived by the diverse trainees. Will they be perceived as an extension of an unwelcome post-colonial power, an unpopular government or the dominant tribal group? Teacher educators should reflect the identity group diversity of their teacher students.⁴⁷

In general, pre- and in-service instruction more often than not tends toward the theoretical versus practical. Many workshops mirror the very didactic, teacher-centered approach that teacher educators are ostensibly encouraging teachers to move away from. When creative, participatory approaches are modeled, they often are not tailored for use in large, multi-age, multi-

Decades of fighting between the Karen people and the government of Burma have resulted in thousands of refugees and internally displaced people with limited access to education. To provide the Karen people with access to education, the Karen Teacher Working Group (KTWG) was established in 1997 to promote Karen education in Karen State. KTWG also established a program to train mobile teacher trainers to give local teachers some support. In 2004, KTWG established the Karen Teacher Training College (KTTC) on the Burmese side of the Thailand-Burma border, the first and only institution of its kind in Burma. KTTC provides a Karen-designed, culturally relevant, two-year initial teacher training program for teachers who will teach in Karen State, and training for mobile teacher trainers.

Enabling Education Network: http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/eenet_newsletter/news11/page12.php

47 For more examples of conflict-sensitive education strategies on teacher recruitment, selection, support and supervision, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education, pages 30 and 34: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>. For more information about the development of teacher trainings, including the selection of trainers, see the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 3: Teaching and Learning, Standard 2: Training Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>.

level classes with scarce resources. Even when teacher educators employ explicit modeling in their professional development sessions, they may not attempt to help teachers integrate behaviors into their own practice or link theories of learning and instruction to classroom practice. Many teacher educators often “lack the knowledge and skills in using modelling in a productive way, making their own teaching explicit, and rethinking the connection between their teacher education practices and public theory” (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007, p. 597).

A further challenge, in addition to the technical capacity of those training teachers, is the capacity of training institutions to accommodate the volume of teachers that require training. Not only is the quality of teacher education often insufficient, but many teacher education institutions also lack the capacity for the large numbers of people needing to be trained, and expanding capacity is costly. Furthermore, responsibility for pre- and in-service teacher education may be fragmented and the responsibility of different agencies or government departments, as in Lebanon, or in different ministries, as in Indonesia. Even where there is a teacher in-service and support system, these support personnel may be associated with powerful political or religious groups and, therefore, not allowed into schools controlled by rival political and religious factions (again, as in the case of Lebanon).

In refugee situations, in particular, the need for qualified teacher educators is especially acute. Because education services in refugee camp settings are typically provided by a range of implementing partners (local or international NGOs or government refugee agencies), teacher management and development tends to be unregulated and highly variable in terms of quantity and quality. It is often determined by the implementing partners’ ground capacity and experience, which often results in ad hoc teacher training of mixed quality and duration (UNHCR, 2014).

The need for contextualized, participatory (by all identity groups), creative teacher training is widely recognized (UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning, 2010; INEE, 2010) and has been mentioned in previous chapters in this guide, as is the need to use approaches that, while addressing critical issues such as corporal punishment, build on the strengths of local pedagogies (Barrett, 2007; Tao, n.d.; Vavrus, 2009). This should be perfectly feasible, even in emergency or fragile contexts, and indeed countries like Rwanda and Uganda have undertaken efforts to improve the quality of teacher educators. Workshops can be run creatively, modeling participatory techniques and addressing key issues, whilst being rooted in the local context and giving space for teachers to support each other to develop and hone their skills. Yet, the quote that begins this chapter (by a teacher in a Kenyan refugee camp), and many like it that authors have heard from teachers in fragile contexts over the years, suggests that the reality experienced by teacher participants in some workshops is often removed from the rhetoric.

WHAT SKILLS SHOULD TEACHER EDUCATORS POSSESS?

Teacher educators should possess a range of skills and dispositions to improve teacher practice. These include:

- **Knowledge of content, instruction and how children learn:** This includes deep knowledge of a particular content area; different models of instructional strategies and assessment practices; learning and development of children and adults; clinical and supervision skills; the ability to model effective instructional and assessment practices; the ability and disposition to coach and support teachers and hold planned or informal meetings with teachers; and the ability to support teachers through observations, feedback, modeling, workshops, coaching, planned/informal meetings (Cordingley et al., 2007). Explicit modeling of effective instructional approaches has been cited by research as a particularly salient skill (Lunenburg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007).
- **Dispositions/attitudes:** These include respect for teachers and their professionalism and a belief that all teachers, like their students, can learn. This also includes important dispositions, such as a willingness to listen, make mistakes and be vulnerable in terms of their own practice (i.e., in terms of modeling instructional practices). Teacher educators must also be nonjudgmental, effective communicators, patient, and so forth.
- **Coaching skills:** Effective teacher educators “make explicit the links between professional learning and pupil learning in a variety of ways including discussions of pupil needs” (Cordingley et al., 2007, p. 45). They can examine and connect exam results to specific techniques that help students better master content. They can review the results of data to inform their own decision making and activities with teachers and students.
- **Conflict-specific knowledge, skills and dispositions:** This may include the belief that education is a human right for all students and teachers, regardless of political, religious, cultural or ethnic affiliations; knowledge of how to teach a politically neutral curriculum or adapt a biased curriculum for neutrality; gender sensitivity; knowledge of and the ability to model tolerance and respect for all religious, tribal and ethnic groups and castes; and conflict resolution skills.

Modeling Effective Practices

A critical skill for an effective teacher educator is the ability to model effective instructional and assessment practices and communication skills. Modeling has been identified as a critical skill for teacher educators for a number of reasons:

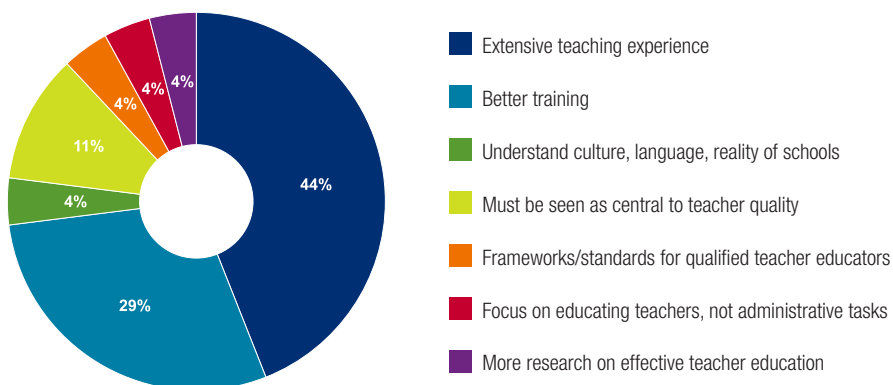
- Modeling impacts the pre- or in-service teachers’ views of teaching.
- Modeling by teacher educators can contribute to the professional development of pre- and in-service teachers, who experience learning from the point of view of a learner and get to know what works and what does not work (Griffin, 1999).

- Modeling allows pre- and in-service teachers to be treated as active learners who construct their own understandings (Putnam & Borko, 2000).
- Because the “*processes* in teacher education may be more important than the knowledge *product* provided to student teachers, the way teacher educators model learning can be a more important factor in shaping teacher behavior than the content they transmit” (Wideen et al., 1998, p. 167⁴⁸).
- Modeling by teacher educators can change education. The introduction of new practices into teacher education can help teachers become grounded “in new ways of educational thinking and, on the basis of the examples experienced, make them better able to shape their own practices accordingly” (Lunenburg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007, p. 589). Thus, teacher education may not only have a greater impact on the preparation and professional development of teachers, it may also play a leading role in the innovation of education (Stofflett & Stoddart, 1994).

How Can We Improve the Quality of Teacher Educators?

Effective professional development is *experiential*, involving teachers in the acts of teaching, assessment, planning, communication, classroom organization and compensation (making do without requisite resources). It is connected to the *core areas of teaching* – content, instruction, assessment and classroom management. It is collaborative with a focus on teachers sharing knowledge and facilitators midwifing knowledge. It builds *confidence and capacity* among practitioners and elicits this through careful facilitation. And it is sustained and intensive, supported by modeling, coaching, problem solving and scaffolding. Therefore, effective teacher educators must be able to successfully enact all of these components of professional development.

Figure 11: How can we improve the quality of teacher educators in fragile contexts? (Chart displays percentages of *TPD in Crisis* author and participant responses to this question)



⁴⁸ This quote has been modified.

As Figure 11 suggests, for authors and participants in the *TPD in Crisis* series, two main reforms must be undertaken to improve the quality of teacher education. First, by far, is ensuring that teacher educators have extensive teaching experience. Because so many teacher educators have not been classroom teachers, they may lack the empathic understanding of teachers and teaching that comes from the “lived” day-to-day experience of a primary or secondary classroom. Because many teacher educators in low-resource and fragile contexts appear to lack this experience, so much of their instruction focuses on theoretical, versus practical, knowledge.

Second, teacher educators also need better training, preparation and support (again, as suggested in Figure 11). This assertion is strongly related to the need for actual classroom teaching experience. Just like teachers, teacher educators should be able to pass an initial assessment that measures basic skills (numeracy, literacy, core content knowledge) and basic teaching competencies.⁴⁹

However, if potential teacher educators do not have teaching experience, one possibility is to provide them with a two-year apprenticeship under the supervision of a skilled master teacher, followed by an examination where they would demonstrate proficiency of teaching practice in order to advance to the role of teacher educator. At this point, they would need to pass a performance-based exam to obtain a special certificate of teaching competency.

They would then need to obtain certification as a teacher educator – in all aspects of teacher education, including providing quality professional development, demonstrating effective communication skills, coaching and mentoring techniques, monitoring and evaluation and content knowledge (if educating teachers within a certain content domain).

Some countries have made concerted efforts to revamp their pre- and in-service teacher education systems. In Ecuador, the Universidad Nacional de Educación (UNAE) (National Teacher Education University) will require that all Ecuadorian educators – primary and secondary school teachers, university faculty and pre- and in-service teacher educators – obtain certification from UNAE in order to standardize quality across all levels of the Ecuadorian education system.

In Ethiopia in 2003, as part of its Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO), the Ministry of Education introduced the Higher Diploma Program (HDP), a licensing training program aimed at developing the skills and professionalism of teacher educators. All Ethiopian teacher educators must be qualified as teacher educators by taking the HDP, a one-year, practice-focused program (Bogale, 2007).

The two areas identified by *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants as being most critical to improving the quality of teacher educators – prior classroom teaching experience and better preparation and training – are inextricably linked. Both are

49 For a list of competencies of conflict-sensitive teachers and other education personnel, see the INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education, page 35: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.

grounded in the two components of modeling – demonstration and reflection – so critical to effective teacher education. Because teaching is a craft-based profession, and because many teacher educators do not have practical experience as teachers, they are unable to model exemplary teaching practices for pre- and in-service teachers. Even where they have this practical experience, without strong formation in theories of teaching and learning, they often cannot link pedagogical choices and good exemplary behavior with theory that explains that behavior. Nor can they reflect on these practices or articulate why they are more worthwhile than others (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007, p. 590).

By drawing on educators from diverse identity groups and with backgrounds in teaching, and by preparing these educators well to be strong and supportive teacher educators, countries can build capacity in such a way that they shift from outside, expatriate consultants to in-house expertise.

MODELS FOR IMPROVING SKILLS OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

One model of continuous professional development for teacher educators can be found in Uganda, where, with support from UNICEF, the country has raised the quality of tutors at teacher training colleges (TTCs) through more intensive professional development and ongoing coaching (Hardman et al, 2011). Tutors are also required to do significant amounts of school-based teacher professional development and are provided with a motorbike to enable them to do so.

Another model comes from the Philippines, where teacher educators from tertiary education institutions were supported through a detailed process of curriculum review and syllabus enhancement. The project also aimed to build the experience and capacity of teacher educators through participatory approaches. Prior to the project, teacher educators had not been involved in curriculum development, and they felt that they lacked the vital pedagogical skills associated with teacher education (Zeegers, 2012). However, through a gradual collaborative process of reviewing the syllabus, teacher educators not only reported deepening their understanding of the subject content, but they also learned why and how their specialist subjects should be taught. Throughout the process, they worked across departments and institutions with chosen “buddies” to promote and share ideas.

This project offers seven recommendations for teacher education in developing contexts:

1. A core, representative team should be established and involved in the planning and formative evaluation of the project from an early stage.
2. Faculty who teach in teacher education courses should be involved in the process of curriculum and course development.
3. Teacher educators who are involved in curriculum development should collaborate with subject colleagues from their own institutions.

4. Focused professional development activities for teacher educators should be held regularly and continuously during a project.
5. Current reference materials and resources should be distributed to and utilized by teacher educators early in the process.
6. Workshops should be held both across and within subject specializations, institutions and regions to encourage the development of teaching practices, the exchange of ideas and the sharing of resources.
7. Deans of education and academic administrators should be encouraged to participate in key stages of the process so that they can develop their understanding, provide support for the team and exert influence across their institutions.

The Philippines have provided what appears to be a sustainable approach, where the educators themselves remark on not only apparent outcomes of those they teach, but also their own learning and understanding.

WHERE THERE ARE NO TEACHERS...OR TEACHER EDUCATORS

Qualified and skilled teacher educators are obviously important because they provide pre- and in-service instruction to teachers. For many teachers, in fragile and non-fragile areas alike, this is their primary source of instruction and ongoing formation.

But what happens in refugee areas of conflict where there may be no teachers? Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are often selected to teach if they have a reasonable level of education (a secondary-level education in many cases), a special skill (e.g., the ability to speak another language or bookkeeping) or an interest and willingness to teach. In some contexts, educated women may be particularly difficult to find, so the education background of the women selected may be even lower than in a non-conflict situation. In other cases, it may be a challenge to find teachers from diverse identity and language groups in order to meet the unique needs of the students.⁵⁰

How are these newly deputized teachers trained and supported so that they can step into a classroom (or more often, a tent or under a tree) to deliver lessons, to become capable, knowledgeable and confident professionals, to be a teacher – especially in the absence of a formal teacher education system or trained teacher educators?

Pre-service training, often lasting for two to six weeks, normally gives these “emergency” teachers some basic understanding of teaching methodology, subject matter and lesson planning. However, even when combined with monitoring and regular on-the-job training, a short pre-service course is not going to sufficiently prepare a volunteer teacher for the job.

⁵⁰ See INEE's Pocket Guide to Gender for more background: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>, as well as the resources in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1059>.

The need for skilled teacher educators, *especially* in emergency or post-conflict recovery contexts, remains critical. In such places, there is a dearth of skilled trainers, coaches and mentors because so many have fled, been displaced or been harmed or killed. It takes time and effort to recruit and prepare teacher educators from diverse identity and language groups to get them to the point where they can begin to work with existing teachers, volunteer teachers or emergency teachers to help them change their practice.

Where there are no teacher educators, there are several potential strategies that can help to support emergency teachers.

First, Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) and Interactive Audio Instruction (IAI), discussed in the previous chapter, can help to compensate for these new teachers' weaknesses by providing just-in-time instruction to teachers and students simultaneously.

A second strategy is to give such teachers highly didactic teaching materials, such as step-by-step learning guides, instructional kits and scripted lessons. When possible, teachers can be given instructional videos or DVDs, where teachers stop and ask a series of pre-written questions and which offer potential student answers and follow-up teacher questions.

A third alternative is to introduce blended or online instruction directly to students (where infrastructure allows). This could allow a virtual teacher in a capital city to provide online instruction to students while guiding and supporting the in-class emergency teacher. Such a technique has been used successfully in school districts in rural US locations where an online qualified instructor teaches students while, at the same time, trains and supports an unqualified in-class teacher.

A fourth strategy is to build communities of teachers through peer-led learning where more qualified or talented teachers can help to improve the teaching skills of their untrained peers and where teachers teach one another (as in Colombia's internationally recognized Escuela Nueva model⁵¹). Facilitating a process where key resource teachers at the school level support untrained teachers in their daily work can be effective. The key resource teachers can provide continuous professional development as untrained teachers operate in their schools. They can give on-the-job support and peer-teacher trainings to colleagues on a regular basis.

There is great potential in such peer-to-peer support if it is planned and implemented well. However, it requires that the needs of trainees are clearly identified and that key resource teachers are equipped to carry out peer support.

"I want workshops that happen in my camp, not in the capital, so that I know everything is relevant for my location, and where we learn from the experience of other teachers teaching in camps and the struggles, ideas and skills they have. I am happy when people from outside come to support these trainings, but I want them not to just come and talk with long power-point presentations, I want them to show the things they talk about with how they facilitate the training, not just with words. I want to know they understand where I am working and what it is really like."

Teacher,
Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya

51 See <http://www.escuelanueva.org/portal/en/escuela-nueva-model.html>.

The aim of peer teaching is obviously to improve the education delivered to the children affected by the crisis, but questions remain about such an approach. In desperate and dangerous situations, what key resource teachers can provide help to one another? What is the role of the Ministry of Education in providing peer support for non-qualified teachers? And importantly, how is the impact of this approach demonstrated?

CONCLUSION

Pre-service teacher education systems in many fragile contexts are often weak and undeveloped. Consequently, in-service and professional development programs, often externally funded, aim to compensate for this weakness by working with current teachers to address gaps in their learning. But many such programs often have no standards for effective teacher educators and offer no training or support to improve and sustain the skills of the people charged with teaching a country's teachers.

The role of a qualified and skilled teacher educator cannot be overestimated. Teacher educators teach pre- and in-service teachers content, but, more critically, they teach who a teacher is and what he/she does. Improving teacher education systems certainly involves more than individual teacher educators – it involves decisions about what constitutes a “good” teacher, resourcing, development of standards and reforming teacher education curricula.

In emergency and post-conflict contexts, teacher educators need to be equipped to help teachers develop important teaching skills. Unless time is invested before workshops take place, analyzing the specific contexts in which teachers are working and consulting with them about the real needs of the children in their communities, this is unlikely to happen.

No system as a whole can be better than the sum of its parts. However, at least beginning with confident and prepared teacher educators is a first step toward improving the quality of the formation and ongoing professional development that teachers in fragile contexts receive.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards for Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>

INEE Guidance Note on Conflict Sensitive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>

INEE Pocket Guide to Gender:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>

INEE Toolkit- Gender Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1059>

REFERENCES

- Barrett, A. (2007). Beyond the polarization of pedagogy: Models of classroom practice in Tanzanian primary schools. *Comparative Education*, 43(2), 273–294. doi: 10.1080/03050060701362623
- Bogale, B. (2007). Teaching and learning in higher education: The role of the higher diploma programme. In *UNESCO IICBA Newsletter*, 9(1), 9–10. Retrieved from http://www.eng.unescoiicba.org/sites/default/files/Vol.9%20No%201.EN_.pdf
- Cordingley, P., Bell, M., Isham, C., Evans, D., & Firth, A. (2007). *Continuing professional development (CPD): What do specialists do in CPD programmes for which there is evidence of positive outcomes for pupils and teachers?* London, UK: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.
- Deem, R., & Lucas, L. (2007). Research and teaching cultures in two contrasting UK policy contexts: Academic life in education departments in five English and Scottish universities. *Higher Education*, 54(1), 115–133. doi: 10.1007/s10734-006-9010-z
- Enabling Education Network (2007). *Teacher training in conflict situations: Karen State, Burma*. Retrieved from http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/eenet_newsletter/news11/page12.php
- Griffin, G. A. (1999). Changes in teacher education: Looking to the future. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.), *The education of teachers* (pp. 1–17). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Hardman, F., Ackers, J., Abrishamian, N., & O’Sullivan, M. (2011). Developing a systemic approach to teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa: Emerging lessons from Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 41(5), 669–683. doi: 10.1080/03057925.2011.581014
- Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE). (2010). *Guidance notes on teaching and learning*. New York, NY: INEE.

- Lunenberg, M., Korthagen, F., & Swennen, A. (2007). The teacher educator as a role model. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(5), 586-601. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.001
- Mink D. V., & Fraser B. J. (2002). *Evaluation of a K-5 mathematics program which integrates children's literature: Classroom environment, achievement and attitudes* [Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA]. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED464141>
- Putnam, R. T., & Borko, H. (2000). What do new views of knowledge and thinking have to say about research on teacher learning? *Educational Researcher*, 29(1), 4–15. doi: 10.3102/0013189X029001004
- Sawka, K. D., McCurdy, B. L., & Mannella, M. C. (2002). Strengthening emotional support services: An empirically based model for training teachers of students with behavior disorders. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 10(4), 223-232. doi: 10.1177/10634266020100040401
- Stofflett, R. T., & Stoddart, T. (1994). The ability to understand and use conceptual change pedagogy as a function of prior content learning experience. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 31(1), 31–51. doi: 10.1002/tea.3660310105
- Tao, S. (n.d.). *Who is the third world teacher? A critical analysis of texts on teacher quality in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/1047603/Who_is_the_Third_World_Teacher_A_Critical_Analysis_of_Texts_on_Teacher_Quality_in_Sub-Saharan_Africa
- UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning. (2010). *Guidebook for planning education in emergencies and reconstruction*. Paris, France: UNESCO IIEP.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for all global monitoring report 2013/4*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). (2014). *Refugee teacher working group terms of reference*. Geneva, Switzerland: UNHCR.
- Vavrus, F. (2009). The cultural politics of constructivist pedagogies: Teacher education reform in the United Republic of Tanzania. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 29(3), 303-311. doi: 10.1016/j.ijedudev.2008.05.002
- Wideen, M., Mayer-Smith, J., & Moon, B. (1998). A critical analysis of the research on learning to teach: Making the case for an ecological perspective on inquiry. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 130–178. doi: 10.3102/00346543068002130
- Zeegers, Y. (2012). Curriculum development for teacher education in the Southern Philippines: A simultaneous process of professional learning and syllabus enhancement. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32(2), 207-213. doi: 10.1016/j.ijedudev.2011.01.015



Copyright: Helen Mould / Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 6: BUILD INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AT ALL LEVELS OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

KEY POINTS

- School leaders have a vital role in TPD, yet the behaviors required for effective nurturing of teacher performance are too often absent in school leaders in fragile contexts.
- Fragility-specific barriers to effective school leadership (poor administration, resource shortages, unpredictable staff movements and high turnover) negatively impact teacher performance and student learning.
- In-service professional development for school leaders and tailored programs for new and aspiring leaders can help individuals develop and apply instructional leadership skills.
- Providing opportunities for leaders to collaborate, involving leaders in teacher development and developing national school leadership standards can all positively affect teacher development.
- District offices of education and other coordination bodies can have an increasingly positive impact on teacher development through exercising their role in connecting actors, investing in relationships with leaders and teachers and by offering schools a suitable balance of autonomy.

James Lawrie, Save the Children;

John Morefield, Independent consultant;

Jenni Donohoo, Provincial Literacy Lead, Ontario Ministry of Education;

Kate Shevland, Principal, Orewa College, New Zealand

“The life of a public school teacher in Cambodia today is not easy. The pay is not enough to live on. Corruption is endemic. And school leadership is, for the most part, poor, and is a major de-motivator for teachers.”

John Morefield, Independent consultant, USA

“Teachers and administrators...do not see themselves as learners, but rather, as owners of knowledge.”

Ann Berger Valente, Educational Consultant, Brazil

INTRODUCTION

“School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning” (Leithwood et al., 2008, p. 28). But is it fair to expect leaders to be the chief educator in a school operating in a fragile environment – to guide, to encourage and to ensure continuous learning of their staff? Whether the context is changing on a day-to-day basis or whether they are faced with a protracted period (months and years) of instability, the challenges that leaders are faced with are vast. The main focus of this chapter concerns the role of school leaders in helping teachers in fragile contexts transfer new learning into improved classroom teaching.

For *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants, effective school leadership – especially instructional leadership – is critical to improving teacher professional development in fragile contexts, indeed, in any context. This chapter outlines issues vexing leadership in fragile contexts, discusses a model example from Cambodia and draws on an example from a non-fragile location – Ontario, Canada – whose lessons can be applied in less well-resourced districts.

Principals and school leaders are essential to quality teachers and quality teaching. (Leithwood et al, 2004) In high-performing schools, leaders establish a school-based vision for the kinds of instruction and learning they want to see. They set guidelines, provide models and identify and procure resources and support to help teachers adopt and implement new practices to improve achievement for all learners. They understand that professional development is not the change itself, but the beginning of change, and they try to find support, guidance and resources to help teachers through the change process. They celebrate, recognize and make public good teaching. They provide supportive and facilitative leadership and foster a climate of innovation and risk-taking. This is instructional leadership.

Yet, many, or all, of these behaviors are often lacking in places that are politically, economically and institutionally fragile. In such contexts, Ministry of Education staff, regional educational officers, district officials and principals or directors (“school leaders”) may not understand what good teaching and learning look like. Principals are often not trained to be leaders – they are not even trained to be good administrators in some cases. And in many fragile contexts – in many schools or formal learning centers (such as Accelerated Learning Programs) – there may be no educational leader at all.⁵²

⁵² For additional guidance on selecting education personnel, see the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 4: Teachers and Other Education Personnel, Standard 1: Recruitment and Selection: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>.

CHALLENGES OF LEADERSHIP IN FRAGILE CONTEXTS

How does fragility affect school leadership? Fragility means that leaders must navigate colleagues, students and resources along a potentially rapid and unpredictable journey of change. It means dealing with externally imposed conditions or operating in an environment of long-term shortages in key resource areas (finance, teaching staff, books and even classrooms and furniture). It can mean trying to maintain at least foundational levels of administration and functionality, just to keep the school operational. More specifically, short-term and reactionary actions often supersede long-term strategic planning. There is often greater workforce movement with staff moving in and out of schools and lower staff motivation. Student attendance patterns can also be more sporadic, often caused by displacement. Schools often need to welcome children displaced (cross-border or internally displaced) due to conflict or natural disaster, which brings new complexity concerning curriculum, language of instruction and so forth. Salary payments can become irregular, which frequently has a chronic impact on teacher attendance. In the more extreme cases, school buildings are damaged, destroyed or serve as a refuge for displaced people or military forces.⁵³ In less acute but still fragile times, it will likely involve leading within systems that are dysfunctional. Within all these situations, the school leader is responsible for ensuring that the doors are opened every day, that teachers are teaching and that children are learning. But this leader faces enormous barriers, many of which limit instructional leadership. Key barriers include:

Hierarchical barriers: Too often, school leaders have been appointed to their positions rather than earn their positions via a merit-based or objective application process. Their appointments can be the result of seniority (age or length of service) or, in some cases, their personal or political affiliations, rather than their leadership ability. Additionally, there are many embedded cultural expectations of these individuals that stifle teacher professional improvement – leaders are expected to hold the greatest level of knowledge; they may not see themselves as learners; and they may see teacher-led innovation and creativity as a threat rather than an asset.

Lack of preparation in instructional leadership: Part of the real problem frequently seen in fragile and low-income locations is that school directors (within both government and NGO-run schools) themselves do not know what good instruction and learning really look like or how to coach and support. Many leaders have a limited understanding of leadership and management and often perform with a dire shortage of skill and confidence. Many teachers may never have experienced great teaching, and likewise many school leaders may not have benefitted from the modeling of a great leader. Many leaders simply do not know what effective instructional leadership involves. Classroom teachers often attend workshops and are inspired and motivated to apply their new learning and skills, but, upon returning to school, they find no support, no motivation, no ongoing appraisal or performance management and no encouragement from their school leader. The inability of the instructional leader to

⁵³ To learn more about developing safe education environments, see the INEE Guidance Notes on Safer School Construction: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1005>.

supply such support means that, in too many cases, the teachers revert back to doing what they have done before.

Organizational and cultural barriers: Many school leaders in fragile settings often do not recognize their role in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning – a situation made even more complicated by a lack of the key tools (personal skill, finance, a proactive administration) needed for this. With these shortages, it can be difficult to expect people to take on such responsibilities. Furthermore, it is also commonly the case that leaders are neither rewarded nor sanctioned for their performance in leading learning. Allegiance and loyalty are often qualities too commonly valued above student performance and teacher motivation. This paints a picture of schooling systems characterized by a resistance to change. Change and improvement require leadership, yet many of those in positions of leadership in fragile contexts are not judged or supported to behave as instructional leaders.

Dysfunctional systems: Dysfunctional education systems epitomize the challenges facing those leading from a district or provincial level. National, regional/provincial and/or district-level administrators face the challenges of recruiting and retaining school leaders. Budget shortages and corruption can further stifle an already complicated landscape by placing additional pressure on those seeking to populate schools with good teachers and effective leaders. In systems where Ministry of Education, district and provincial offices manage recruitment and retention, the shortage of qualified teachers poses a chronic problem, which is alleviated through the use of community/contract teachers. Typically this occurs in the more unstable and remote areas that suffer the most from such shortages, further contributing to the inequity of the education system and, thus, a potential driver of conflict. In these situations, the contribution of NGOs through additional training, financial support for teacher salaries, materials and, at times, the provision of non-formal schools, can be vital. The shortage of teachers and the need to work with non-qualified and voluntary colleagues further complicates the role of the school leader in fragile locations.

The absence of empirical evidence about effective leadership in low-income or fragile contexts: There is a vast body of literature from the US, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and Canada that examines the essential role of leadership on the functioning of a school, teaching performance and student learning (Fullan, 2013; Harris et al., 2003; Leithwood et al., 2008). Yet, the literature on this issue is scant for schools in fragile and low-income settings, and many NGOs or donor-led programs too often appear unaware of the process of improvement or change within schools. Embedding an educational initiative requires local-level drivers, yet this is all too commonly forgotten by those demanding quick fixes for student learning.

A VISION OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

The context of fragility places specific challenges in the realm of the school leader. This necessitates a fitting definition of what school leadership should involve. School leaders typically must combine administrative management skills with instructional leadership skills. An instructional leader's priority is the quality of teaching and student learning, and, therefore, the professional performance and professional development of the leader's staff is at the heart of his/her role. The following definitions are adapted from training material from the Cambodian Education School Support Program (CESSP, 2006).

Management responsibilities: This involves running an efficient and highly organized school (via scheduling, budget, maintaining discipline and order); being the link between parents, the community, other levels of the educational system, teachers and students; and securing and using resources appropriately. These tasks are the baseline or minimum expectations of the role of a school leader.

Instructional leadership: School leadership involves another critical role, which is the guardian of instructional quality. An instructional leader understands the tremendous complexity of teaching and learning, but s/he talks about it and promotes it in ways that are simple and easy to understand. Instructional leaders spend the majority of the professional day creating ways to improve the quality of instruction at all levels of the school. They observe instruction regularly, provide non-evaluative feedback to teachers that is frank, honest and helpful, and design, support or bring to schools professional development programs that address teacher-identified needs.

HOW CAN SCHOOL LEADERS IN FRAGILE LOCATIONS BECOME INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS?

School leaders are the school-level drivers of change and improvement. When external professional training has been provided, it falls on those present within the confines of the school compound to ensure that these change programs come to fruition. School leaders need to be empowered to take on this role; they need to learn and hone their skills in leading people and leading change; and they need to be supported throughout the process.

What is the likelihood of success when a teacher improvement program has the direct support of the school leader? Conversely, how likely is any change when buy-in from the school leader is missing? These are important questions because there are currently, across numerous fragile locations, a multitude of externally driven (NGOs, UN, other) teacher-improvement programs. If the buy-in of local level (local, meaning present in the schooling location five days a week) is not forthcoming, is piecemeal or is completely absent, then according to educational change theorists (Fullan, 2007), there is unlikely to be any significant shift in practice. Improving school leadership in fragile settings is, therefore, an essential prerequisite for sustained improvement in teacher performance.

A CASE STUDY ON A MULTI-YEAR SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IMPROVEMENT FROM CAMBODIA

The life of a public school teacher in Cambodia today is not easy. The pay is not enough to live on, and school leadership is, for the most part, poor and a major demotivator for teachers (Jago, 2008; Morefield, 2010). This reality is supported by research studies conducted in recent years (Cambodia Independent Teachers Association, 2010-2012; Jago, 2008). Despite these realities, there are more than enough applicants to the Ministry of Education-run teacher preparation programs every year. A significant number of young people want to be teachers despite the difficulties.

Recovery from the tragic legacy of the Khmer Rouge has been and remains to be a steep climb. In their preparation programs, most teachers learn how to teach in a teacher-centric model. Despite Ministerial policies and guidelines,⁵⁴ rote memory and repetition are the major strategies used with students. Reading the relatively poor-quality textbooks and answering the questions from those books are everyday experiences.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MOEYS) provides little in the way of professional development for teachers once they are assigned to a school. However, there are many local and international NGOs and other organizations that offer numerous opportunities for expanding teachers' knowledge and skills (e.g., World Education, Voluntary Services Overseas (VSO), World Bank, etc.). And herein lies a significant problem. Teachers often attend these workshops, yet when they return to the school, they do not receive the essential support of their school leader. Consequently, the training they received offers no gains for children's learning. This is a teaching problem, but it is also a leadership problem.

Ineffective school leadership is a significant problem in Cambodia (Morefield, 2010). School directors are political appointees from the leading political party in the country. The vast majority were teachers in the same school to which they are appointed as school directors. Most did not seek the position. They get paid the same salary as teachers but work whole days instead of half days, as teachers do. There is no school director preparation program in the country, and the expectation from the District and Provincial Education Offices is that they will simply follow the directives of their superiors. There is a 20-day management training program for school directors that consists of how to fill out forms properly, how to submit school plans properly and other paperwork-related tasks. There is only one small section devoted to "leadership." Unless a new school director is a natural born leader or has had the opportunity to be mentored by a natural born leader while teaching, most will manage just as they were managed – poorly. This is not good news for Cambodian schools.

Between 2005 and 2010, with support from the World Bank, a leadership curriculum was developed and 70 trainers trained (with ongoing support, DVDs and modeling). Leadership development workshops for hundreds of school directors, deputy directors and district and provincial directors were provided. The workshops were four days

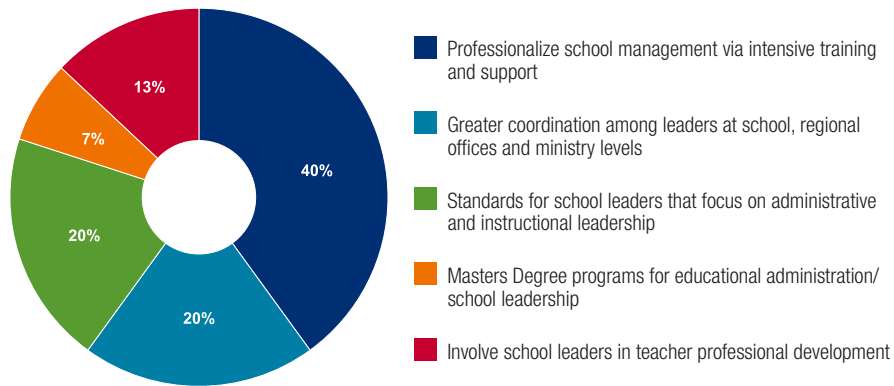
54 See also INEE's Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

in length, used interactive teaching practices (with opportunities for application) and covered a range of topics as basic as, “What is leadership?” to some rather sophisticated instructional leadership practices. Because authentic data collection is so difficult (e.g., attendance, academic achievement, dropout rates), the research done by World Education was qualitative in nature and offered very encouraging conclusions. (World Education, 2010) The curriculum has been adopted by several NGOs to use with school directors with whom they work, and it is used in at least one province by the Cambodian Provincial Office of Education with all of its school directors. This is promising, but it is just one small step. So much more systemic work is needed.

IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN FRAGILE LOCATIONS

For authors and participants in the *TPD in Crisis* discussion series, there are a number of critical strategies for improving school leadership, especially around instruction, as Figure 12 shows.

Figure 12: How can we improve school leadership in fragile contexts? (Chart displays percentages of *TPD in Crisis* author and participant responses to this question)



The data in Figure 12 are supported by examples from educational systems that have been recognized for strong instructional and teacher development systems (Canada and New Zealand). These lessons and examples are discussed below.

Professionalize School Leadership and Management

Continuous leadership/management professional development in-service programs, with funds from the Ministry of Education and donor sources, should be provided for school directors throughout their careers and offered through the national and provincial offices of professional development. Funding from donor sources and the ministries of education can be used to create a one-year “School Director Preparation Program” built upon leadership standards (see below). Such a program should teach the requisite knowledge, skills and competencies in both effective management and leadership.

National school leadership programs, such as the example from Cambodia, are increasingly common within fragile settings. The more impressive examples of these demonstrate the skills that school leaders are required to adopt, as well as high regard for the change process. The worst forms tend to focus on one-way knowledge transfer (the workshop) and scale (as many workshops as possible) as their priorities.

School leaders need both the tools to deliver and incentives to encourage their commitment. This requires knowledge of the barriers preventing action and levers that enable the individual to act. Training programs should work in tandem with organizational change, which involves leaders being rewarded based on a set of incentives (career ladder, salary, other) that recognizes improved instructional quality and educational quality at schools. System-wide and organization cultural shifts are worthy of consideration as a mechanism for encouraging leaders to engage in their own development and, therefore, the development of the teaching community for which they are responsible.

Facilitate Collaboration between Leaders at School, Regional and National Levels

Strengthening collaboration between individuals is an avenue to shared learning, improved practice and better learning outcomes for children. This is the case for both teachers, as Recommendation 3 of this guide has discussed, and school leaders.

Develop Professional School Leadership Standards

National professional school leadership standards should complement curriculum standards, teacher standards and any other standards or competency frameworks. These frameworks will require suitable implementation programs and will need to be intertwined with other school-related initiatives. Ministries of Education can work with international and national actors to develop, adapt and adopt existing international standards from other nations. These should combine the administrative role, as described earlier, with that of the instructional leadership role, which concerns leading learning and continuous teacher development.⁵⁵

Support National Programs for Aspiring and Serving Leaders

Facilitating attendance of higher-education leadership courses can contribute to quality improvements. The development of a Masters' Degree in Educational Leadership is now being offered at the Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP), and it is expanding to some for-profit universities. Unfortunately, most Master's Degree students are from private primary schools or are mid-level ministerial managers.

⁵⁵ For guidance on developing education policies, see the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 5: Education Policy: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>.

Involve School Leaders in Teacher Professional Development

Hierarchical leaders, especially in more traditionally hierarchical settings, are often perceived, and have to be seen as, holding the greatest level of knowledge. Designers of the professional development programs should take note of the potential risk in excluding the leader from proceedings. Denying the leader the opportunity to keep (at least) on par with his/her colleagues is risky. This is further complicated by the learning needs of a school leader, if s/he has no or a limited teaching role. Enabling leaders to understand the teaching process – to be one step ahead of staff – and equipping them with the skills to support their teachers is paramount. School leaders should participate with teachers in professional learning and then work with them as co-learners in implementing what they are studying to improve teaching and learning. Observing lessons, recognizing and celebrating teachers' work, performing regular teacher appraisal and providing feedback is an important role of the instructional leader, but these acts contain a power dynamic that can be used negatively to reinforce hierarchical status. Leaders often need to observe lessons purely for inspection purposes, which can, if managed poorly, have zero or a negative impact on a teacher's professional growth. Communicating the purpose of a school leader's presence in the classroom enables all concerned to understand the visit's professional-development value. Encouraging school leaders, inspectors and others to apply principles of good post-observation feedback can also help mitigate the risk. Genuinely collaborative practice between leaders, teachers and external actors is optimal, as it empowers all, links developmental needs with roles and responsibilities and strengthens communities of practice.

Ontario, an educational high achiever,⁵⁶ offers examples for policy makers and planners in fragile contexts in building teacher leadership through collaborative practice. Ontario has done this in two ways:

Focus on collaborative practice: Ontario has focused on teachers and school leaders working together to develop effective instructional practices. This has involved identifying what actually works in classrooms and doing so with rigorous attention to detail and a commitment to not only improving one's own practice, but that of others as well. Focus, consistency of practice and collective capacity are the strengths of this whole system reform approach (Fullan, 2013).

Invest in employees and transform professional development structures:

Over the past few years, models of professional development offered in Ontario have improved significantly. Rather than devoting personnel and money to system-wide, top-down teacher professional development, school teams engage in collaborative, inquiry-driven PD with an identified common student learning need. Structures have been put into place to connect peers with each other and enable within-school and across-school networking. As professional development is becoming more relevant and contextual,

⁵⁶ The Ontario school system has been rated as one of the best in the world Mourshed, M., Chijioke, C., & Barber, M. (2010). Ontario's students are among the world's best readers (PISA), and Ontario is a world leader in its sustained strategy of professionally driven reform of its education system (OECD, 2010).

teachers are placing greater value on the time and opportunity to learn from and with each other.

Similarly, in New Zealand, educational officials have recognized that models of professional learning that support all teachers are needed to keep lifting professional aspirations for student learning. This requires collaborative communities – peer to peer, school to school and cluster to cluster. School leaders need to nurture this sense of collaborative professional learning, while keeping a simple, common purpose of always the best learning outcomes for all students. School-based, small-group professional learning allows regular ongoing collaboration and feedback, as this is often the pedagogical model called for within classrooms.

These approaches, which focus on collaborative practice, are within reach for many schools and districts operating in fragile locations, including schools operating in displaced people's camps. The uptake of such practice can be encouraged by supporting leaders to allow teachers to be the 'experts;' by supporting an attitude whereby teachers lead their own professional learning with colleagues as partners; by facilitating the formation of communities of practice (see Recommendation 3); and by empowering schools, in conjunction with close support from external actors (such as an NGO or teacher training center), to lead their institutional development.



Copyright: Imogen Prickett/Save the Children

LOW-COST OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

There are low-cost ways to promote instructional leadership. These may include:

- Enabling school leaders to work with other school leaders: shadowing, mutual problem-solving, monthly meetings, a “buddy” system and forming a professional learning community.
- Investing in ongoing professional support for school leaders to improve and embed instructional leadership skills and to gain buy-in for TPD approaches.
- Encouraging school leaders to participate in teacher training alongside their staff.
- Developing or adapting national standards and guidelines concerning school leadership, and support district- and school-level individuals in understanding and adhering to these.
- Identifying successful school leaders, and set up either individual or group mentoring (especially for new school leaders) so that they can get support and receive feedback from experienced leaders.
- Providing coaching for school leaders.

CONCLUSION

The quality of school leadership is fundamental to the educational quality of a school. As both *TPD in Crisis* authors and participants note, and as research substantiates (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Fullan, 2007), this chapter has emphasized the need to provide focused professional learning opportunities for school leaders so that they can play a role in improving teacher professional development systems and helping transfer learning from professional development sessions to the classroom. When school leaders are able to identify and promote quality instructional practices, and when they facilitate professional development that helps teachers attain those practices, students benefit. When school leaders learn how to coach, convene professional learning groups (communities of practice), encourage external learning (through exchange programs or formal study), provide ongoing, in-classroom support and customize support to each of their individual teachers, schools – even in the most fragile and low-resource environments – can begin to show improvements in teaching and, in turn, a marked increase in student learning.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards for Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>

INEE Guidance Notes on Safer School Construction:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1005>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>



Copyright: Mark Kaye/Save the Children

REFERENCES

- Cambodia Independent Teachers Association (CITA). (2010-2012). *Teachers' salary and terms and conditions: Position paper*. Phnom Penh, Cambodia. Retrieved from <http://www.cita.org.kh/education.html>
- CESSP (2006). *School Effectiveness Leadership Programme* [Handout]. Cambodia Education Sector Support Programme, Phnom Penh, Cambodia.
- Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr, M. T., & Cohen, C. (2007). *Preparing school leaders for a changing world: Lessons from exemplary leadership development programs*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Stanford Educational Leadership Institute.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *The new meaning of educational change (4th ed.)*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M. (2013). *Great to excellent: Launching the next stage of Ontario's education agenda*. Retrieved from http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/document/reports/FullanReport_EN_07.pdf
- Harris, A., Day, C., Hopkins, D., Hadfield, M., Hargreaves, A., & Chapman, C. (2003). *Effective leadership for school improvement*. London, UK: Routledge Falmer.
- Jago, S. (2008). *Teaching matters: A policy report on the motivation and morale of teachers in Cambodia*. Phnom Penh, Cambodia: Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO).
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Documents/How-Leadership-Influences-Student-Learning.pdf>
- Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2008). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership. *School Leadership and Management*, 28(1), 27-42. doi: 10.1080/13632430701800060
- Morefield, J. (2010). *Cambodia education sector support project final report: Leadership professional development program*. Phnom Penh, Cambodia: The World Bank.
- Mourshed, M., Chijioke, C., & Barber, M. (2010). *How the world's most improved school systems keep getting better*. London, UK: McKinsey and Company.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2011). *Strong performers and successful reformers in education: Lessons from PISA for the United States*. Paris, France, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/9789264096660-en
- World Education. (2010). *Cambodia Education Sector Support Programme qualitative evaluation*. Unpublished Evaluation for CESSP. Phnom Penh, Cambodia: World Education Inc.



Copyright: Rachel Palmer/Save the Children

RECOMMENDATION 7: USE ICT TO PROVIDE ACCESS TO CONTENT, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITIES

KEY POINTS

- ICT is not a teacher professional development panacea. For successful use, ICT should be embedded within a framework of good practice in teacher professional development (TPD).
- The importance of maintaining a level of human relationships is one of several critical success factors that need to be considered.
- Eight forms of ICT are examined, each of which offers opportunities for teacher development.
- A case study from Zambia offers valuable insight into how to blend ICT with a school-based support program.

James Lawrie, *Save the Children*;

Sara Hennessy, *Faculty of Education, University of Cambridge*;

Björn Haßler, *Faculty of Education, University of Cambridge*;

Phalachandra, *Wawasan Open University (Malaysia)*

“ICT is tricky – the image and nature of change and advancement really tempts educators in Indonesia to use it. On the other hand, it contains its own challenges where most educators still need guidance in using it effectively for instructional purpose.”

Petra Bodrogini, *World Bank, Indonesia*

“Technology needs to be nested within a framework for effective professional development as ICT remains the complement and not the solution alone.”

James Lawrie, *Save the Children UK*

INTRODUCTION

Technology is not a panacea for teacher development. However, there is a belief that Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) can enhance the teacher-learning opportunity by offering multiple opportunities to practice new skills, apply new knowledge and gain access to new digital resources for classroom teaching. ICT (such as video) allows teachers to observe good practice – especially relevant in areas where diverse examples of teaching and learning are in short supply. ICT can make models of effective teaching available to teachers through audio or video. Technology can also act as a ‘leveler’ between students and teachers, making it acceptable for teachers to be learners, instead of the owners of knowledge.

As teachers in fragile contexts gain greater access to smart phones, social media, remote training and online resources and courses, there is much promise for how ICT can increase teacher professional development. But ICT is a complement, not a sole solution. What it cannot do is replace professional face-to-face contact, instill quality where none exists or solve the human and institutional issues that bedevil fragile contexts.

CONDITIONS REQUIRED FOR ICT TO ADD VALUE

For technology to add value to the professional development experience of teachers in fragile contexts, it needs to be nested within a series of conditions, which each add a combination of impact, efficiency and longevity. Of greatest importance is that ICT needs to operate within a framework of effective practice in professional development. Blending ICTs into programs of support is a widely referenced critical success factor for ICT initiatives (Phelps & Graham, 2008; Unwin, 2005). Classroom support from a coach or professional development leader adds value to situations where teachers access valuable content through digital devices. Personalized professional engagement (face-to-face) supports teachers who have access to audio or video content, and working as a community of teachers complements any stimuli received from ICT. Teachers working together and ICT programs that treat teachers as individuals are also important, as explained in the Technology Together project in South Africa.

Many of the factors for successful application of ICT in fragile and low-income locations are explored throughout this guide, but each explains how the “blend” and the human relationships are critical. Government finance or policy support enables ICT application to be maintained or prioritized, which is an essential component of any innovation wishing to advance beyond the pilot stage. But this is only part of the equation. Teachers need to be sold on the value of

“Most schools indicated that Technology Together was substantially different to the ICT professional development approaches previously implemented ... it reached greater numbers of staff, prompted more discussion and sharing about technology and formalized ICT professional learning. In comparison to methods previously employed, the approach acknowledged that each teacher was starting at a different place, encouraging them to identify and pursue personally relevant goals and putting them in charge of their own learning.”

(Phelps & Graham, 2008, p. 8)

investing time and commitment as the ICT wow-factor is short-lived in most instances. Technology expertise and the necessary infrastructure (electricity, solar power, repair facilities) are additional important issues that need advance consideration.

The application of ICT for professional development highlights the importance of wider collaboration across agencies involved in TPD in fragile settings – Ministries of Education, the Education Cluster,⁵⁷ other coordination groups and individual agencies (NGOs, United Nations agencies) have a role to play in ensuring that TPD work is linked to national systems and that successful practice is communicated and celebrated. This is especially true for ICT-related innovations, which are often small-to-medium in scale and can yield substantial learning for the sector when widely communicated and suitably evaluated.

Case Study: OER4Schools

Teachers in fragile contexts often lack access to teaching and learning materials. This case study shows how a combination of access to teaching materials, technology (video and netbooks/tablets) and in-classroom support can lead to positive gains for teachers. OER4Schools aims to support Zambian teachers in improving student learning outcomes through developing more interactive methods of teaching and introducing digital technology. Importantly, it is not the technology alone that is the key to success, but rather embedding technology into a program that adheres to principles of effective pedagogy and professional development. The workshop-based program for pre-service or in-service education offers new strategies, and, together with key stakeholders, the Cambridge University team is adapting them for – and assessing their value within – the particular context: low-resourced educational environments in sub-Saharan Africa. These contexts are typified by crowded classrooms and overworked, low-paid and often under-qualified teachers. Teachers in this context urgently need access to opportunities for effective professional development (Thakrar, Zinn, & Wolfenden, 2009).

OER4Schools blends multiple forms of technology into a school-based and classroom-focused approach to teacher professional development. Video is used to stimulate critical reflection; films of unknown teachers from Zambian and South African classrooms (with and without technology), with accompanying texts, practical activities and facilitator notes, are used to help teachers reflect on both existing and more effective practices. A collaboratively developed, multimedia professional development resource⁵⁸ supports the process of interactive teaching and active, collaborative learning – both generally and through using ICT. This resource is a set of locally contextualized, online open education resources that support teachers' own learning and their lesson preparation; it comprises 25 two-hour sessions, organized in five units covering interactive teaching principles, group work, questioning, dialogue, *Assessment for Learning* and enquiry-based learning. To access the materials, teachers use low-cost tablets or netbooks/laptops. This hardware comes with the multiple benefits of using the video and photo functionality, as well as many other features.

⁵⁷ See <http://educationcluster.net/>.

⁵⁸ See <http://www.OER4Schools.org>.

OER4Schools encourages teachers to follow a “Reflect-Plan-Teach-Reflect” cycle. They learn about educational principles through practical workshops, and they plan classroom activities. One of the key success factors in the program is an emphasis on immediate classroom trialing, which helps put new approaches into practice straight away. There is ample evidence that immediate feedback to teachers following teaching is valuable professional support. Quality conversations focused on the specifics of teaching are promoted (Wallace, 2003, pp. 11-12), as is creating opportunities for dialogue and critical reflection. Research shows that collegiality does not, per se, ensure quality, but it requires a critical stance (Manouchehri, 2001). These activities are embedded and sustained over time, rather than offering, for example, a one-off workshop (without any teaching practice). The overall goal is to help teachers to focus on student *learning*, meeting the challenge of moving away from superficial repetition of facts towards deeper learning and understanding.

The team's research in Zambia suggests that, through the program, participants showed an increase in the use of ICT in teaching and that their communication skills improved. (Haßler, Hennessy, & Lubasi, 2011). Teachers valued the use of Open Educational Resources from digital libraries, and they incorporated these into their lesson planning and curriculum development. They also raised their expectations of students, adapted to their knowledge levels and used more practical and group work. (Hennessy, Haßler, & Hofmann, 2014).⁵⁹ OER4Schools has identified many challenges and lessons learned which connect with ICT-specific issues and also issues of good practice in TPD, as featured across this guide.

Challenges and lessons learned:

- Working remotely with teachers (through phone calls/internet telephony/shared documents) is challenging. It is, therefore, recommended to provide access to resources through local infrastructure (such as a local, low-power, robust server).
- Internet and power availability create opportunities for teachers, but this opportunity is severely hampered by inconsistent and weak bandwidth and inconsistent electricity for powering/charging.
- It takes significant time and engagement for teachers to make deep, rather than superficial, changes in their practice. TPD programs need to be sustained, well supported and supported by resources. It is imperative to find ways of supporting teachers sufficiently, while bearing in mind the availability of resources.
- One-off, top-down interventions do not work. Cost-effective approaches need to be embedded in local school cultures and build on existing teacher practices.
- Strong educational leadership from head teachers is key to addressing challenges with poor working conditions and teacher absenteeism.
- It is also important that unhelpful barriers and hierarchies are broken down so that teachers are free to experiment and discuss. To this end, there are advantages in fostering peer interaction and “critical friendship,” rather than interaction with a “senior trainer,” such as a university or ministry official.

⁵⁹ See <http://tinyurl.com/OER4Schools>.

TECHNOLOGY OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Many organizations are exploring how the use of technology can bring teacher professional development gains. There is, however, limited evidence that technology adds the desired value in fragile locations. This is not to say that technology will not support improvements, but there is a shortage of know-how and related research. This section explores eight software and hardware opportunities, which are developed from practical experience in fragile and low-income locations and informed by evidence from non-fragile states. Most forms of technology are yet

to be partnered with a solid base of evidence. The one exception to this is Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI). IRI has proven to improve teaching in several fragile contexts. Its low-cost and readily available technology has made it a commonly-used vehicle for education delivery in many fragile contexts – especially in Sub-Saharan African locations, such as Niger, Guinea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, South Sudan and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, as well as Bangladesh and Pakistan. Below, this chapter discusses both IRI and its non-broadcast equivalent – Interactive Audio Instruction (IAI).

1. Audio learning (IRI and audio learning for teachers)

Every form of professional development demands resources, but one approach that has been shown to be successful in fragile areas, war-affected areas and in emergencies is audio-based instruction, such as Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) and Interactive Audio Instruction. This has been shown to improve teachers' and student learning, to reach the most vulnerable populations (i.e., as long as they are within range of radio broadcast – as 90% of the world is). IRI has been shown to reduce learning gaps between boys and girls and rural and urban students (Anzalone & Bosch, 2005).

IRI offers a dual audience, direct instructional approach – it teaches teachers as it teaches students – that supports teacher improvement (Burns, 2006). The approach is “just-in-time,” classroom-based and highly scaffolded, which means that teachers can successfully use interactive methods by memory in the absence of radio, as the approach is internalized by teachers. Due to the availability of radio technology, a familiar and common medium, it reaches the most vulnerable populations (such as in rural areas), and it does not require technology-related capacity strengthening, which is the case with many other technologies (Burns, 2011). This means it is commonly used in areas of conflict or in extremely fragile environments like South Sudan, Somalia or the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)

“Provision of ICT in schools is only the first step. For ICTs to become a tool for improving teaching and learning across the curriculum, they need to be supplemented by teacher professional development.”

(Tikly, 2011, p. 12)

“In 2005 I was in Guinea doing a study for the World Bank on radio. The Guinean government had no funding for radio programs, but because the programs are so structured teachers had memorized the approaches and could do the kind of interactive instruction by heart.”

Mary Burns,
Education Development Center

to provide quality TPD in the absence of infrastructure and functioning government institutions.

2. Video (camcorder, camera, and smartphone filming)

Video – through a camcorder, mobile phone or another digital device – offers opportunities for personal reflection on teaching performance. It can also be a stimulus or subject matter for coaching and can be used to evidence (and celebrate) performance improvement. Teachers' lessons can be reviewed by teachers themselves, with peers or with a coach/trainer. Similarly, video of other teachers' performance can also be critiqued. Video-enabled mobile phones or even flip cameras are cheap and increasingly effective in noisy, echo-ridden classrooms. Through on-screen playback, teachers are able to process this new learning with others, using replays and group analysis. The availability of low-cost recording and storing of data makes this formally inaccessible mode of technology available in all fragile locations, with obvious limits placed in areas where filming is culturally sensitive, such as in Afghanistan and Yemen. A considerable benefit of video is that teachers can observe good practice, which is especially valuable in low-income and fragile contexts where models of effective teaching and learning can be in short supply. However, identifying good practice, filming lessons and annotating model teaching is not necessarily straightforward and involves considerable financial and technical investment. Collaborations between organizations to produce this form of material could have significant value to teachers nationwide.

The University of Amsterdam and Edukans' project Learning in Process⁶⁰ details a model developed in Ethiopia and Uganda that utilizes video reflection for teacher improvement (Hoeksma & Sieswerda, 2010). Lesson episodes are filmed and analyzed by the teacher alongside peers, facilitators or coaches. Playback on the screen offers immediate post-lesson reflection, while a small amount of editing on a laptop enables more in-depth analysis.

3. Open educational resources (OER) and other digital materials via tablet, smartphone, laptop (audio, video, visual, text)

Access to high-quality materials can enhance the performance of teaching in classrooms, as teachers can learn from multiple inputs and increase the potential for their learning by accessing a greater range of content. Digital devices (tablets or laptops) with curriculum linked offline or online bring new opportunities to enhance the teacher's performance through self-study outside the walls of the classroom, or through materials that are directly useful for classroom teaching and learning. A projection of materials onto the walls can bring further opportunities for child-learning. Digital resources further provide for expanding the range of modes of learning through video, pictorial, audio, text-based or combinations of these. OER availability on different devices, as well as their free and open content,⁶¹ enables teachers and learners to harness an incredible

60 See <http://connect4change.nl/2012/11/13/ethiopian-teachers-use-video-to-evaluate-and-improve-teaching-skills/>.

61 For an explanation of the differences in terms – open content, open resources and open courseware – go to page 233 in Distance Education for Teacher Training: Modes, models and methods: <http://go.edc.org/07xd>.

selection of educational material and resources, although OER approaches that do not take account of the need for continuous resource development and localization of content are at risk of reduced impact (McGreal et al., 2013).

Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA)⁶² has produced a range of context-specific materials in four languages, having worked with more than 700 educators across the continent to develop its selection. The project, launched in 2005, offers benefits to teachers and teacher educators in multiple countries. “TESSA has had significant impact on the identity and practices of teacher educators and a profound impact on those of teacher-learners. It has fused theory and practice; shifted perceptions from teacher as a ‘know it all’ to ‘teacher as facilitator of learning’; and greatly enhanced the relevance of pupils’ learning experiences. The materials have been used in creative ways to meet the real needs of teachers and learners. Actual use of the materials has by and large represented forms of practice that correspond with best professional practices as described by leading education theorists” (Harley & Simiyu Barasa, 2012, pp. 4-5).

The TESSA example offers insight into the blend of soft-copy materials and hardware, such as Internet connectivity and functioning computers. When affordable and functional hardware was in place, the value-add of the TESSA materials was high. If the infrastructure was not in place or not affordable, then the use and uptake of materials proved to be more difficult or inaccessible. Potentially insurmountable limits are placed on access for the very people who need such materials the most, those in under-resourced and fragile locations (Harley & Simiyu Barasa, 2012). The importance of contextual compatibility and relevance with the norms of institutional culture is also a concern that affects the value colleagues place on the resources. To alleviate this risk, collaborative design, development and subsequent integration of TESSA OERs is supporting institutions in moving from traditional teacher-led methods of teaching to more democratic, learner-centered models (Thakrar et al., 2009).

Another example of promising practice stems from the world’s newest nation. South Sudan presents an especially challenging context for teacher professional development and the use of ICT, yet a multi-agency collaboration is exploring how offline ICT can yield positive gains for teachers in remote areas. The *Connect. Teaching*⁶³ approach is conceived on the premise that providing teachers with curriculum-linked material at the time they are needed, in combination with thorough face-to-face professional support, will lead to improved teaching performance. The first-phase pilot led by War Child Holland delivered rich lessons learned (Remmelzwaal, 2013) leading to wider-scale implementation. The concept involves providing teachers with an offline database of video, audio and text resources accessible through an app on a digital device (tablet computer). This approach, like others modeled on good practice, blends the provision of teaching and learning and professional development material with essential in-classroom support and training.

62 See <http://www.tessafrica.net>.

63 See <http://www.connectnow.org/teaching/>.

4. Computerized student testing

Allowing teachers to see the results of their professional development, not just on themselves but on the learning outcomes of the children they teach, brings great opportunity for teaching improvement. Impressive progress has been made in recent years in student learning outcome assessment systems. The Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA), the work of Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) and the Uwezo assessment in East Africa have all, among others, supported a rapid move towards more measurable and accessible information on children's learning in low-income and fragile contexts. Work in recent years has seen these systems move to digital platforms. This shift to the use of ICT gives teachers the opportunity to receive hard data immediately on their students' academic achievement and, therefore, an indication of the value of their teaching. Systems for this include Tangerine⁶⁴ (Research Triangle Institute) and E-EGRA⁶⁵ (Education Development Center).

Accessing clear assessment on student progress in literacy and numeracy brings tangible benefits for teacher professional development. The purpose of teacher professional development is student learning, and student learning gains are a measure of the effectiveness of a teacher's classroom performance. Longer-term work assessment systems, with a suitable methodology, could connect (attribute) student learning achievement to TPD interventions. This will ultimately improve the provision to teachers. Teachers' improvement is sustained when teachers see (access the evidence) the impact of a change in practice on their students' learning (Guskey, 2002). Digital assessment systems could make this a reality, even in fragile settings. Accessing data enables teachers to understand the performance of the whole class and, importantly, individual students. It also enables teachers to respond to these needs in collaboration with head teachers, professional development leaders or coaches.⁶⁶

If teachers in fragile settings could receive objective information/data on their own teaching performance over a period of time, then this could further enable them to take control of their own learning and increase their own likelihood of achieving quality standards.

5. Computers in schools/ICT centers

ICT resource centers (rows of computers within a space) have limited, if any, direct professional development value for teaching, except, of course, teachers can develop ICT skills nurtured through access and practice on computers. There are numerous examples of ICT resource centers or widespread distribution of hardware (tablets, MP3 players, other) across fragile locations that have limited evidence of their contribution to teacher improvement. Regardless of context, computer labs are cost inefficient

64 See <http://www.tangerinecentral.org/>.

65 See <http://eeгра.edc.org/>.

66 For more information on assessing student learning, see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning, Section 4: Assessment of Learning Outcomes: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

and frequently fall into disrepair and disuse (Unwin, 2005). Similarly, large ICT training initiatives lead to limited change in classroom practice. This high rate of leakage can be attributed to the lack of investment in long-term and genuine support. Hardware without considerable ongoing support is a professional development approach that is destined to fail.

It is the software, content and communication opportunities that can turn a computer suite, which is essentially modeled on an early 20th century typewriter training room, into a professional learning place. Internet-linked computers provide teachers with the opportunity to communicate with peers and trainers/coaches either directly or through social media. Teachers can participate in online forums and Internet spaces dedicated to their learning. Online courses can be taken, and assessments can be made. Teachers can also access a wide range of materials for their professional learning and for direct application in the classroom.

6. Mobile phones

Mobile phones have been discussed previously as part of Recommendation 4, but we touch on them here again.

The accessibility of mobile phones for teachers in fragile locations has mushroomed in recent years. Mobile phones are cost effective, portable, easy to operate, and many offer web browsing. However, there is little substantive evidence of their value for professional development in fragile settings (Burns, 2011). While many initiatives are ongoing (Mobiles for Education Alliance⁶⁷ and UNESCO Mobile Learning⁶⁸), there remains limited research (Barry & Newby, 2012). The value of mobile phones for professional development will be enhanced as data transfer becomes more prevalent, enabling a new range of functionality and multimedia content to teachers. SMS communication, especially with reverse charging, enables teaching- and learning-related messages to be communicated or mini-updates provided. They also offer a useful mechanism for coordination between administrators or project coordinators and a cohort of teachers. It is likely that mobile phones will offer increasingly valuable professional development opportunities for teachers in fragile settings in the coming years as mobile quality, data speed, cost reductions and enhanced functionality all come into play.

The Bridge IT project in Tanzania offers insight into the potential for content to be communicated to teachers and classrooms using mobile devices. Teachers downloaded educational video content using mobile phones. Phones were then connected to TVs in their classrooms, which enabled schools in remote locations to gain access to locally-developed or adapted educational content. Results show take-up increased over time, and nearly all participating teachers were positive about the integration of the videos within their lessons (Enge, 2011). This example shows the dual benefits of material

67 See <http://www.meducationalliance.org/>.

68 See http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/themes/icts/m4ed/unesco-mobile-learning-week/speakers/?utm_source=Mobile+Learning+Week+2013_v3_CfP&utm_campaign=8885b82361-UNESCO_Mobile_Learning3_28_2013&utm_medium=email.

communicated for teachers' own learning (private viewing) and material for whole class teaching, which requires further hardware and a power supply often lacking in more remote and fragile settings.

In Bangladesh, English in Action is a nine-year project seeking to raise the English language competences. The project includes the provision of audio files through mobile phones to acquire English skills. Reports offer impressive anecdotal evidence on the impact of technology on teaching and learning (Walsh, Shrestha, & Hedges, 2013). Consistent with much of the evidence, English in Action further emphasizes the importance of blending approaches, works within the borders of best practices in teacher development and ensures local engagement and relevance.

“English in Action’s framework – although massive in scale (25 million individuals) – leverages ‘the trainer in your pocket’ to facilitate grassroots innovation and achievement of localized community goals around improving/changing English education, thereby making it more communicative and teaching more student-centered.”

(Walsh et al., 2013, p. 198)

7. Online communication (for coaching)

Online communication platforms, such as Skype, combined with the ever improving Internet speed allow the teacher and coach to work together. This technology opportunity is limited to those who can gain access to a regular Internet connection, which restricts potential gains for the large number of educators operating in remote and low-income settings. On-demand coaching through an online platform offers significant opportunity for low-cost training and strengthening of the all-important relationship between colleagues. In 2009-2010, EDC successfully utilized Skype to connect teachers in rural and remote areas of Indonesia to a skilled coach who, among other activities, co-taught “difficult” lessons with teachers, thereby modeling desirable instructional practices.

The technology blends text, voice and video with access to specific online materials and other training, such as webinars. Progress can be discussed, specific coaching provided and feedback offered on test performance, following a classroom-based assessment or on a teacher portfolio. This will bring benefits of increased motivation and a feeling of being supported, which encourages pro-activity. This also helps apply a small degree of pressure to discourage inaction. For more information on the value of coaching, see Recommendation 4.

8. Serious gaming

A technology area with limited or no testing in fragile contexts is “serious” gaming for TPD. A “serious game” is a computer game that educates and helps develop skills in a relevant or useful area. The development of these games can be costly, but the additional unit cost can be low, especially when games are compatible on smartphones, tablets or PCs. The fact that they can be challenging, fun and have an addictive quality could encourage user take-up. The opportunities for teacher professional development are endless, and games could be created to support trainers or coaches, classroom

management, inclusion of learners,⁶⁹ questioning techniques and so forth. Games can present a range of scenarios generated by a series of choices made by the player, and they could help teachers understand the causal relationship between their actions and student learning. Serious games have been used in private and public sector training, which has produced an interesting body of research. A meta-analysis of recent studies indicated that serious gaming can offer considerable learning opportunities for participants, but the evidence is mixed with some studies finding minimal gains (Girard, Ecalle, & Magnan, 2013). Another meta-analysis explored the attributes of games that facilitate effective learning: fantasy, representation, sensory stimuli, challenge, mystery, assessment and control (Wilson et al., 2009). It can be hoped that if these attributes were effectively blended in a relevant teacher development topic for teachers in fragile locations, then we could see knowledge acquisition, content understanding and motivational outcomes (Connolly et al., 2012).

CONCLUSION

This chapter has identified a number of promising technologies suitable for fragile contexts. They range from those which demonstrate teacher improvement results (IRI) and those with a growing and positive evidence base (OERs), to those which are promising but are without evidence from fragile contexts (serious gaming). The chapter has also identified those which are well tried but contain minimal evidence of value (computer rooms). We will learn how effective these applications are in the coming years as the research base on this relatively new field develops.

ICT has the potential to genuinely support teacher professional learning because it can bring models of good practice, provide quality resources and encourage dialogue between knowledgeable peers. It can be an impetus or catalyst to re-assess current or heavily embedded practice in teacher development, as it can create energy to review previously held assumptions by offering an alternative approach. ICT can help access difficult to reach locations (such as with IRI) and more efficiently improve teacher learning (and therefore child-learning) in remote areas.

The ingredients for effective professional development in fragile contexts are consistent, and professional support for teachers remains critical whether working with or without modern technologies. “One area that is clearly crucial for the success of many technology interventions is support for teachers in understanding and using the technology in their work. There are many examples where attention to this important enabling condition is missing and thus the intervention fails” (Winthrop & Smith, 2012, p. 35). Above all, ICT needs to be blended into well-founded programs with in-school practical training, which includes practice with the technology, in-classroom coaching and facilitated opportunities for teachers to work together as a community of practitioners (Tikly, 2011).

69 For more on including all learners, see the INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007>, as well as inclusive education resources in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1062>.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007>

INEE Toolkit - Inclusive Education Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1062>

REFERENCES

- Anzalone, S., & Bosch, A. (2005). *Improving educational quality through interactive radio instruction: A toolkit for policy makers and planners*. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Retrieved from: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EXTAFRREGTOPDISSEDU/Resources/WBIRItoolkit_05.pdf
- Barry, B., & Newby, L. (2012). *Use of technology in emergency and post-crisis situations*. Paris, France: Global Education Cluster Working Group and IIEP-UNESCO. Retrieved from <http://educationcluster.net/?get=000388%7C2013/12/Technology-in-Emergencies--Post-Crises.pdf>
- Burns, M. (2006). *Improving teaching quality in Guinea with interactive radio instruction: Working paper 2*. Washington, DC: The World Bank. Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/mpd5ged>
- Burns, M. (2011). *Distance education for teacher training: Modes, models and methods*. Retrieved from <http://go.edc.org/07xd>
- Connolly, T. M., Boyle, E. A., MacArthur, E., Hainey, T., & Boyle, J. M. (2012). A systematic literature review of empirical evidence on computer games and serious games. *Computers & Education*, 59(2), 661-686. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2012.03.004
- Enge, K. (2011). *Elimu kwa Teknolojia: A BridgeIT program: Summative evaluation: Executive summary*. P. Scheid & C. Orman (Eds.). Retrieved from http://www.iyfnet.org/sites/default/files/BridgeIT_Eval_Exec_Summary_Jul2011.pdf
- Girard, C., Ecalle, J., & Magnan, A. (2013). Serious games as new educational tools: How effective are they? A meta-analysis of recent studies. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 29(3), 207-219. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2729.2012.00489.x
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 8(3/4), 381-391. doi: 10.1080/135406002100000512
- Harley, K., & Simiyu Barasa, F. (2012). *TESSA teacher education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Formative evaluation report*. Retrieved from <http://www.tessafrica.net/evaluation>
- Haßler, B., Hennessy, S., & Lubasi, B. (2011). Changing classroom practice using a school-based professional development approach to introducing digital resources in Zambia. *Itupale Online Journal of African Studies*, 3, 17-31. Retrieved from: http://www.cambridgetoafrica.org/resources/Hassler_et_al_2011.pdf

- Hennessy, S., Haßler, B., & Hofmann, R. (2014). *Pedagogic change by Zambian primary school teachers participating in the OERS4Schools professional development programme for one year*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Hoeksma, M., & Sieswerda, S. (2010). *Learning in process: Quality of teaching and learning in rural Ethiopia*. Amsterdam/Addis Ababa: Graduate School of Child Development and Education, University of Amsterdam.
- Manouchehri, A. (2001). Collegial interaction and reflective practice. *Action In Teacher Education*, 22(4), 86-97. doi: 10.1080/01626620.2001.10463032
- McGreal, R., Kinuthia, W., Marshall, S., & McNamara, T. (Eds.). (2013). *Open educational resources: Innovation, research and practice*. Vancouver, B.C.: Commonwealth of Learning and Athabasca University.
- Phelps, R., & Graham, A. (2008). Developing technology together, together: A whole-school metacognitive approach to ICT teacher professional development. *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education*, 24(4), 125-133. doi: 10.1080/10402454.2008.10784598
- Rommelzwaal, B. (2013). *Evaluation of Pilot 1 Connect.Teaching*. Unpublished evaluation report for War Child Holland. Nairobi, Kenya.
- Thakrar, J., Zinn, D., & Wolfenden, F. (2009). Harnessing open educational resources to the challenges of teacher education in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 10(4), 1-15.
- Tikly, L. (2011). *Implementing education quality in low income countries: EdQual final report*. Retrieved from http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/PDF/Outputs/ImpQuality_RPC/EdqualFinalReport.pdf
- Unwin, T. (2005). Towards a framework for the use of ICT in teacher training in Africa. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 20(2), 113-129. doi: 10.1080/02680510500094124
- Wallace, J. (2003). Introduction: Learning about teacher learning: Reflections of a science educator. In J. Wallace & J. Loughran (Eds.), *Leadership and professional development in science education: New possibilities for enhancing teacher learning* (pp. 1-16). London, UK: Routledge.
- Walsh, C. S., Shrestha, P., & Hedges, C. (2013). Mobile phones for professional development and English teaching in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning*, 13(2), 183-200. doi: 10.1504/IJIL.2013.052287
- Wilson, K. A., Bedwell, W. L., Lazzara, E. H., Salas, E., Burke, C. S., Estock, J. L., Orvis, K. L., & Conkey, C. (2009). Relationships between game attributes and learning outcomes: Review and research proposals. *Simulation & Gaming*, 40(2), 217-266. doi: 10.1177/1046878108321866
- Winthrop, R., & Smith, M. S., (2012). *A new face of education: Bringing technology into the classroom in the developing world: Brooke Shearer working paper series (working paper 1)*. Washington, DC: Brookings. Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/l28gh7r>



PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHERS IN THE WORLD'S MOST FRAGILE CONTEXTS CANNOT WAIT

*Mary Burns, Education Development Center;
James, Lawrie, Save the Children*

“These are such clear common strategies for improving professional development. In many ways this is very reassuring, and in other ways frustrating. Even though we know what works, education is such a political issue in many countries that clear evidence-based outcomes are ignored to satisfy some sort of electoral pressure.”

Kate Shevland, Orewa College, New Zealand

“This is an invitation to all of us involved in some sort of professional development (PD) – whether in the NGO, multilateral, bilateral or government fields – to question our practices and not to keep on repeating the same approaches which often happens, even though there are no results whatsoever. Indeed, rather no PD than bad PD.”

Lieve Leroy, South Africa

Teacher professional development is in crisis – particularly in the world's poorest and most fragile regions. This guide has shared the challenges that plague teacher professional development in fragile and crisis contexts. It has identified some of problems (most likely already well known), put forth a set of author-generated and research-based recommendations (where available) and spoken of the urgency of improving teacher professional development in the world's poorest contexts.

Authors have offered stories and experiences, which exemplify the challenge of raising educational quality through TPD in fragile and conflict-affected states. Silje Sjøvaag Skeie's quote reminds us of the lack of formal preparation that so many teachers face, especially those in refugee and IDP contexts:

"Pre-service training, often lasting for two to six weeks, normally gives untrained teachers some basic understanding of teaching, subject matter and planning a lesson...(however) even when combined with monitoring and regular on-the-job training, (this) (does not) sufficiently prepare a teacher for the job."

This community of contributors has collectively addressed the need to reform and improve professional development for teachers in fragile contexts with the common belief that the current models of professional development and "teacher training" often fail the very teachers they are supposed to help. In addition to the need for greater international, national and local commitment and will, sufficiently targeted resources and a willingness to improve teacher quality in service of "educational quality for all," the *TPD in Crisis* authors recap the seven recommendations outlined in this guide.

"National policymakers and educational planners must do everything in their power to deter and mitigate attacks on educational systems. This includes establishing protocols, legislation, plans, and conventions to keep education safe from attack; dedicating funds in educational sector plans and budgets for emergency prevention, preparedness, response and recovery; signing international conventions and working with local communities to keep schools out of conflict's way; and working with United Nations agencies and civil society organizations to review and strengthen national policies and practices, monitoring and reporting mechanisms, and to develop stronger international standards that will protect education from attack."

Save the Children, 2013, p. v

1. Focus on teachers in fragile contexts – as professionals, learners and individuals

Many times, crisis erupts seemingly suddenly – as when natural disasters strike⁷⁰ or a young Tunisian fruit seller, Mohamed Bouazizi, self-immolates, thereby sparking an "Arab Spring." Other crises are slower moving – decades and generations of sectarian, political or ethnic tensions fester quietly or in a contained manner, and then "things fall apart, the center cannot hold." In many places, crisis and conflict are not a matter of "if," they are a matter of "when."⁷¹

Teachers in both types of environments need "extra layers" of professional development and support. They need psychosocial supports so that they, too, can recover from the effects of conflict and crisis; they need training in providing psychosocial and emotional

70 Resources on disaster risk reduction can be found in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1054>.

71 For guidance on implementing education in times of conflict, see the INEE Conflict Sensitive Education Pack: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>.

supports to their students,⁷² who may be recovering from attacks on their school or loss of their homes because of an earthquake. They need training in conflict disputes,⁷³ cultural diversity and critical thinking so that they are teaching history in such a way that it does not further enflame resentments. They need professional development that helps them see that girls, or members of a certain caste, or Christians, or Muslims, or children of a certain tribe, or children with disabilities can learn and thrive as well as other children.⁷⁴ Teachers need all of this – before crisis strikes, as much as possible during a crisis and certainly after the crisis so that they and their students can begin the healing process.

In many fragile contexts (and non-fragile ones, too), teachers are blamed for the poor training and preparation that they have received. They are blamed for not implementing what they've learned in professional development that is often irrelevant, not focused on their problems of practice and offers no support. They are not consulted about policies and programs that directly impact them. And, of course, they are poorly paid⁷⁵ and working in conditions that most people would desperately want to (and indeed do) escape.

All of us who work in education must begin to recognize teachers as professionals who must have access to the same kinds of high-quality professional learning that other professionals receive.

As Kate Shevland, Deborah Haines, Vicki Dimock, Catherine Gladwell, Heidi Biseth and Jenni Donahoo note, this will involve developing or adapting standards for quality teaching and consulting with teachers about the kinds of instruction and support they need. It will involve creating “high-yield” professional development programs that help teachers enact instructional strategies that have been shown to improve student achievement. It will demand moving away from inexpensive cascade and workshop approaches, which have no or limited research on their effectiveness, toward long-term professional development that provides teachers with clinical supervision and support and which promotes teacher collaboration. Finally, of course, it means improving pay for teachers so that they are not working three jobs, doing private tutoring during class or feeling so demotivated that they fail to show up to teach.

Doing all of the above in fragile, emergency, post-conflict or refugee contexts means that all actors – relief, emergency, educational and humanitarian – coordinate and integrate their efforts.

72 More guidance on psychosocial support can be found in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>.

73 Resources about conflict mitigation can be found in the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1053>.

74 For more resources, please see INEE's Pocket Guides to Gender: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>, Inclusive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007> and Supporting Learners with Disabilities: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1138>.

75 To learn more about paying teachers, see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation in Fragile States, Situations of Displacement and Post-Crisis Recovery: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>.

2. Develop, apply, measure and institutionalize standards for teacher professional development

Much teacher professional development in developing contexts fails to meet even minimal thresholds of quality. As Heidi Biseth, Carol Taylor and Deborah Haines suggest, we can begin to address these issues of quality by:

- Coming to consensus on what constitutes quality teaching and implementing standards for quality teaching (as has been attempted by the INEE Minimum Standards, the UNHCR's standards on quality teaching in refugee settings and, though not specifically about teaching, the metrics of quality learning from the Learning Metrics Task Force).
- Designing standards for professional development providers (organizations and individuals) in the competencies associated with quality teaching – subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, assessment, communication, classroom management and learning and development, as well as humanitarian education (gender equity, ethical behavior, peaceful conflict resolution skills, tolerance for all diverse groups, etc.).
- Rigorously evaluating professional development, based not on teachers' enjoyment of a workshop, but on their successful transfer of learning to their classrooms.

3. Create professional development opportunities that promote teacher collaboration

By far, the most effective forms of professional development are grounded in teacher collaboration in which teachers share ideas, plan and practice together and work toward common student learning outcomes. We have evidence of this from both fragile and non-fragile contexts. Whether these collaborative structures are “teacher learning circles,” “professional teaching and learning cycles” or co-teaching, as Paul St. John Frisoli, Saouma BouJaoude and Vicki Dimock inform us, collaboratively based professional development allows teachers to move along a continuum from groups of individuals to communities of interest to communities of practice. It encourages adoption of agreed-upon best practice within the school itself and sustains the types of changes promoted by teacher training and professional development efforts. It allows teachers to reflect together on their own teaching and their performance as teachers. Research is clear about the impact of such collaboration – the biggest effect on student learning is when teachers become learners about their own teaching (Hattie, 2009).

Sustained, intensive and quality teacher professional development is related to student achievement gains in large part because it provides teachers with ongoing support. We know from both fragile and non-fragile contexts that ongoing support is critical to helping teachers improve their practice. But for professional development to produce strong effects on student learning, it must embody evidence-based best practices.

4. Provide teachers with ongoing support

For every *TPD in Crisis* author, teacher support was the most important element of any professional development model or system. As can be seen throughout this guide, “support” for teachers⁷⁶ assumes a multitude of forms: In some cases, support manifests itself as place-based instruction and coaching, or as Hannah Snowden’s vignette about Mr. Tom reminds us – at the very least, teachers need access to the basics – like chalk. More often than not, support involves all of these things – all at the same time.

5. Invest in high-quality teacher educators

Poor teacher training fails teachers. As Catherine Gladwell and Deborah Haines note, we must pay attention to the quality of the instruction that teachers receive – and the quality and qualifications of those instructors. Teachers need well-trained teacher educators who have actual classroom experience, can model the practices that teachers are supposed to implement and help teachers connect theory with practice. High-quality professional instruction needs to be the norm – not the exception – for the teachers who need it most.

6. Build instructional leadership at all levels of the educational system

Teachers benefit from a well-trained and skilled instructional leader, their school head teacher or principal. As John Morefield notes, support for teacher change or learning often involves leadership and the institutional backing of a skilled principal or administrator. Leaders play a crucial role in ensuring that teachers continuously learn through systems, coaching and classroom-based support. Maintaining a positive learning trajectory for those teachers who have received some form of outside support, training for example, is also a requirement of an effective school leader. As demonstrated by the example from Cambodia, school leadership programs can lead to positive gains for teacher development.

7. Use ICT to provide access to content, professional development and professional learning communities

While piloting ICTs is increasingly common within fragile settings, identifying and scaling proven models of good practice remains rare. ICT can be used to support teacher development within fragile environments. Interactive Radio Instruction and Interactive Audio Instruction have been proven to support teacher and student learning in hard-to-reach locations. With low-cost smart phones increasingly available in fragile settings, teachers can access videos to see good practice in action. Simple and feature phones can allow teachers to access other teachers via phone-based social networking sites (like Mxlt), language learning (via programs like English in Action) and content and

⁷⁶ More about teacher support can be found in the INEE Minimum Standards for Education Handbook, Domain 3: Teaching and Learning, Standard 2: Training, Professional Development and Support & Domain 4: Teachers and Other Education Personnel, Standard 3: Support and Supervision: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>. Also see the INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning, Section 2: Training, Professional Development and Support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>.

bite-sized learning opportunities (like EDC's Stepping Stone mobile learning platform). Teachers in refugee camps can access ongoing learning opportunities through MOOCs, free online courses, podcasts and educational programming on YouTube. Remote communications through the Internet or SMS offer new opportunities for coaching and mentoring. Teachers need content, as Björn Haßler and Sara Hennessy write, therefore, access to open educational resources (OER), open courses and open content. A critical issue with all technology, however, is access to equipment (whether a phone or laptop) and a functioning communication infrastructure, whether radio, TV, cellular service or the Internet.

ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

In addition to the above recommendations, we conclude this guide with three additional considerations.

1. Understand that “fragility” is multi-dimensional, imposes multiple barriers to quality education and impacts teachers differently

While many organizations define “fragility” as corresponding to a set of certain characteristics, for authors in the *TPD is Crisis* series, “fragility” assumes a multitude of forms. Every day, teachers in the poorest neighborhoods of Detroit, Michigan (US); the southern neighborhoods of Beirut; cities like Belfast, Bangui and Homs; rural Malawi; the slums of San Pedro Sula, Honduras; and poor, migrant communities on the Texas-Mexico border deal with the various manifestations of fragility – gang violence, addiction, war, civil unrest, political instability, broken and stressed families, trauma, student inability to concentrate, undiagnosed learning disabilities, hunger, homelessness, loss, fear, a lack of supplies and a lack of commitment to education.⁷⁷ In such situations, teachers are not only instructors, they are social workers, counselors, nurses, disciplinarians, confidantes and surrogate parents.⁷⁸ Because these contexts of fragility differ so greatly, so, too, must the composition of our support and responses to teachers and students within these difficult environments. But because contexts of fragility – wherever across the globe they may be – have so much in common, we must not limit our inquiry or use of research or search for what can work to a subset of geographic locations or specific conditions.

2. Increase investment in research on teacher professional development in fragile contexts

Readers of this guide, like its authors, are well aware of the gaps in knowledge that exist here. Any shortcomings are, of course, the responsibility of authors. However, the gaps in knowledge of what does and does not work are reflective of a more serious

⁷⁷ For more on supporting students coping with disabilities, review the INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007> and the INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1138>.

⁷⁸ Additional resources can be found in the INEE Toolkit regarding protection: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1064> and psychosocial support: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>.

shortcoming – there is a serious shortage of rigorous empirical research (or at least *available* rigorous empirical research) on effective practice in teacher professional development in fragile settings.

Simply put, we do not know what works to improve teacher learning in emergency or post-conflict situations. We do not know definitively whether best practices from a stable, wealthy context are equally transferrable to a highly fragile one – or that they are not. Through the process of convening the *TPD in Crisis* discussion series, through a review of literature and through coding, analysis and theme construction from author and participant posts, we have identified a critical need for more research and evaluation in the area of teacher development in fragile contexts.

As noted in this guide, there are several key problems with research and evidence on teacher professional development in fragile contexts:

- Though this is beginning to change, most donor programs do not call for or support the kinds of rigorous studies that could prove causality or even correlation.
- Even where there are evaluations, they are often little more than “bean counting” – detailing the number of inputs versus outcomes. These evaluations often fail to analyze attribution or the causal relationship between the professional development intervention, teacher change and the changes in student learning outcomes.
- Though fragility is broadly defined, it is narrowly interpreted– often synonymous with conflict or post-conflict or least-developed nations. Further, the prototype of what countries “qualify” as fragile is so strongly held that there is often a tendency to discount research or models from similar contexts in wealthier countries, in particular, and from wealthy countries in general (despite the fact that many TPD practices, such as coaching and support-based programs, have shown successful transfer from wealthier contexts to poorer ones).
- School-level data, research findings, reports, evaluations (so called, “grey literature”) are not made available beyond the walls of educational organizations. This limits the education sector’s ability to learn from effective (and less effective) practice.
- Because NGOs compete against one another for donor funding, there is little incentive to share data and knowledge or to publicize failures so that all can learn from them. NGOs and implementing agencies typically hide the shortcomings of their programs for fear of losing funding, and there is a perception – whether imagined or true – that donors punish failure versus attempting to learn from it.
- Within NGOs or other education in emergency, learning systems and learning culture are too frequently under developed. This affects the potential for individual and institutional learning, which restricts the modernization of practice in line with new knowledge (rather than repetition of poor practice). The ability to respond proactively to promising innovation is also negatively affected.

In all areas of professional development, there is a need to innovate – to blend, test and retest new concepts in order to understand value. Educators working in fragile environments need to conduct research and evaluate projects while prioritizing data capture on teachers’ classroom practice and the learning achievement of their students. We need to seek greater understanding of the relationship between classroom-based change and coaching, peer observation, communities of practice, expert and peer support, skilled teacher educators, effective school leaders, leadership and technology.

3. Professional development for teachers in the world’s most fragile contexts cannot wait

As an international educational community committed to fulfilling a child’s right to a quality education,⁷⁹ we must reverse the course of failing educational systems. We know that teacher quality is the single greatest school-level determinant of student learning. We know, too, that high-quality professional development and ongoing support for teachers are essential to quality teaching. If we believe this, then quality teacher professional development cannot wait. We must recognize that the teachers in the world’s poorest and most fragile contexts need high-quality professional development if we expect them to deliver a quality education within the most difficult of professional and personal circumstances. International donors must not leave teachers and teacher professional development behind, but rather increase levels of aid to education to improve professional development delivery mechanisms. Donors must also ensure that their humanitarian and development policies are connected, so that “funding covers both the need to ensure education in humanitarian emergencies as soon as a crisis hits, and long-term development education strategies” (Save the Children, 2013, p. 32).

Fragile contexts – beset by conflict, poverty or political instability – have weak educational systems, low teacher quality and fragile teacher education systems. What is needed is more *understanding* about the needs of teachers and teacher professional development in fragile contexts; greater long-term *investment* in and *implementation* of high-quality professional development programs and systems; and *expansion* of the research base to understand what works in fragile contexts so that we can begin to strengthen such fragile teacher education systems. We do not yet have all the answers; indeed, we don’t even know all of the questions. But we do know that there is much work to be done.

Quality professional development for teachers in fragile contexts cannot wait.

79 For additional guidance on human rights issues, see the INEE Toolkit: <http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1061>.

Tools and Resources that Support the TPD in Fragile Contexts

For more information about the INEE Tools referenced in this section, visit the INEE Toolkit via the links below.

INEE Minimum Standards for Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1002>

INEE Toolkit - Disaster Risk Reduction Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1054>

INEE Conflict Sensitive Education Pack:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1148>

INEE Toolkit - Psychosocial Support Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1065>

INEE Toolkit - Conflict Mitigation Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1053>

INEE Pocket Guide to Gender:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1009>

INEE Pocket Guide to Inclusive Education:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1007>

INEE Pocket Guide to Supporting Learners with Disabilities:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1138>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1006>

INEE Guidance Notes on Teaching and Learning:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1004>

INEE Toolkit - Protection Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1064>

INEE Toolkit - Human Rights Resources:

<http://toolkit.ineesite.org/toolkit/Toolkit.php?PostID=1061>

REFERENCES

- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Save the Children. (2013). *Attacks on education: The impact of conflict and grave violations on children's futures*. London, UK: Save the Children.



Copyright: Anne-Sofie Helms / Save the Children

VI. ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

To access supplemental sources on TPD in crisis contexts, please reference INEE's complete annotated bibliography. The annotated bibliography reflects the results from a review of relevant literature and includes aspects of TPD such as specific models and approaches, information and communications technologies (ICT), teacher management, theoretical frameworks for strategic TPD, and the impact of TPD on a variety of outcomes.

Based primarily on research studies, working papers, and organizational publications, the bibliography focuses on TPD in fragile, conflict, and post-conflict contexts. However, because of the limited available literature specific to these contexts, articles discussing TPD in developing countries were also included.

Please visit: www.ineesite.org/bibliography-tpd



Copyright: Jane Hahn / Panos

VII. INDEX

- administrative support 85
- adult learning 30
- Afghanistan 16, 30, 84, 92, 95, 136
- Aga Khan Development Network 45
- Alam, I. 17
- Australia: National Professional Standards for Teachers 65
- Bangladesh
 - ICT 95, 135, 140
 - teacher support 91, 92
- barriers to teachers' professional learning 27–8, 28f, 33
 - impact of armed conflict 16–18, 32
 - low-quality TPD 30–2
 - systematic challenges 31–2
 - working conditions 28–9
- Bengtsson 11 16
- Bhuvanendra, D. 49
- bibliography 10
- Bird, L. 20
- Biseth, H. 57, 147, 148
- blended learning 97, 112
- Bodrogini, P. 84, 131
- Botswana 97
- Bouazizi, M. 146
- BouJaoude, S. 15, 25, 69, 148
- Bransford, J. 43
- British Council 72
- Brookings Institution 62
- Burma: Karen education 105
- Burns, M. 7, 9, 15, 18, 25, 29, 39, 57, 69, 83, 103, 135, 145
- Cambodia: leadership improvement 117, 121, 122–3, 124
- Canada: Ontario 70, 125–6
 - cascade approach to training 30, 31, 46–7, 59, 72, 84
- Central African Republic 17, 18, 95, 150
- cercles de renforcement* 95
- change and innovation 29, 40, 52–3, 152
- Chile: Teacher Professional Groups 70
- class visits 71
- co-teaching 72
- coaching 87
 - considerations 31, 84, 91–2
 - external coaching 90–1
 - mobile coaching 95–6
 - online communication 140
 - peer coaching 89
 - relationships 89
 - strategies 89
 - teacher educators 107
 - types of coaches 89
- Colombia
 - Escuela Nueva 112
 - fragility 16, 19, 20
 - support for teachers 47, 49, 50
- communities of learning 76
- communities of interest 76
- communities of practice 76
- community support 86
- competencies 63, 64
- conflict
 - definitions 16
 - impact of armed conflict 16–18, 32
- conflict-resolution skills 50
- Connect.Teaching* 137
- continuous professional development *see* teacher professional development
- Cordingley, P. et al. 107
- Côte d'Ivoire 47, 58
- critical friends 74
- critical thinking skills 49
- curriculum planning 44
- Darling-Hammond, L. et al. 43, 70
- delivery issues 30
- Dembélé, M. 59
- Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) 17, 70, 74–5, 95, 135
- design issues 30
- Dimock, K. V. 39, 69, 147, 148
- diversity awareness 49, 147
- Donohoo, J. 69, 117, 147
- Doumbia, K. 47, 58
- Dow, J. 40
- E-EGRA 138
- Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) 138
- Ecuador 19, 41, 109
- Education Development Center (EDC) 72, 90, 95, 138, 140
- educational settings: definition 11
- Edukans 89, 136
- efficacy beliefs 29
- Egypt: mentoring 92
- El Salvador 19, 20, 75
- emotional support 86
- Enabling Education Network 105
- English in Action 140
- environment 45–6
- Ethiopia
 - challenges 19
 - standards 42, 62
 - teacher professional development 89, 92–3, 136
 - teacher qualification 109

- family support 86
- Feiman-Nemser, S. 7
- flipped professional development 96–7
- fragility and education 10, 15
 - fragility definitions 16, 21, 150, 151
 - impact of armed conflict 16–18, 32
 - manifestations of fragility 18–19
- Frisoli, P. St. J. 69, 148
- Fundamental Quality in Education Level (FQEL) 95
- The Gambia: coaching 90
- Gaza 16–17
- gender 20–1, 26, 32, 49, 50, 111
- Ghana 92, 95
- Gladwell, C. 103, 147, 149
- Global Partnership for Education 90
- Graham, A. 132
- Guatemala 20
- Guinea-Bissau: teacher qualification 41
- Guinea: technology 95, 135
- Haines, D. 39, 103, 147, 148, 149
- Haiti: teacher professional identity 29
- Harley, K. 137
- Haßler, B. 131, 150
- Hattie, J. 44
- Hennessy, S. 131, 150
- Holmes, R. 49
- Honduras 18, 19, 20, 75, 150
- human capital 79
- IAI see Interactive Audio Instruction
- ICT resource centers 138–9
- ICT use 131–2, 149–50
 - computerized student testing 138
 - conditions required for added value 132–4
 - flipped professional development 96–7
 - ICT resource centers 138–9
 - Interactive Audio Instruction 93, 95, 112, 135–6
 - Interactive Radio Instruction 93, 95, 112, 135–6
 - mobile coaching 95–6
 - mobile phones 95–6, 136, 139–40
 - online learning 112, 140
 - open educational resources 133–4, 136–7
 - opportunities for TPD 135–41
 - serious gaming 140–1
 - technical support 64, 86, 133, 139, 141
 - technology-based supports 93, 95–8
 - video 89, 96–7, 112, 136, 139–40
- in-service education see teacher professional development
- India 47, 70, 72, 95
 - Gujarat 18, 19
- individual capital 79
- Indonesia 106
 - ICT 131, 140
 - teacher support 72, 90–1, 93, 140
- INEE (Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies)
 - Conflict Sensitive Education Pack 50
 - Minimum standards for education* 18, 50, 51f, 62
 - see also *TPD in Crisis* forum
- instructional consistency 73
- instructional leadership 119–20, 121
- instructional rounds 89
- instructional support 86
- Interactive Audio Instruction (IAI) 93, 95, 112, 135–6
- Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) 93, 95, 112, 135–6
- International Rescue Committee (IRC): Healing Classrooms Initiative 50, 62
- Iraq 18
- Johnson, S. et al. 46
- Joyce, B. 84
- Karen Teacher Training College (KTTC) 105
- Karen Teacher Working Group (KTWG) 105
- Kenya 19
 - teacher educators 103, 112
 - teacher qualification 31, 40
 - teacher support 89, 92, 95
- Kenyan Education Sector Support Program (KESSP) 89
- Key Resource Teachers (KRTs) 89
- Kirk, J. 29, 50
- language training 27
- Laub, T. 17
- Lawrie, J. 9, 103, 117, 131, 145
- Learning in Process 136
- Lebanon
 - fragility 15, 18, 19, 21, 150
 - teacher educators 106
 - Teacher Learning Circles 73–4
- Leithwood, K. et al. 118
- Leroy, L. 145
- lesson planning 44
- lesson study 97–8
- Liberia
 - ICT 135
 - literacy 91
- Lipsett, A. 20
- literacy 90, 91, 138
- Lortie, D. C. 29
- Lowe, J. 60
- Lunenberg, M. et al. 106
- Madagascar 95
- Malawi 150
- Mali 90, 95
- Menon, G. 84
- mental health issues 47, 49
- mentoring 84, 87, 92–3
- mobile phones 139–40
 - mobile coaching 95–6
 - radio programs 95
 - smart phones 95, 136
 - video 136, 139–40
- modeling 73, 106, 107–8, 110
- monitoring and evaluation 64
- MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses) 96
- Morefield, J. 40, 83, 117, 149
- motivation 29, 33, 41, 44, 69
- Mourshed, M. et al. 70
- New Zealand 126
- Niger 135
- Nigeria 21, 95
- Nikel, J. 60
- non-governmental organizations (NGOs) 27, 31, 41, 43, 50, 106, 122
 - coaching 90, 91
 - problems 120, 151–2
- Northern Ireland: Belfast 19, 21, 150
- Norwegian Refugee Council 92
- OECD 11, 16
- OER4Schools 133–4
- online learning 112, 140
- open educational resources (OER) 133–4, 136–7
- open lessons 72, 97

- paired teaching 72
- Pakistan
 - fragility 17, 18, 19
 - ICT 95, 135
 - standards 42
- peer coaching 89
- peer teaching 72–3, 112–13
- peer visits 71
- Peru: teacher well-being 49
- Phalachandra 131
- Phelps, R. 132
- Philippines 46–7, 110–11
- physical abuse 17, 30, 50
- policy 63–4, 99
- post-traumatic stress 28, 47, 49
- poverty 20
- pre-service teacher education 11
 - improvements 109
 - problems 105, 106, 111, 113, 146
- Professional Teaching and Learning Cycles (PTLCs) 75–6
- professionalization of leadership/management 123–4
- professionalization of teaching force 41–2
- psychosocial skills 17, 49–50, 64
- quality professional development 58–60, 65–6
 - contextually defined 62, 64–5
 - definitions 58, 59–65
 - dimensions 60–1
 - as hybrid construct 62–5, 63f
 - implementation and measurement 65
 - international standards (fragility specific) 62
 - international standards (non-context specific) 61
 - low-quality professional development 30–1
 - measures 59–60
 - research 59, 60
- radio *see* Interactive Radio Instruction
- recommendations 10, 37
 - focus on teachers 39–53, 146–7
 - high-quality teacher educators 103–13, 149
 - ICT use 131–41, 149–50
 - ongoing support for teachers 83–99, 149
 - school leadership 117–27, 149
 - standards 57–66, 124, 148
 - teacher collaboration 69–80, 148
 - summary 10, 11, 145–50
- reflection 73, 74
- Refugee Teacher Working Group 42, 62, 65
- refugees 19, 75, 92, 105, 106
 - as emergency teachers 31, 40, 111
- Research Triangle Institute 138
- resources 64
- Richardson, E. 18
- right to education 6
- Rincon, C. 64
- Rogers, F. H. 59
- Rwanda
 - mentoring 92, 95
 - teacher educators 106
- SACMEQ *see* Southern African Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality
- SAFE (Student Action for Education) 72
- safety 63, 64
- Salim, R. 12
- São Tomé e Príncipe: teacher qualification 41
- Save the Children 20, 146
- school-based community 86
- school leadership 63–4, 117–18, 127, 149
- Cambodian case study 122–3, 124
- challenges in fragile contexts 119–20, 121
- collaborative practice 124, 125–6
- dysfunctional systems 120
- hierarchical barriers 119
- higher-education leadership courses 124
- instructional leadership 119–20, 121
- lack of preparation 119–20
- low-cost opportunities for development 127
- management responsibilities 121
- organizational and cultural barriers 120
- professional standards 124
- professionalization of leadership/management 123–4
- strategies for fragile locations 123–6, 123f
- and teacher professional development 125–6
- Senegal: teacher qualification 41
- Sesnan, B. *et al.* 11
- sexual abuse 17, 28, 50
- Shevland, K. 69, 117, 145, 147
- Showers, B. 84
- Sierra Leone 41, 135
- Simiyu Barasa, F. 137
- Skeie, S. S. 15, 25, 83, 103, 146
- Skype 140
- Smith, M. S. 141
- Snowden, H. 25, 39, 83, 149
- social capital 79
- social skills 49, 64
- Somalia 27, 135
- South Africa 46, 95
 - Technology Together 132, 133
- South Sudan
 - ICT 95, 135, 137
 - teacher support 98
 - teacher training 18, 25–7, 26f
- Southern African Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) 27, 138
- standards 42, 57, 59, 60
 - implementation and measurement 65
 - INEE *Minimum standards for education* 18, 50, 51f, 62
 - international standards (fragility specific) 62
 - international standards (non-context specific) 61
 - need for standards 148
 - professional school leadership standards 124
 - see also* quality professional development
- Stein, G. M. 46
- structural issues 30–1
- student achievement 8, 44
- Student Action for Education (SAFE) 72
- student assessment 138
- student learning outcomes 43–4, 43f
- study groups 98
- Sub-Saharan Africa 19, 33, 50, 95, 135, 137
- Sudan: SAFE 72
- support for students 49, 50
- support for teachers 53, 83–5, 99, 149
 - administrative support 85
 - coaching 31, 84, 87, 89–92
 - community/family support 86
 - in crisis and emergency 49
 - emotional support 86
 - implementation failure 84
 - importance of support 85
 - instructional support 86
 - low-cost opportunities 98
 - in low-quality professional development 31
 - mentoring 84, 87, 92–3
 - peer teaching 72–3, 112–13
 - program design flaws 84

- psychological and physical support 47, 49–51
- school-based community 86
- strategies 86, 87f
- support-based professional development 97–8
- teaching and learning materials 86
- technical support 64, 86, 133, 139, 141
- technology-based supports 93, 95–8
- theoretical flaws 84
- time 86
- sustainability 77
- Syria: fragility 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 150
- systematic challenges 31–2
- Tangerine 138
- Tanzania
 - Bridge IT project 139–40
 - mentoring 92
 - standards 62
- Taylor, C. 39, 148
- teacher collaboration 44, 69–71, 71f, 124, 148
 - benefits 79
 - low-cost opportunities 78
 - necessary inputs 77, 77f
 - peer teaching 72–3, 112–13
 - peer visits 71
 - Professional Teaching and Learning Cycles 75–6
 - school leadership 124, 125–6
 - teacher learning communities 73–5
- Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA) 137
- teacher educators 103–4, 149
 - capacities of 104–6
 - coaching skills 107
 - CPD for 110–11
 - dispositions/attitudes 107
 - importance of skilled teacher educators 104
 - improving quality of 108–10, 108f
 - knowledge needed 107
 - modeling effective practices 107–8, 110
 - support in absence of 111–13
- teacher engagement 44
- teacher learning centres 78
- Teacher Learning Circles (TLCs) 70, 73–5
- teacher learning communities 73–5
- teacher pay 41–2
- teacher professional development (TPD) 7–8
 - definition 11
 - low-quality professional development 30–1
 - and student learning outcomes 43–4, 43f
 - see also quality professional development; TPD in fragile contexts
- Teacher Professional Development in Crisis* see *TPD in Crisis* Forum
- Teacher Professional Groups (TPGs) 70
- teacher quality 33, 40
 - and student achievement 8, 44
- teachers
 - and change 29, 40, 52–3, 152
 - definition 11
 - efficacy 29
 - emergency teachers 31, 40, 111
 - female teachers 20–1, 32, 49, 111
 - health 28, 47–8, 49
 - impact of armed conflict on 16–18
 - as learners 42–4
 - needs in fragile contexts 39–53, 146–7
 - professional identity 29, 41–2
- teaching and learning materials 86
- technology see ICT use
- TESSA (Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa) 137
- Thailand 19
- Tikly, L. 135
- time for support 86
- Timperley, H. 52, 62
- TLCs see Teacher Learning Circles
- Tobia, E. 76
- Tom, V. 25
- TPD see teacher professional development
- TPD in Crisis* forum 9, 27, 28f, 33, 63, 70, 71, 84–5, 146
- TPD in fragile contexts 9, 10, 25–7, 145–52
 - barriers to teachers' professional learning 27–33, 28f
 - factors impacting quality 10, 10f
 - help in dealing with crisis and conflict 47–51
 - high-yield professional development 43–5, 52
 - innovation 152
 - limitations of this guide 12–13
 - localized, contextualized professional development 45–7, 52
 - long-term professional development 44–5
 - research 12, 21, 150–1
- TPGs (Teacher Professional Groups) 70
- train-the-trainer approaches see cascade approach to training
- Uganda
 - fragility 19
 - peer coaching 89
 - teacher educators 106, 110, 136
- UNESCO 16, 31, 41, 45, 98, 104
- UNHCR 31
- UNICEF 17, 27, 110
- United Kingdom
 - fragility 20
 - Professional Standards Framework* 61, 65
- United States
 - effects of TPD 45
 - fragility 18, 19, 20, 150
 - Learning Forward 61, 76
 - National Education Association 20
 - Professional Teaching and Learning Cycles 75–6
 - rural locations 112
- University of Amsterdam 89, 136
- USAID 26, 70, 84, 90, 95
- Uwezo assessment 138
- Valente, A. B. 118
- video
 - for emergency teachers 112
 - in flipped professional development 96–7
 - for teacher professional development 136
 - video-based peer coaching 89
 - for whole class teaching 139–40
- violence 20, 32
- Walsh, C. S. et al. 140
- War Child Holland 137
- Wideen, M. et al. 108
- Winthrop, R. 29, 50, 141
- working conditions 28–9
- World Bank 90, 122, 135
- World Education 122, 123
- Yemen: video use 136
- Yousafzai, M. 21
- Zambia: OER4Schools 133–4





An international network for education in emergencies
Un réseau international pour l'éducation en situations d'urgence
Una red internacional para la educación en situaciones de emergencia
Uma rede internacional para a educação em situações de emergência
الشبكة العالمية لوكالات التعليم في حالات الطوارئ

WHERE IT'S NEEDED MOST:

QUALITY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR ALL TEACHERS

This publication provides recommendations, ideas, and support to improve teacher professional development in emergency contexts. This guide recognizes the vital role that teachers play in student success and offers policymakers and practitioners examples of effective teacher professional development and learning practices from a wide range of fragile settings. While teachers' needs are often overlooked especially in times of crises, the recommendations and discussions in this publication are meant to stimulate on-going and new conversations to better plan, implement, and sustain quality teacher professional development in conflict-affected and emergency settings.

The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) is an open, global network of members working together in humanitarian and development contexts to ensure all persons the right to quality, safe and relevant education. For more information, please visit www.ineesite.org.