

ATTRACTING, DEVELOPING AND RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

Country Background Report for Norway

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INTRODUCTION

This report is the Norwegian Country Background Report (CBR) produced for the OECD project “Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers”. 24 countries are contributing with similar Country Background Reports.

According to the “Design and Implementation Plan for the Activity”¹ the overall purpose of the OECD activity “Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers” is to provide policy makers with information and analysis to assist them in formulating and implementing teacher policies leading to quality teaching and learning at the school level. The activity is restricted to school systems at primary and secondary level. The Activity has several objectives:

- 1) to synthesise research on issues related to policies concerned with attracting, recruiting, retaining and developing effective teachers
- 2) to identify innovative and successful policy practices
- 3) to facilitate exchanges of lessons and experiences among countries
- 4) to identify policy options

This task includes complementary analytical and thematic reviews of policies and experiences from membership countries as regards attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers. The CBRs are to provide national, comparative backgrounds and contexts, and to be designed according to a relatively detailed set of guidelines as regards analytical / methodological frameworks, key issues and structure. We have followed the requested structure, which implies that the report consist of the following sections:

- 1) Section 1: National context
- 2) Section 2: The school system and teaching work force
- 3) Section 3: Attracting able people into the teaching work force
- 4) Section 4: Educating, developing and certifying teachers
- 5) Section 5: Recruiting, selecting and assigning teachers
- 6) Section 6: Retaining effective teachers

The first two sections describe relevant aspects of the Norwegian context. In the sections 3-6 reviews are given of major concerns, data, trends, factors as regards the issues in question, as well as experiences with and opinions of various policy initiatives. Furthermore, we have added a Section 7 consisting of concluding comments as well as a tentative identification of issues of which further examination and discussion would be fruitful.

The data on which this report is based consist of existing evaluations, reports and research as well as documents, reports and plans from authorities at central and local levels. The task of elaborating the CBR did not include producing new and independent research, rather collecting and synthesising data and evidence already available as well as identify areas where evidence is not found. However, stake holder groups as well as several actors from various parts of the school system and with different roles within it have been consulted. Among these are employees of the Ministry of Research and Education, The National Board of Education, all of the 18 National Education Offices, teacher educators, school researchers, two teacher unions² and individuals with experiences from local experiments and (policy) initiatives. Moreover, we have conducted semi-structured interviews with four teachers in different situations: One recently educated teacher with three years of teaching experience, one recently

¹ OECD, Directorate for Education, Employment, Labour and Social Affairs, Education and Training Division, 24 March 2002, pp. 3-4.

² ”The Education Union” (Utdanningsforbundet) and “The National School Union” (Skolenes landsforbund)

educated who has chosen a career outside the teaching profession, one experienced teacher still working in school and one teacher of some twenty years of teaching experience currently employed outside the school sector.

The material collected through interviews and discussions is not treated as data in a statistical sense. However, the various interviews have provided different angles, experiences, views and opinions as regard the issues of attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers.

The National Board of Education, which has also administered the Norwegian CBR and Data Request activity, appointed a reference group consisting of several researchers and representatives from stake holder groups, which has discussed and commented on an early draft of this report.

There is an extensive body of Norwegian as well as international research and literature available on teachers and teachers' work. We have been able to include in this report some Norwegian studies. However, we have focussed on the most recent ones and those in which recruitment, development and retention of teachers are explicit issues. As factors relevant for these key issues are surely to be found in existent research but under other thematic and analytical "headlines", we recommend that further synthesis – and preferably a bibliography – of research on teachers and teachers' every day work be elaborated³. We consider it to be useful studying more closely and systematically research indirectly addressing the issues at question (e.g. qualitative studies focussing on in-school factors, relations, interaction, everyday work and contexts, ways of thinking, reflecting, reasoning as well as local, everyday decision-making). This would provide an even deeper understanding of relevant factors, reasons and mechanisms as regards future challenges of attracting, developing and retaining efficient teachers.

There are also ongoing activities of research, evaluations and reports that may bring further evidence to the key issues in this Country Background Report. For example, the four-year research program for evaluation of the Reform R97 in compulsory school is going to be completed this spring. A new, comprehensive research program, "Knowledge, Education and Learning", is starting up this year. A work group at the Ministry of Education and Research is currently elaborating a report on the role and significance of the teacher.

The centrally appointed "Quality Commission" is due to deliver its final report of evaluations of the content, quality and organization of basic education.⁴ The recommendations of the Commission may have a significant impact on the future of Norwegian education.

³ To give an example, an extensive bibliography on Scandinavian research and projects as regards male pre-school teachers was made by Bredesen in on assignment of the Ministry of Children and family Affairs (Bredesen 1997)

⁴ See Section 2 for more information on the mandate of the "Quality Commission".

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

GTE – General Teacher Education
MER – Ministry of Education and Research
NALRA - The Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities (KS)
NBE – National Board of Education
NEO – National Education Offices (now submitted as sections under the regional commissioner at the county level)
NIFU - Norwegian Institute for Studies in Higher Education
NOKUT – Norwegian Agency of Quality Assurance in Education
PCE - Postgraduate Certificate of Education
PTE – Pre-school Teacher Education
SOFF – Council for flexible learning (part-time and distance learning)
SSTE – Special Subject Teacher Education
VTE – Vocational Teacher Education

SUMMARY

This Norwegian Country Background Report deals with issues related to attracting, developing and retaining effective teacher teachers within the Norwegian context. Section 1 provides a brief description of significant features of the Norwegian context as well as basic facts on and principles of Norwegian education. Section 2 gives an outline of the Norwegian educational system and relevant educational reforms implemented during the last ten years. Sections 3- 6 address issues of major concerns, as well as current practise, trends, data, factors and policy initiatives with regards to attracting, developing / certifying, recruiting / selecting / allocating and retaining teachers in schools. There seems to be several current and future challenges related to all these topics. They are also subject to policy initiatives as well as debates in which several actors and stake-holders within the educational sector participate.

Attracting teachers

Due to factors such as decrease in the number of applicants to the teacher education programmes as well as an increase in the average age of teachers in service, there has been a general increasing concern for the need for initiatives to be implemented.

In addition to a general wish to increase the number of well qualified applicants to teacher education programmes, there are some areas of which teacher shortage is particularly noticed. Firstly, teacher shortages are geographically unevenly distributed. Secondly, some groups are underrepresented both among teachers in service as well as teacher students (teachers of natural sciences, male teachers and teachers from ethnic / language minorities).

The proportion of teacher graduates that actually work as teachers vary, according to the type of teacher education as well as general fluctuation in the labour market. The main picture is that most teachers choose to work in school, but there still is a potential of attracting even more people with teacher /school relevant educations into the teaching work force. The one-year teacher education programme PCE (post graduate certificate of education) seems to be a particularly apt tool for recruiting people that have already obtained subject qualification in subject relevant for teaching in schools. The fairly new arrangement of accepting applicants that lack formal qualifications but can document relevant “validated practical competence” is also enlarging the number of potential teacher students.

The raises in teacher salaries over the past few years are considered among the most efficient initiatives implemented, even if it is still early to evaluate the effect. This year, the employer responsibility of teachers has been transferred from the national / state level to the municipal level. This will open up for the opportunity of local salary differentiation. During the salary negotiations of the last two years, individually / performance based arrangements of salary raise has been tried out. However, there is no data available on the effects of salary differentiation on either recruitment nor retention of teachers. Working conditions still seems to be an issue of improvement, as the proportion of teachers reporting experiences of social and psychological work strain is large and rising, compared to other professions. The introduction and increase in the number of skilled and unskilled teaching assistants has not reduced this trend, possibly because assistants in practise often are employed locally to substitute – and not only to be a supplement to – qualified teachers.

The institutions offering teacher education programmes seem to face important challenges related to attracting and recruiting students. The popularity of decentralised and flexible (e.g. distance education) teacher education programmes is increasing, and such forms of teacher education programmes seem to have had a substantially positive effect of both recruiting

people that would not have applied to ordinary, campus-based programmes as well as providing districts that suffers from teacher shortage with local teachers.

Educating, developing and certifying teachers

The initial teacher education programmes are currently undergoing changes. Some are due to general restructuring in higher education. Specific issues for teacher education programmes are e.g. strengthening of teachers' qualifications in basic school subjects as well as making the teacher education more directed towards the practical, every day tasks of the teacher job. The need for guidance programmes for new teachers as well as increased and improved interaction between teacher educating institutions, school owners and practitioners in schools is also recognized at policy-making levels.

Professional development and in-service training are issues of challenges. Even if the importance of such training is stated by policy makers and though the teaching work force seem to be generally highly motivated, reports show that teachers are fairly dissatisfied with actual training options. Among reported factors that represent obstacles to teachers' participation in professional development activities are work load, lack of local, economical resources for training activities and the difficulty of providing substitute teachers to fill in for teachers participating in development activities.

Nationally initiated policy measures are being implemented, with particular focus on qualifying teachers in subjects of which the number of qualified teachers is insufficient. However, there is a degree of uncertainty related to the future practice and options as regards professional development and in service training, as the responsibility of securing and financing such activities to a increasing degree is being delegated to local authorities on municipal and school levels.

Recruitment, selection and allocation of teachers

The recruitment, selection and appointment of teachers are responsibilities of local authorities, carried out either by the local school management (upper secondary education) or by local authorities (compulsory education). There is a trend also in compulsory education towards recruiting teachers at the school level. This trend follows the general move towards the decentralisation of authority and decision-making. The main challenge for those responsible for recruiting, selecting and allocating teachers is to ensure that the staff at each local school possess the total sum and combination of competences needed to meet the requirements of each school.

Recruitment of teachers has traditionally been particularly difficult in the Northern regions of Norway. Specific benefits have therefore been funded on a national level to secure recruitment to these regions. These national measures are not going to be upheld after 2003, and the school owners in all regions will have to look for locally based recruitment initiatives.

There are several and varying factors involved when teachers choose to what school and district they apply for work. With an increased degree of decentralization of responsibility, one would also expect that school owners will choose different solutions and measures as regards recruitment, selection and allocation of teachers, variations being due to both differences in local, specific needs as well as differences in the economical state between municipalities. It will be of great interest to follow the result of this decentralization and after some years gather and evaluate the different measures taken by various school owners.

Retaining teachers

The proportion of early retirement is significantly higher within the educational system than in the public sector in general. 36% of those who retire early use the opportunity given in the early retirement scheme to leave at the age of 62. A larger proportion of those teachers who retire early, 57%, now receive disability pensions, for medical reasons; the number doubled between 1989 and 1993, and a new doubling occurred between 1997 and 1999.

Some measures relevant for retaining teachers in school, such as salary and working conditions, are mentioned in the section (3) regarding attracting teachers. Specific measures of “senior policy” are also being considered and tried out. Opportunities of professional development, measures for avoiding “reform wariness” in times of educational changes and flexibility with regards to working hours / work load as well as different forms of teaching tasks are some key words in the development of senior policies that may have prolonging effects on teachers in-school careers.

Concluding comments

In the last section we present the views of stakeholders and comment on issues that are relevant for future studies and investigations, in relation to all the three main topics of this report: recruiting, developing and retaining effective teachers. This is not meant to be an “authoritative statement of the facts”, rather an identification of issues of which further examination and discussion would be fruitful. The comments are related to issues of decentralization of responsibility, teacher competence, changes in the teacher’s role as well as aspects of everyday teaching.

SECTION 1: NATIONAL CONTEXT

1.1 Basic facts about Norwegian Education

There are c. 600 000 pupils in compulsory education, aged from 6 -16.

These pupils are taught by some 51 000 teachers.

Compulsory schooling is divided into three main stages: lower primary (grades 1-4), upper primary (grades 5-7) and lower secondary (grades 8 -10). 98.3% attend state-run schools, 1.7% attend private schools (2000/2001).

The primary schools are run by the 435 municipalities of the country.

There are approximately 164 000 pupils in upper secondary education, aged 16-19.

These pupils are taught by some 23 000 teachers approaching an average age of 50 years.

The upper secondary school system provides this age group with a statutory right to three years of education leading either to higher education or to vocational qualifications. The vocational courses are mainly offered as two years in school followed by two years' on-the-job training. In the first year the pupils take one of 15 foundation courses, followed by a second year of further specialization in school before entering a two-year practice period for a skilled worker's certificate. Optional routes based on apprenticeship or extension programmes to vocational courses qualifying for higher education are found.

Upper secondary schools are run by the 19 counties in the country. Some 5% of secondary pupils attend private schools.

1. The basic principles and priorities of Norwegian education policy today are:

- a high general level of education in the entire population
- equal opportunities for all in access to education
- the decentralization of educational administration
- meeting the long-term and short-term qualification requirements of the labour market
- emphasis on a broad and general initial education, leaving specialisation to later stages and further training at work
- lifelong learning (based on a "cradle to grave" definition)
- a comprehensive education system with easy transition between levels and courses.

1.2 General comments on the basic principles

Equal opportunities for all

2. The first Act in newer history making provision for a comprehensive school system dates from 1889. It was brought to full realization in 1920 when a decree by Parliament stated that only secondary schools based on completed primary education should receive state funding. The final establishment of a comprehensive system was achieved during the last ten years of the 20th century. Since 1991 a reorganization of special education has also taken place. Pupils with special needs are, whenever possible, integrated in ordinary schools. Only 1% of the total pupil population is now offered education outside ordinary schools. In 1994 secondary education went through a major reform, restructuring the whole system, providing statutory rights to pupils aged 16-19, and resulting in curricular and pedagogic changes. In 1997 primary education was reformed. The starting age was lowered from 7 to 6, and curricular and pedagogic changes were introduced. This also included a special Saami curriculum for the indigenous Saami people of the North. In 1998 Parliament passed a unified Education Act,

now covering both primary education and upper secondary education. In 2000 a Competence Reform was agreed upon, applying to adults who were not included in the 1994 reform.

3. The principle of equal opportunity and inclusiveness for all has a regional as well as a cultural dimension. The country is long and narrow: its narrowness is indicated by the fact that 85% of the population live within 15 kilometres of the sea; its length by the fact that the distance from Oslo to the northern tip of Norway equals the distance from Oslo to Rome. The population is quite scattered. As a result, to provide educational opportunities where people live, a large number of schools, 40% of primary and lower secondary schools, are quite small (less than a hundred pupils), and children of different ages are often taught in the same classroom.

4. The number of small schools has implications for teacher recruitment and competence as well as for costs of administration and transport: the generalist "all round" teacher is needed, rather than the specialist teacher. The distances imply a fair amount of daily public school transport of pupils. This transport is publicly financed.

5. The requirement that pupils who temporarily or permanently have special needs should have these met in ordinary classes makes demands on educational resources. These resources can include support staff as well as the provision of special equipment. Around 6.8% of the 590 000 pupils in Norwegian compulsory education have a language minority background (autumn 2000).

6. The level of investment in education in Norway is high, at 6.9% of GNP. The impact of the costs arising from the political goal of equal opportunities, and the resulting decentralized and including system, is being debated in the context of international comparisons. Economic analyses indicate that decentralized organization is more costly in most municipal service sectors, the educational sector included. The integration of pupils with special needs as well as low density in particular imply higher costs in the educational sector.⁵

7. The number of pupils attending private schools has been slowly rising during the last years, but is still very low. Political measures have been taken by the present government (2002) to facilitate the process of privatisation. Private schools are to be given the same basic funding as is provided in public schools.

Meeting the requirements of the labour market

8. Information on working life is in principle, and in general terms, included in the subject syllabuses for each grade within the national curriculum for primary and lower secondary school. During the last ten years there have been some encouraging mini-enterprises in schools, linked to the interest in encouraging entrepreneurship. Work and career counselling is given by skilled staff at the end of lower secondary school.

9. In upper secondary school, a youth follow-up service was part of the 1994 reform, with a focus on drop-outs or potential drop-outs. The service, managed at the county level, is closely linked with the educational-psychological service. About 7% of the age group are given specific help, partly within publicly funded labour-market related programmes.

⁵ This is shown by using a specific economic model explaining variations in costs per inhabitant in 8 different municipal service sectors used by Statistics Norway, Langørgen and Aaberge: Kommode II estimert på data for 1998. Notat, Forskningsavdelingen/Seksjon for offentlig økonomi og personmodeller. SSB .

10. As a consequence of the two year on-the-job training introduced with Reform 94, working life has become a more integrated part of the educational system. Work-places for training are publicly subsidised, the system negotiated with representatives of the two sides of industry. The number of on-the-job training places available was increased by 62% during the years after the reform was implemented.

1.3 Demographic, economic, social and cultural development at a glance⁶

11. Being a Norwegian is, then, to belong to a small population of 4.3 million people scattered over a large area of fairly rough nature, made habitable largely by the Gulf Stream. Each square kilometre is inhabited by 14 people on average. To be a Norwegian is to be "well off" in almost any sense of that expression. It means that you belong to a very small minority of the world living on the whole without threat of famine, epidemic disease, war and hostility, drought, earthquake, overpopulation, unemployment, or even wild or poisonous animals. It means to have the expectation of a long life. Most Norwegians - 78% - own their own house, and standards are high. Some 42% of the inhabitants of Oslo have more than 4 rooms at their disposition - as compared with more than 70% in the rest of the country. Most dwellings have modern kitchen and bathroom facilities. Some 16% of the population live in single person households. Divorce expectancy is close to 50%. 76% of children 0 - 17 years old live with both parents, 62% of the parents being married.

12. The proportion of young people 15 - 29 years old has been declining for some years, and will reach its lowest point in 2005, before rising slowly. There is a tendency for young people to move from outlying to central districts, and more so among girls than boys. Young women tend to have their first child later than before. Non-binding, easily changed relations are more typical for a longer time among young couples.

13. While most young people usually cope well and enjoy good health, crime and drug abuse seem to be rising. Among young men there is a rise in suicide numbers and in reported symptoms of depression, as well as in involvement with violence and threats.

Economy and labour

14. As a nation, Norway is rich in energy sources, with good access to renewable hydro-electric power, as well as deposits of oil and gas. The long coastline provides reservoirs of sea-based nutrients, fisheries having been a basic economic source for centuries. Fish farming has developed into a rapidly expanding export industry during the last 15 - 20 years. Norwegian manufacturing traditionally has been quite raw-material based. Power-intensive manufacturing sectors of metals production, industrial chemicals and wood processing account for a significant share of export-oriented industry. The manufacture of electrical and electronic goods has gained increasing importance in recent years. 73.2% of the labour force are employed in the service sector. Two thirds of these work in the fairly large public sector. Services in the health and education sectors are largely a public responsibility. Public consumption and public transfers constitute around 20% of GDP.

15. Capacity utilisation in the Norwegian economy is high. The economy is regarded as fairly open, with a per capita foreign trade ranking among the highest in the world, this trade showing a positive balance.

⁶ Where otherwise is not stated, the source of the statistic data in this section is Statistics Norway.

16. Value added in Norway, measured as GDP, increased by almost 80% through the 80s and 90s. This growth must be viewed, in part, in connection with the development of the oil industry, production having grown fourfold from 1980 to 2000. Petroleum revenues are politically designed to have a more or less neutral effect on the economy. Guidelines for budget policy imply that, for the individual budget year, the structural budget deficit should correspond approximately with the estimated real returns on capital in the Petroleum Fund at the start of the fiscal year. (Skeie 02). In practical terms this implies that a limited amount of the oil surplus is brought into the domestic economic circulation. In consequence, the Norwegian state is free of national debt, while Norwegian municipalities have increased their debts by some 30% (2002) to meet public commitments - like education. These economic dispositions are under continuous political debate.

17. The unemployment rate is low compared to the OECD average, 3.5% in 2000, but with a slowly rising tendency (3.7 % in the first quarter of 2002). Unemployment in the 15-24 age group was 2.3%, excluding pupils. Long-term unemployment (12 months or over) as a proportion of total unemployment for all age groups was 6.8% - whereas the OECD average is 31.8%. (OECD review of career guidance policies). The considerable growth in work force participation in the 90s coincided with a marked falloff from the labour force in the shape of early retirement, the granting of more disability pensions and a marked increase in sick leave. By the end of 2001 almost 9% of the working age population was living on disability benefits. Recently the increase in number of disability pensions has slowed down.

18. Labour costs have in recent years increased by some 2.2% more in Norwegian industry than among trading partners. The interest rate is very high in an international perspective. The national currency, kroner, is very strong. Over time, high cost increases will curb activities in production for export and sectors exposed to competition from abroad. Lower import prices due to the strong krone contribute towards lower prices. The situation balances inflation at some 2.4%. The greatest uncertainty for the economy appears to be linked to cost developments and the prospect of a continuing tight labour market in the years to come.

19. Added value, or "well-being", has traditionally been fairly well distributed in the population. Recently, differences between "haves and have-nots" have accelerated.

Cultural aspects

20. Culturally the population of Norway is fairly homogeneous, with a small indigenous Saami minority in the North. (0.2% of the pupils use the Saami language in school). While Norway has two official written languages taught in school, the two are fairly close. The use of the languages roughly follows a geographical profile. The minority language ("New Norwegian") chosen by 15% of the schools is mostly used in western and southern counties.

21. There has been steady immigration to the country in the last 30 years. According to the national census 2001, about 7% of the population (307 714) were immigrants. The same percentage of pupils in primary school have another mother tongue than Norwegian. The largest immigrant groups come from Pakistan (7.9 %), Sweden,(7.3%), and Denmark (6.2%). In some districts in Oslo, schools have a clear immigrant majority among the pupils, representing 20-30 different nationalities.

22. Political participation in the population, in terms of percentage voting, is fairly stable, but slowly declining. This is particularly the case in local elections, with 61.7% voting in the last

election. Local and national elections are held at separate times in cycles for four years. Every second year is an election year, either locally or nationally. Norway ranks 49 among democracies of the world when it comes to participation in national elections.

23. There are eight parties represented in the Parliament. For some fifty years (from the mid-30s) the Social Democrats were the leading party. The last ten years have shown more fluctuations, with four parties regularly having support from 15% or more - while none of these parties seem to stabilize on a level of more than 25% support. The political nomination processes take place within the parties, and are restricted to party members. 9% of the population are members of a political party. Recently there have been problems in recruiting members at the local level.

Leisure activities

24. The age group 13 - 17 attend cultural activities more frequently than any other age group. The concept "cultural activities" in the statistics covers a wide range of activities such as movies, theatre, ballet, music concerts, exhibitions, museums, libraries, and sports arrangements. This range corresponds to an official "broad concept of culture". Sports are included in the scope of the Ministry of Cultural Affairs. Soccer is by far the most popular sport, followed by handball. 13 - 17 year olds have on average attended 30 cultural activities during a year. Sports events make up 28% of these activities. In the age group 16 - 24, 37% are members of some sports organization.

25. 9 - 12 year olds have on average attended 20.5 activities during a year. Library visits account for 37% of activities in this age group. Girls are more frequent library users and readers than boys in all age groups. Tests also show that girls are far better readers than boys. (Bredesen 2002). In the total population, some 52% have attended a public library during the last year. In the age group 13 - 17 some 65% read a daily newspaper.

26. Many young people attend music activities as listeners as well as practitioners. While 11% of the total population play an instrument, 34% in the age group 9 - 12 years do. This is partly due to music education in school, and the organization of municipally run music-art schools all over the country. Most schools organize either a school band, a choir or both on a voluntary basis, i.e. mostly run by parents. 9% of the total population are members of organized activities related to music or theatre. Most youngsters (90%) watch TV each day, and boys watch more than girls. 77% of 9 - 15 year olds play computer games each day, while 22% use their PC for school work. There was a 9% increase in the use of Internet during the year, 1999 -2000. Some 27 % of the total population use the Internet every day, 50% in the age group 9 -15 use the internet every week, and 25% of these are e-mail and website users.

Living conditions and schooling

27. The particularities of Norwegian life implicitly become part of everyday schooling, like anywhere else. Standards of housing, leisure activities, divorce rates and family patterns influence pupil behaviour, motivation and teachers' working conditions.

28. Schooling and the benefits of a good education tend to be regarded as more important than by earlier generations, while the criteria of a "good school" are being debated. Surveys indicate that more than 2/3 of Norwegian parents are fairly well satisfied with their local school and the work of teachers. There seem, however, to be rising concerns about the adequacy of economic resources allocated for the maintenance of school buildings and

investment in modern equipment and tools at the local municipal level. These are matters of concern in the yearly reports on quality in education submitted by the National Education Offices.

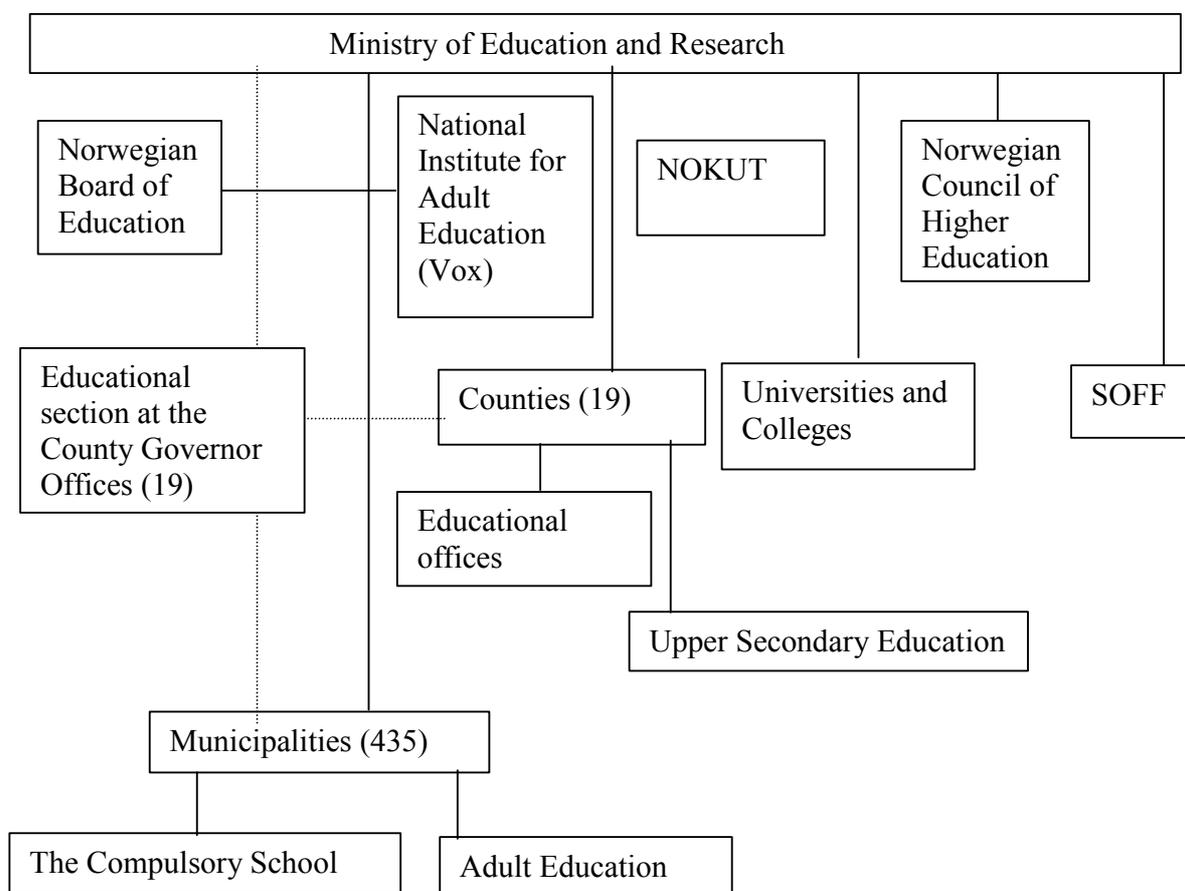
29. Concern has also been raised, mainly at a central political level and through the media, on the quality of educational results as measured by performance tests and scores nationally and internationally. Norwegian pupils' attainment tends to be fairly average in some subjects according to such comparisons. There is a considerable political drive to establish systems of quality measurement and make the comparison of school activities publicly available. The impact and value of such measurements and comparisons are publicly debated.

SECTION 2: THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND TEACHING WORK-FORCE

2.1 The structure of primary and secondary education⁷

30. The Norwegian public sector, including education, is basically a two-level system, the state and the municipalities (local level) on the one hand, and the state and the counties (regional level) on the other. All public compulsory education is managed at the municipal level. The municipality has the responsibility of fulfilling the right to compulsory education and special help for all local inhabitants. The county is responsible for fulfilling the statutory right to upper secondary education, and also the right to basic education and special education for clients in social and medical institutions run by the county.

Figure 2.1: Administrative levels and bodies in Norwegian Education (2003)⁸



⁷ The major source for this introduction to be found at: <http://odin.dep.no/ufd/engelsk/pul/rapporter/014001-220012/index-hov001-b-f-a.html>, Stette (red): *Opplæringslova med forskrift. Forarbeid og kommentarer*. Pedlex 1999. *Prinsipp og retningslinjer for opplæringslova i grunnskolen*. KUF., Læreplaner for grunnskolen. <http://demo.enternett.no/enterskole/oppslag/1-97/>.

⁸ The model should be read with some care – as reconstructions might appear

National Support Institutions

31. The National Board of Education, established with effect from September 2000, is a state institution, with its own board of directors. The Board is a national centre for the education sector, replacing the former National Centre for Educational Resources and the National Examination Board. The new Board has been assigned to such tasks as the operative responsibility for curriculum development, educational research and development work, certain topics related to information and communication technology in education, examinations in lower and upper secondary schools, and certain tasks related to information. The National Institute for Adult Education (VOX), has replaced three former institutions, and is assigned to initiate, coordinate and document research and development projects, to facilitate contact and collaboration among national actors, to establish networks for adult education and to disseminate results. The "Competence Reform" is within the special domain of this Institute. NOKUT, Norwegian Agency of Quality Assurance in Education has in 2003 replaced a former "Network Norway Council" of Higher Education. The agency has an independent position as towards the Ministry of Education and Research (MER). The "Educational Sections" under each County Governor Office have recently replaced the National Education Offices, formerly reporting directly to the Ministry. In educational matters, the MER has instruction authority vis a vis the County Governors and their Educational Sections. SOFF, is a council related to part- time and distance – learning.

2.2 Major reforms and innovations in the last ten years

Major reforms implemented during the last ten years include:

- a reform of higher education in 1994
- a reform of upper secondary education in 1994 ('Reform 94')
- a reform of compulsory education in 1997 ('Reform 97')
- a reform targeting the adult population in and outside the labour market in 1998. ('The Competence Reform')
- a reform targeting structure and quality in Higher Education of 2002. (The Quality Reform)

32. The decade 1992 - 2002 may be characterized as a period of reform encompassing the educational system as a whole, embracing both structural reforms and reforms of the content of education at all levels.

33. The main motivations for the comprehensive reforms implemented in the 1990s were:

- the conviction that education will increasingly have to be considered in a lifelong learning perspective
- the need to restructure the educational system in order to create a more integrated, better co-ordinated, flexible and unified system
- the need to review the content of education in order to enable the population to meet and master the major changes in society in adequate ways, in terms of technology, vocation, flexibility, culture, values etc.

34. Today, educational provision for children and young people is seen in the context of a coherent and continuous programme covering 13 school years. This has been made possible thanks both to the introduction a common core curriculum for primary, secondary and adult education in 1993, and to the adoption of a common Education Act for primary and secondary education in 1998.

2.3 The legal framework of education

A common Education Act

35. In 1998 The Norwegian Parliament adopted a new Act relating to both primary and secondary education (The Education Act). This Act replaced a number of former education acts from 1969, 1974, 1976 and 1980 dealing with a different aspects and levels.

36. The Act provides a framework for the scope of decisions and actions at the municipal level as well as a framework for the school and teachers' working conditions. Some of the most important paragraphs of the Act are as follows:

37. The Act upholds the right and obligation to 10 years of primary and lower secondary education and the statutory right to 3 years of upper secondary education, covering compulsory education as well as upper secondary education.

38. Normally compulsory education starts in the year a child becomes 6.

39. The Act also applies to private schools for pupils of compulsory schooling age where these schools do not receive public funding according the Act governing private schools, and to private education given at home. It requires that all private schools should be certified by the Ministry of Education and Research (MER). The criteria of certification are related to the specific demands of the National Curriculum.

40. According to the Act, pupils have the right to attend the school closest to home. All pupils have the right to belong to a class. Parts of the education may be otherwise organized. Education should normally not be organized according to criteria based on level of ability, sex or ethnicity.

41. According to the Act, a class should not have more than 12 pupils when there are four or more year groups in the class, not more than 18 when there are three year groups, not more than 24 pupils when there are two year groups, not more than 28 pupils in a one year group at 1st - 7th grade and not more than 30 pupils when there is one year group at 8th - 10th grade.

42. Normally compulsory schools should not have more than 450 pupils according to the Act.

43. The teaching staff should have relevant professional and educational skills in accordance with the requirements stipulated by the Ministry. The upgrading of teachers should, according to the Act, be seen as a joint effort by the different levels – the national, the county and the municipal level.

44. The Act prescribes representative participatory bodies within each school, including a pupils' council, a parents' council, a council of the class as well as a cooperative council. Teaching staff, the principal (also representing the municipality), non-educational staff, parents and pupils are represented on the cooperative council.

45. According to the Act, disabled pupils and pupils with special needs are entitled to education in the compulsory school, and they should be integrated into the ordinary 10 -year compulsory school. The municipalities are responsible for the education and training (at primary, lower secondary and upper secondary level) of children, young people and adults with special needs. Disadvantaged pupils may get up to 5 years of upper secondary education.

46. The Act normalizes employment protection for teachers, while at the same time requiring

the possession of an official certificate of good conduct, in order to preclude the employment of persons found guilty of gross indecency.

47. The Act introduces a new subject "Christian Knowledge and Religious and Ethical Education" (CKREE), combining Lutheran education with other religions and philosophies of life, Norwegian education having been confessional Lutheran for centuries. The new subject is not to be taught in a theologically demanding way, but to provide a meeting place for pupils of different beliefs. This particular section of the act has been among the most heavily debated among the public, and has given rise to judicial disputes.

48. The Act instructs the municipalities to organize "leisure time at school" arrangements before and after regular school hours for the grades 1 through 4. This is financed through state and municipal reimbursement as well as parental payment, and is optional for the pupils.

49. The Act introduces an individual right to Saami tuition in primary and secondary education.

50. The Act upholds and clarifies the responsibility of the State for supervision of primary and secondary education.

51. The Ministry reserves the right to supplement the main goals and principles of education defined as regulations. The national Curriculum belongs to this set of regulations. The first part of the National Curriculum is a shared general curriculum for the compulsory school and upper secondary education stating the overall aims of the education. A broad concept of knowledge is underscored. Ethical values and attitudes, theoretical and practical knowledge as well as the promotion of creativity, initiative, entrepreneurship, cooperation and social skills are all seen as integrated.

52. The second, more detailed part of the National Curriculum stipulates:

- The total amount of time dedicated to the education. A minimum of 38 weeks of education must be offered within a span of 45 continuous weeks during year.
- The distribution of subjects, and teaching –hours per subject.
- The central issues of different subjects at different levels.
- The goals of knowledge and skills.

53. The Ministry also states the requirements governing the evaluation of pupils, documentation of achievement, examinations, and pupils' rights and opportunities to appeal.

2.4 The organization of compulsory education (1st - 10th grade)

According to the Education Act, public compulsory schooling is free. The municipal level is responsible for providing pupils with the education to which they have a right. While the Ministry stipulates the total minimum time, and thus the framework of education, the municipality can stipulate additional time to be used within its domain. The municipality also determines which of the two official language forms to use in school, as well as codes of conduct within a certain framework. This framework includes the prohibition of physical as well as other humiliating forms of punishment, and the right of appeal.

54. The 1997 reform of compulsory education was built on three political pillars erected during recent years. a) The introduction of the "leisure time at school" arrangement from 1991 made this a real option for pupils (and parents) around the country. (As late as 1990 only 4%

had this opportunity). b) The decision to start school at the age of 6 instead of 7 gave 10 years of compulsory education (an extension of one year). This was decided in 1994. The introduction of preschool teachers in ordinary school has opened up a new career for this group. By taking additional courses in lower primary education they are certified to teach at the first level, 1st - 4th grade. c) A new compulsory school curriculum is made mandatory under the Education Act. This curriculum consists of three parts:

- A general part that also covers upper secondary education and was introduced in 1993.
- Principles and Guidelines concerning the teaching in compulsory education, published in 1996.
- Syllabuses for different subjects from 1997.

55. This Curriculum replaced and revised the former curriculum from 1987. The curriculum of 1987 focussed on local plans for the development of contents and teaching methods in its own right. The new curriculum, still emphasizing local culture, experiences and choice, is more prescriptive in its provision of a common syllabus for the different subjects, the national curriculum given more weight. Local experience and culture still are supposed to inform national and global values. The use of project methods and thematic organization is made compulsory. The new curriculum is said to be a compromise between the reform-pedagogic trend of the 70s and 80s rooted in ideas of "learning-by-doing" (Dewey and others), and the slight "back-to-basics" trend (in particular found in the U.S.A. and England) rooted in the encyclopaedic traditions of the Enlightenment. The curriculum is also characterized by bringing "the best from two cultures" (Telhaug 1997). Pupils with special needs should be given special attention, if necessary also individual plans (IOP's) should be worked out.

56. Norwegian compulsory school is among those in Europe with the highest degree of integration of pupils with special needs. 0,5 % of Norwegian primary and lower secondary school pupils attend special schools, compared to 3,7% in Finland and 1,3% in Sweden (EURYDICE 2003). The ideal of the active, participative pupil, also when it comes to the planning of learning activities (in particular theme and project organized learning), is a significant item of the Principles and Guidelines.

57. Compulsory education is according to the reform organized at three levels:

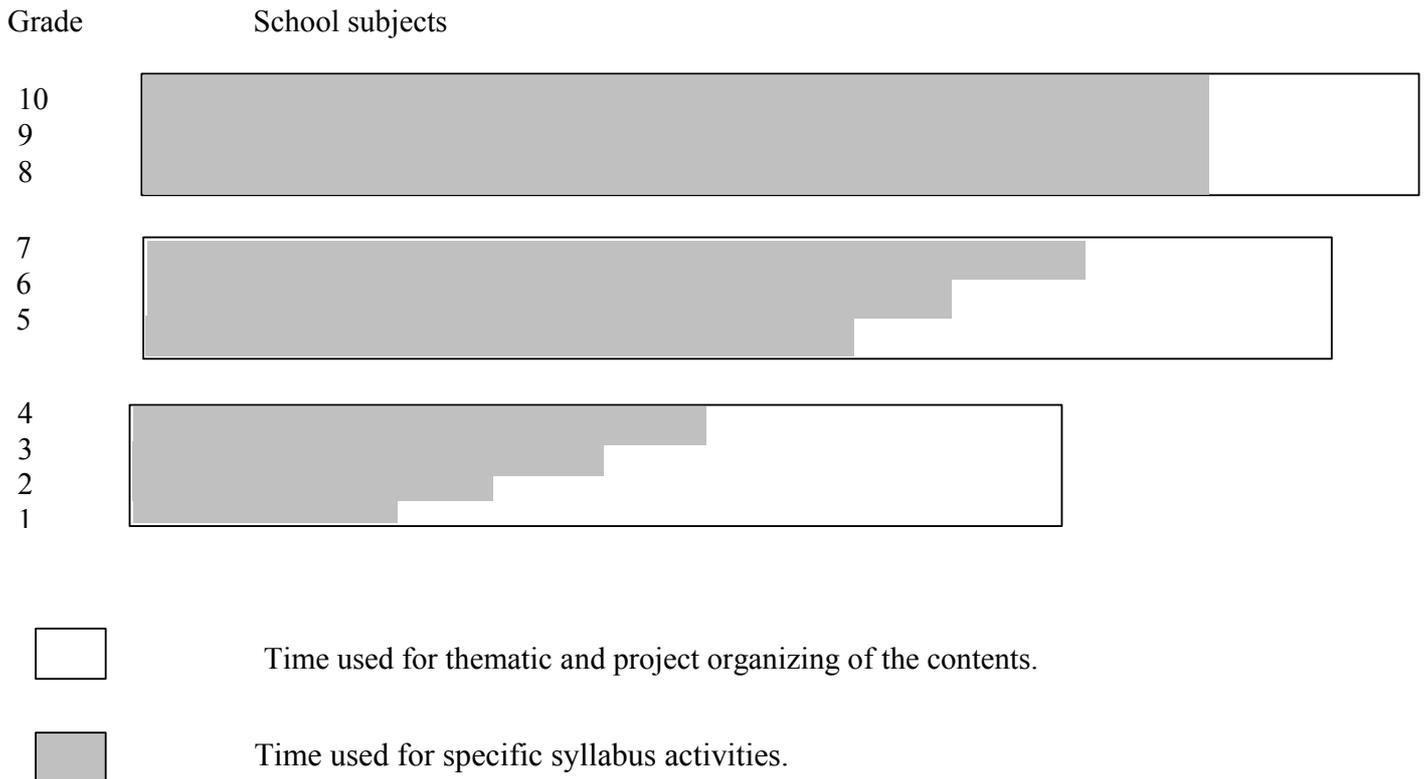
- 1st. - 4th grade (Lower primary education)
- 5th - 7th grade (Upper primary education)
- 8th - 10th grade (Lower secondary education).

58. The first two levels are commonly called "the children's school", the third level "the youth school". Most schools are organized in units according to this classification. Children's schools (1st- 7th grade) have their own buildings and are decentralised, whereas "youth schools" (8th -10th grade) are more centralised, with the more specially-designed facilities and equipment required by subject specialization. In 2002/2003 63.2% of all compulsory schools were pure "children's schools". 21.7% of all schools combined all levels, and 15.1% were pure "youth schools". Pupils of lower primary school are also offered an after-school-service, partly paid by those parents making use of it.

59. The average number of pupils in classes has remained fairly constant over the last 20 years. In "children's schools" in 1982/83, the average number was 20.7 pupils per class, and in 2002/2003 it was 20.6. In "youth schools" average numbers were 23.8 pupils per class in 1982/83, and 23.6 in 2002/2003. There is a slow tendency of schools to grow and for more pupils to go to bigger schools.

60. In 2002/2003, 35.8% of schools had less than 100 pupils, attended by 9% of pupils.
 61. 40.3 % of schools had 100 -299 pupils, attended by 40.8% of pupils. 23.9% of schools had more than 300 pupils, attended by 50.2% of the pupils.

62. The proportion of the centrally decided syllabus with defined goals and main elements increases with the level. The scope of syllabus content locally decided and chosen is widest in 1st grade, where the focus is on sociability and play activities. The following figure shows the recommended proportions of time spent on specific syllabus activities v. interdisciplinary thematic / practical project organized at different levels of compulsory school:



63. Thematic organization of subjects is a mandatory working method. Themes can reflect experiences and interests among pupils, draw on specific relations to the local environment or reflect current issues. Although a theme may be basically related to one subject, it often gives room for the integration of other subjects. The organization of teaching by means of themes and projects often calls for more flexible use of time than shown in an ordinary time-table.

64. There are challenges inherent in the thematic/project approach to organizing teaching/learning processes :

65. A specific challenge for teachers when working in this way, is to make sure that the different prescribed elements and subjects of the syllabus get the right weighting, and that progression is taken into consideration. Another challenge is linked to the evaluation of the process and the results/outcomes of the teaching/learning process, simply because outcomes and process do not easily comply with standardised measures of testing. The thematic/project approach demands close cooperation between groups of teachers when planning and evaluating.

66. A comprehensive evaluation of the school reform is being implemented, and it will be concluded during the first half of 2003. Preliminary results seem to indicate that most teachers regard the basic values of the reform positively. Organization by "team-teaching" seems to be spreading, and the internal working relations of teachers are on average reported as satisfactory. Schools seem to have some problems in integrating into the local environment, as well as in complying with the curricular ideals of pupil participation. Overall, the lower levels of the compulsory education, the "children's schools", seem to work more consistently with the aims of the Reform 97 than do the lower secondary schools, the "youth schools" (Imsen 2003).

67. Different models of changing working hours are being tested. Mostly the development is in the direction of a "total work-day" related to a definition of personal attendance (e.g. 0815 - 1530) rather than specified teaching hours. A recent evaluation shows that teachers and pupils in schools working in this direction seem on the whole to be satisfied with their experiences so far (Bungum, Dahl, Gullikstad, Molden and Rasmussen 2003).

Trends in the development of quality in education.

68. The present government launched a major effort in 2001 to examine "quality in basic education". A "Quality Commission" was appointed to evaluate the content, quality and organization of basic education. "Basic education" here means the total span of 13 years of schooling in a lifelong perspective.

69. Questions regarding the extension and dimensions of the educational system, its organization at different levels, and relations between the levels and types of schools are included in the mandate of the Commission. The recommendations of the Commission may have a significant impact on the future of Norwegian education.

70. The commission started its work early in 2002. Its first report was due in June 2002, and its final recommendations will be given by June 2003. In its first proposals the Commission uses the concept of "accountability" in the economic sense of "value for money". This meaning is politically tied to the idea that national authorities have a democratic duty to control systems of public service. Such systems are regarded as effective and of good quality to the extent that they attend to the needs and wishes of the users. A further understanding of "quality" is linked to the ISO definition: "*Quality is the totality of characteristics of an entity that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs.*" In order to clarify and comply with such needs, the Commission suggests that the focus be on quality of results. A national "portal of quality" is suggested. This portal will consist of a set of indicators to be measured by national standardised and internationally compatible tests as well as manuals for user-based questionnaires at the school level. A principle of transparency is suggested. The results, or scores (at individual school level) should be available on the web to inform the public. The impact of these suggestions is being debated.

2.5 The organization of upper secondary education.

71. At the beginning of the 1990s, changes in society in general and within the educational sector in particular called for reform of Norwegian upper secondary education. The structure of upper secondary education consisted of more than a 100 different foundation courses, but there was insufficient capacity to provide a formal full certificate follow-up of the different entry-level courses. The private sector called for a workforce with a broader and more

updated competence, especially in technological subjects. There was also a call for greater flexibility and a better foundation for advanced training and in-service competence building.

72. The main elements of the reform launched for Norwegian upper secondary education and training in 1994 were:

- a statutory right to upper secondary education for all adolescents aged 16 to 19
- improved coordination between school, business and industry
- better recruitment to higher education from vocational training
- the introduction of a follow-up service in each county
- a restructuring of the number of courses at different levels, and changed pathways through the system
- new curricula and syllabuses

73. Upper secondary education now provides pupils with either

- university entrance qualifications,
- or vocational qualifications (a trade or journeyman's certificate),
- or documented competence when not attaining a certificate of upper secondary education or journeyman's certificate,
- or the acquisition of other vocational competence.

75. There are three different categories of upper secondary schools in Norway:

- The majority of schools, offering both general studies and vocational training
- Schools offering only vocation training
- Schools offering only general studies

76. Most students choose general courses, but there has been an increase in students attending vocational courses during the last years. In the school – year 2001/02 43% of the students attended vocational courses, while in 2002/03 the percentage rose to 47%. New courses offered in sales & and service and media/communication seem to be attended by students (and in particular girls) who would otherwise have attended general courses.

77. The main model for vocational training introduced by the reform consists of two initial years, a Foundation course and an Advanced course I in school. The final training, Advanced course II in business and industry, is combined with productive work and apprenticeships offered at workplaces, usually lasting two years.

78. With the reform, the number of Foundation courses was reduced by a hundred to 15. After the reform, pupils and apprentices who wish to obtain university entrance qualifications in addition to vocational competence can take additional courses on completion of their technical or vocational training.

79. The implementation of the model, including specialization years at places of work, resulted in a substantial increase in the numbers of apprenticeship places available in the short term. These increased by 60% compared to the years before the Reform.

80. The system was negotiated with representatives of industry, and the cost of apprenticeship places made available in places of work is reimbursed by the state. If a sufficient number of apprenticeship places cannot be secured, the counties are obliged to provide specialisation in a final year at school. The final examination and certificate remain the same regardless of whether the education takes place at school or at work. The county also has an obligation to

establish a follow-up service for young people with a statutory right to education, but who are neither in training nor employed, including those whose education is discontinued.

81. The general curriculum is the same for compulsory education and upper secondary education. All groups receiving education based on the common core curriculum use one single set of syllabi. The syllabi are to a certain extent designed to facilitate teaching in modules. Also in upper secondary education some use of project and theme organization is prescribed. The adaptation of methods is the responsibility of the professional educator, assisted by methodological teaching guides accompanying the syllabi.

82. With the introduction of a new structure, more weight is put on general education during the Foundation year, also in vocational courses. The restructuring implies a lowered average age in a lot of vocational courses. The inclusion of practically the whole 16 - 19 age group also carries along pupils with a total range of preparedness, motivation and capacity.

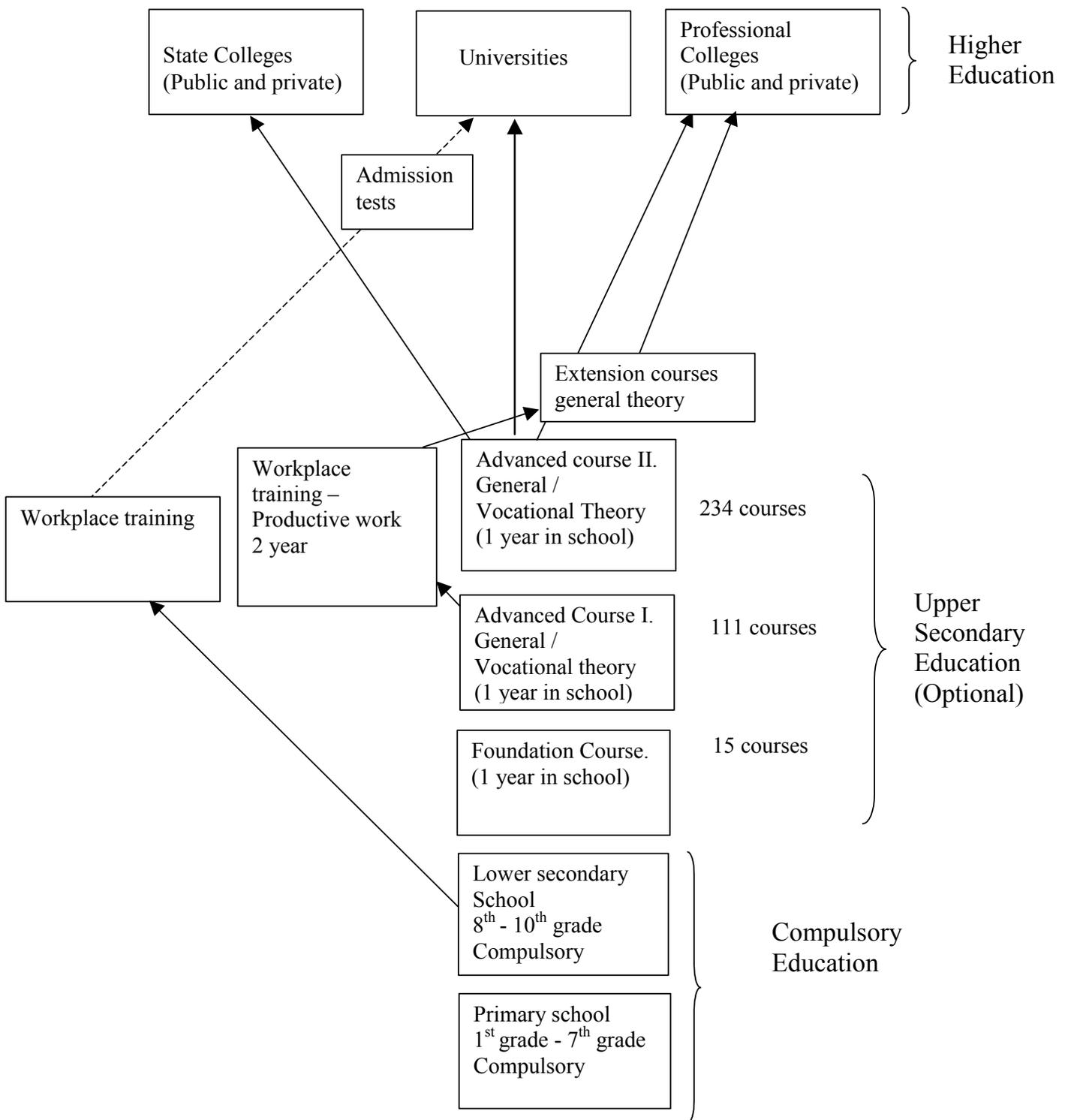
83. The implementation of the reform demanded a thorough upgrading of teaching staff, especially in the case of vocational teachers.

84. Several challenges arise from the new structure and practice of upper secondary education. A major concern is a new relationship between theory and practice:

- 1) Teachers complain that pupils on vocational foundation courses are demotivated by starting their training with general theoretical learning. A certain number of the pupils quit school, at 4% in 1999. The follow-up service, in touch with some 7,6% of the pupils, succeeds in re-integrating half of these (Grøgaard, Midtsundstad og Egge 1999).
- 2) The best approach to working with a wrench is not necessarily via a general textbook.
- 3) In some industrial fields, such as construction, it is claimed that the new apprentices are less fit for work than before.
- 4) The new structure attempts to integrate work experience and education in new ways, challenging teaching abilities and systems of learning.

85. Another challenge is connected with the size of courses and number of apprenticeship places offered. First evaluations indicated that each pupil's place had become more expensive, as classes were not so easily filled up. The County must meet its statutory obligations, and has to negotiate with industry on the availability of apprentice places. Industry has no formal obligation to accept apprentices. To some extent the system seems dependent on market fluctuations. Planning pressure is put on the County. Fairly "good times" have so far not put the system to a real test. In 2002/03 the proportion of apprentices was estimated to 17.5% of the total student population attending upper secondary education.

86. The pathways of the present Norwegian educational system might be illustrated like this⁹:



⁹ The Competence Reform (2000) gives the opportunity of alternative pathways to higher education to adults who have not completed compulsory and / or upper secondary education. (See boxes and arrows at the left side of the figure).

87. The Norwegian Educational system is predominantly a publicly financed system. Less than 3% of compulsory education is private, and 5% of upper secondary schools. In Higher education, 40% of the institutions are private – attained by about 12.7% of the students (1999). A school system not included in the figure – is the system of “Folk High schools” numbering about 80 schools, and with some 7000 students. Most are private boarding schools, owned by local religious or independent foundations. They provide general one –year courses for young people and adults, and have no formal examinations.

2.6 Systems of bargaining

The Norwegian public sector being a two-level system (State - Municipality/County), there are two different labour relation systems for public employees. State employees negotiate salaries and conditions with the Ministry of Labour and Government Administration, while municipal employees negotiate with the Norwegian Association of Local Regional Authorities, as well as the local authorities themselves. Teachers, however, are an exception to this principle. Teachers employed by municipalities and counties negotiate with the state authorities, the Ministry of Labour and Government Administration and the Ministry of Education, and Research.¹⁰

88. This system of bargaining was motivated by ideas of universalism and equal rights to education, and also had its parallel in a detailed curriculum, and detailed rules and regulations concerning working hours. At the school level, standardised and detailed contracts on teachers` working time and teaching hours contributed to a fairly rigid and inflexible organization. In principle it is modelled on the basic categories " teacher - subject - allocated number of hours per subject".

89. The income level of Norwegian teachers has been quite moderate in terms of purchasing power, compared with colleagues within the OECD area. After negotiations in recent years, teachers` salaries have increased by 7.7%. The agreement has also meant changes in systems of working hours. In principle, the salary increase is compensated for by longer working hours. In a school of average size, the new agreement implies a staff reduction of one teacher.

90. The intentions of the agreement on the organization of work included giving better opportunities for principals to act as leaders providing time for teacher cooperation

91. The working-hour agreement seems to be practised differently in compulsory and upper secondary schools. Whereas the introduction of the agreement has been fairly smooth in compulsory education, the introduction in upper secondary schools has been more rigid - focussing on details of counting, possibly at the expense of the overall task to be done. This might reflect the rising economic pressure at the County level - and the subsequent search for reduction possibilities in the budgets.

92. A working year in upper secondary school might be illustrated:

¹⁰ The Ministry of Education decided January 31st 2003 that negotiations should be transferred to municipal authorities from May 1st. 2004. A new prescription in the Educational Act leaves this decision unilaterally with the Department. Teacher unions claim that this decision (made without separate negotiations) implied a conflict with Norwegian traditions of bargaining.

					T	T	T	T	X	150t
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T = Teaching hours

X = Organized planning days

□ = Individual preparations, evaluations, planning etc

93. A working year in upper secondary school is 1687.5 hours, comprising bound and unbound hours. The unbound hours are organized individually by teachers for preparation, evaluation and planning activities. Bound hours are largely tied teaching hours. 150 bound hours are at the disposal of the school principal for different common tasks and duties. Responsibility for documentation lies with the school principal, and the time used in administering the agreement, especially at upper secondary level, has been substantial.

94. Most agreements seem to be disputed when put into practice, and that applies to the present agreement, recently brought to court. The dispute has been on definitions of teaching. When and how are teaching duties to be quantified? The verdict is that attendance at work and being with pupils do not necessarily count as teaching.

95. A new agreement of teachers' working hours is to be negotiated during the spring of 2003.

SECTION 3: ATTRACTING ABLE PEOPLE INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

96. This section deals with challenges and concerns and provides data and information on trends and initiatives related to attracting able people into the teaching profession. Some of the issues, factors and initiatives mentioned here are also relevant to the question of retaining teachers, further treated in section 6.

3.1 Major concerns

97. Several informants point out that until recently there has not been a solid, systematic, long-term, overall and consistent focus on recruitment strategies and policies; this applies at all levels: politicians; education authorities; trade unions; and the different institutions that offer teacher education. Initiatives have been fragmented and subject to fluctuations in the labour market and acute shortages of supply of teachers. During the last few years, however, there has been an increasing concern among stake-holders and political parties when it comes to recruitment and stability in the teaching work force.

98. Controversies have arisen as to whether, and to what extent, there is going to be a major shortage of teachers from now until 2010, and the number and kinds of measures that are necessary. Teacher unions call for discussion and setting standards on which to base prognoses of future demand and supply of teachers, claiming, for instance, that regulations determining the maximum number of pupils allowed per qualified teacher will have consequences for such prognoses. However, given the age structure in the teaching workforce and retirement prognoses¹¹, there seems to be widespread acceptance of the fact that there will be a substantial demand for teachers in both primary and secondary education in the years to come (St.meld. nr. 12 1999-2000, Næss 2000, Nyen and Svensen 2002). There is also a certain degree of uncertainty related to the implementation of the competence reform and whether it will result in increased demand of teachers, also by private enterprises, in the future. The consequences of the competence reform, when it comes to recruitment, are so far unexamined.

99. There are certainly geographical differences as far as the impact of the teacher shortage is concerned, but the overall picture is that challenges exist and measures must be initiated.

Table 3.1: Numbers of applicants (1st priority) for teacher education (1996-2002)¹²

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
GTE ¹³	6817	5604	4643	4039	3847	4025	4361
SSTE ¹⁴	655	546	409	410	644	582	615
PCE ¹⁵	4529	4752	3506	---	---	4512	5445

¹¹ Implying that a large group of teachers retire in their early 60-ies.

¹² Sources: GTE and SSTE: Universities and Colleges Admission Service (Samordna Opptak), PCE: St.meld / (1996-1998) and databases on statistics in Higher Education (DBH) (2001-2002)

¹³ General Teacher Education

¹⁴ Special Subject Teacher Education. Applicants to the new Vocational Teacher Education established 1999 are included in the figures for 1999-2002.

¹⁵ Postgraduate Certification of Education. Note that there is a high degree of uncertainty particularly about the numbers for 2001 and 2002, due to variations as to how and to what extent the institutions offering PCE report their numbers of applicants.

100. The number of applicants to teacher education decreased by more than one third from 1996 to 1998, continued decreasing through 1999 and 2000, but has increased somewhat during the last two years. The number of applicants increased from 2001 to 2002 by 8.3% (GTE) and 5.7 % (SST). There is no hard evidence explaining the reasons and causes for the latest increase.

101. Education authorities, trade unions, teacher educators and researchers all insist that recruitment policy is not just a matter of quantity, but also of quality and plurality. The teaching profession has traditionally recruited from a fairly narrow social segment, the segments overrepresented however changing according to the status of the teaching profession and general trends in society. Lately, the "typical" applicant for the General Teacher Education has been a woman whose father had vocational / technical education (Hovland 2000)¹⁶. Data from 1998, 1999 and 2000 show that among students of General Teacher Education (GTE) 40% have fathers with some kind of higher education. This is a low number compared to students of many other professions (Wiers-Jenssen and Aamodt 2002). Some groups are particularly underrepresented, both among teachers in service and teacher students:

Shortage of teachers in the natural sciences

102. There is a general shortage of teachers possessing the required qualifications in natural sciences as well as in certain practical subjects in vocational and technical education. The scarcity of staff with the necessary qualifications in natural sciences is particularly challenging at the upper secondary level, where half the teachers with master's degrees are above fifty years of age. The shortage is particularly acute in subjects like mathematics, physics, chemistry and geography/geology (Næss 2002). Compared to many other countries, a relatively small proportion of Norwegian students choose to study such scientific subjects (e.g. 16, 6 % in Norway v. 30,6% in Sweden¹⁷). At the same time there is a growing tendency for an increasing number of students graduating in natural sciences not to enrol on postgraduate courses of education (PCE). If the recruitment of teachers with qualifications in such subjects does not increase, there is a risk that they will practically disappear from schools (Næss 2002).

An increasing proportion of elderly people in the teacher work force

103. The average age of Norwegian teachers has been increasing steadily over the past ten years. In 2001 the average age was 47.7 years in upper secondary school and 43. 9 years in primary and lower secondary school. Half the teachers in upper secondary school were above 50 years old, while in primary and lower secondary school 36,5 % of the teachers had reached the age of 50 (Statistics Norway 2002).

104. To a certain extent, one could say that the teaching profession used to be "self-recruiting" – the profession was a family tradition. Furthermore, for periods of time, there was little need to recruit more teachers, due to low birth rates. For some years now, however, there has been an insufficient supply of young teachers.

¹⁶ Analysis based on numbers from 1993.

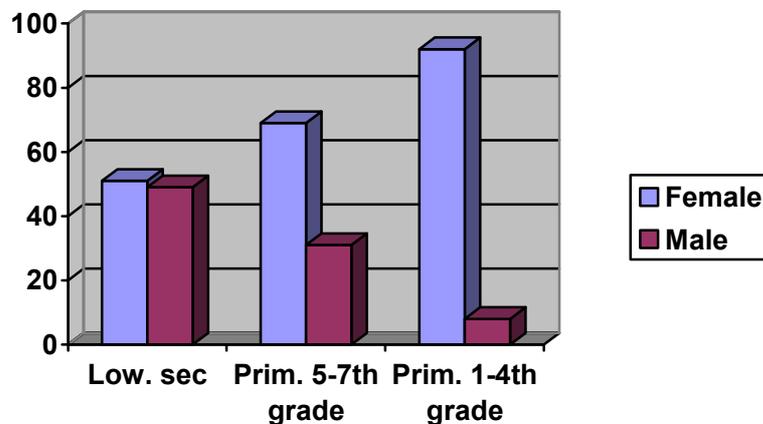
¹⁷ Source: Eurydice (2003): Key Data on Education in Europe 2001/2002.

105. One informant gives an illustrative example: when she first started working as a teacher, she was 23 years old and the youngest member of staff at her school. When she started to work at another school 15 years later, she was once again the youngest among colleagues.

Shortage of male teachers

106. For a substantial period of time, the majority of the teachers in primary and lower secondary schools have been women, in 2001 some 70%. In upper secondary schools, male teachers have traditionally been in the majority. However, the proportion of female teachers is rising in upper secondary school as well, and in 2000 there were 16,163 men and 12,787 women teaching in upper secondary school, compared to 14,971 men and 12,056 women in 2001 (Statistics Norway 2001, 2002). Among upper secondary teachers younger than 37, there is a majority of female teachers (MER, St. meld. nr 12 (1999-2000):13). In 2002 the number of male applicants for General Teacher Education was 33.5 %, which is a slight increase of 1.5% compared to 2001 (UCAS¹⁸ 2002). However, there is a huge gap to be filled, as only 800 of the total increase of 14,000 teachers in school during the period of 1992-2000 were men (Bredesen 2002).

107. There is major concern about increasing the number of male teachers, especially in primary school. Figure 3.1 shows that men teaching in compulsory school are distributed quite unevenly; the lower the level - and the younger the pupils - the smaller the proportion of men:



108. Figure 3.1. (From the report “Men in school” (Bredesen 2002:6). Based on 2000 statistics)

109. There are many reasons for recruiting more men to the teaching work force. Some point out that men bring something different to women into schools and the job of teaching. Others point out that it is not only male teachers upholding traditionally “masculine” ideals and values that are needed, but rather that pupils also need to experience adult men in professions that entail involvement in and display of male caring. Another argument is that male teachers want more male colleagues, and that the work and staff room environment generally gains from teachers of both sexes (Bredesen 2002). In sum, pupils’ needs for both

¹⁸ Universities and Colleges Admission Service, Norway

male and female teachers to identify with and meet as role models seems to be widely accepted.

Shortage of teachers from ethnic / language minorities

110. The need to increase the number of bilingual teachers and teachers representing ethnic / cultural minorities is recognized. The reasons are both that there is a need for teachers with other mother tongues / first languages than Norwegian, and the belief that the variety of different cultures among pupils should be reflected in the staff rooms. It is thought that pupils gain from being taught by teachers of various backgrounds and cultures, and that teachers with minority backgrounds will contribute to the staff's understanding of pupils and parents with the same backgrounds. Another argument is that minority teachers might be role models when it comes to motivating minority pupils to further studies (MER, St. meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002), 8.7). A recent study shows that immigrant youth is generally underrepresented in higher education, and that among minority students in higher education, there is a tendency to choose technical / natural science subjects in preference, for example, to teacher education programmes (Opheim and Støren 2001). In 2001, some 900 of a total of 31,367 persons attending some kind of teacher training or pedagogical education were reported to be immigrant¹⁹ students. The proportion of men to women among immigrant teacher students was 209 to 692 (Statistics Norway 2002). It therefore seems to be specially important to recruit men with minority backgrounds into teacher education and the teaching workforce.

3.2 Data, trends and factors

Main pathways by which people can become teachers:

- 1) General Teacher Education (GTE)
- 2) University studies or vocational education with the addition of a postgraduate certificate of education (PCE). The one-year postgraduate programme (ETP, cf. section 4) required to obtain the PCE represents a particularly apt tool for recruiting other professions into the teaching work force. There are many persons employed in other professions with an educational background and subjects relevant to teaching. These may be regarded a fairly large "reserve" that with only one year of additional training are able to qualify for the teaching profession.
- 3) Pre school teacher education (qualifying for work in the first year of primary school)
- 4) Validated practical competence: Applicants lacking the ordinary higher education admission certification may apply for admission to higher education based on an evaluation of their work experience and qualifications relevant to the specific education applied for. This means that persons with teaching experience or other occupations working in schools (school or pre-school assistants, "youth workers", children's nurses etc) may apply for admission to teacher education.²⁰
- 5) Conditional employment for minority / bilingual teachers (since August 2002) and teachers of vocational subjects. This means that a person lacking certain formal qualifications may be given a fixed contract, on the condition that he or she obtains full formal qualifications within a stipulated period of time (to be agreed upon by the

¹⁹ Statistics Norway here defines an immigrant as a person who is an immigrant of first generation or a person born in Norway and whose parents are both born outside Norway.

²⁰ Applicants must be at least 25 years old. The respective University / College defines what types and length of competence are required.

employer and the employee). In this way, employment as a teacher may actually be a pathway into formal teacher training.

- 6) Working as a substitute teacher without (formal) qualifications.
- 7) Flexible teacher education: part-time and/or distance education (ICT based).

Major trends / changes in the proportion of people entering by different pathways

111. Until recently, teachers without formal qualifications (6 % of the total number of teachers) were regarded as an additional source of recruitment, since 35% of them, after some time spent working in schools, actually took the formal education necessary to qualify as teachers (Nyen and Svensen 2002). The opportunity for non-qualified persons to get a job as a substitute teacher, and subsequently be motivated to qualify as a teacher, has been substantially reduced after the implementation of “School Package 2”, in which the obligatory number of teaching hours was increased, thus reducing the shortage of qualified teachers and the necessity of hiring unqualified persons.

An increase in the number of “decentralized and flexible” teacher students in the future?

112. Some teacher educators suggest that the number of applicants to different types of decentralized teacher education may increase in the years to come. They believe that people are becoming more familiar with the idea of part-time and distance education. The institutions offering these forms of education also note the effect of unemployment in their specific regions: among applicants there is an increasing number of persons in need of retraining for a new profession.

Closing the “strolling in” / “step-by-step” pathway to the teacher profession?

113. Teacher education at the universities and colleges is undergoing changes and restructuring (cf. section 4 for more information on this topic). These changes may also affect the proportion of people entering by different routes. For instance, there is some concern among teacher educators at The University of Oslo that the number of students choosing the post-graduate certification course may decrease. The main reason for this is that the new programmes for bachelor’s and master’s degrees mean that the students do not accumulate subject competence that is relevant to teaching school subjects as readily as they did previously, through “ordinary” university studies. Hence the familiar pathway, where students studied two or three subjects and then - at some point along the way - made the decision to qualify as a teacher (by taking the PCE), is becoming less accessible, and it will represent a substantial challenge to the university teacher education institutes to recruit students before they choose their subjects, and make sure that they choose subjects relevant for school teaching. Also, the number of people with bachelor’s degrees who take the PCE is likely to decrease. This is primarily due to the usual employment practice among principals: principals look for applicants with teaching competence in at least two subjects, and then they let them teach in five subjects if necessary. Teachers with a bachelor’s degree in one subject will not be attractive on the labour market for teachers.

A shift towards more teacher students choosing master’s degrees in the future?

114. On the other hand, some teacher educators at the colleges (offering 4-year General Teacher Education) express concern that they will lose students to the master’s programmes at the universities’ teacher education institutes. This worry is rooted in the changes in the college teacher education programme, with a greater number of subjects, but less time to study a subject in depth. It will only take one more year to obtain a master’s degree, compared to the GTE. On the other hand, it is the MER’s explicit objective to increase the relative proportion of teachers with master’s degrees. In this respect, these particular changes in the

teacher education programmes may serve the official purpose. These questions cannot, however, be answered satisfactorily until the changes in the teacher education programmes are evaluated and the consequences further explored.

Former teachers returning to school

115. We have found no data on the amount or types of former teachers returning to teaching after a period of absence, nor on what reasons are given for returning. One widespread observation, however, is that changes in other sectors of the labour market are one of the most important general factors encouraging former teachers to go back to school. At the moment this is observable among science teachers, returning from jobs in a declining ICT market.

Reasons for choosing teacher education

116. At the moment, systematically collected and analysed data on teacher students' reasons for choosing to study education are not yet available. Nor have we found information about new entrants' thoughts and priorities regarding a future career in – or outside – the teaching profession.²¹ However, two ongoing projects will provide interesting data: “StudData” and “Focus on the First-Year Student” (FFS).²² These studies may prove to be very helpful in getting a picture of the self-reported expectations and priorities of teacher students when choosing their education and future job. It might also be worthwhile to use these quantitative data as the background for a qualitative study, and thus get a more profound understanding of the choices of teacher students through their own accounts and reflections, and possibly find alternative reasons to those listed in the questionnaires.

Not all qualified teachers choose to work as teachers

117. From the year 2000 there are available data on the proportion of working persons with teaching qualifications (not only graduates) that are employed in and outside the school:

Table 3.2: Percentage of working people with teaching qualifications working in the school sector 2000.

	Men	Women	M+W
GTE-teachers	70%	80%	77%
Special subject teachers	60%	68%	66%
PCE-teachers	65%	69%	67%

Source: Statistics Norway (St.meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002))

²¹ Some data are available on expectations and motivations of teacher students as well as other students of professional studies at the State College of Oslo, see Dæhlen (2001).

²² The first project is administered by the Centre for the Study of Professions (College of Oslo), and will provide longitudinal (2000-2009), panel data on two cohorts of teacher students in three different institutions for teacher education (GTE). The data will include reasons for choosing teacher education, thoughts of how the teaching profession will develop in the future, what factors are most important in choosing a job / profession, former education / work experience etc. The study will also provide data on age, gender, social, ethnic and linguistic background. The second project (FFS) is administered by Queen Maud's College (Trondheim), and runs from 2001-2003, including teacher and pre-school teacher students from five different institutions. The data is already collected, and includes answers to general questions regarding motivation and reasons for choosing the teacher education and profession, why some quit the course of education while others stay, in addition to particular questions focussing on gender and ethnic / linguistic minorities.

118. When it comes to the proportion of teacher **graduates** that actually enter teaching, the available and comparable data consists of figures from selected years during the period 1989-2001. (See Table 3 in the Data Request Section). Among graduates with general teacher training there has been a marked increase in the proportion of those who actually work as teachers. In this group, the proportion rose from 54 % (1989) to 74% (2001).²³

119. Among graduates qualified to teach in upper secondary schools, the opposite seems to be the case (figures available only from 1989: 49%, 1991: 47%, 1993: 33%). The proportion of these teachers actually working in school is particularly sensitive to fluctuations in the labour market, as they often have obtained qualifications in university / vocational subjects that make them attractive also in other professions.

120. In all the data sets, however, there is a substantial difference between men and women; the proportion of those who qualify as teachers and work in public schools is higher among women than men. Among men there is also a difference in age; younger men with teacher education are less likely to enter teaching than older men (St. meld. nr. 12 (1999-2000)). Unfortunately, we have no evidence explaining these changes in numbers.

121. The Norwegian Institute for Studies in Research and Higher Education Studies (NIFU) has done some studies of Norwegian teachers' mobility in the labour market. They have conducted surveys of the employment situation of some cohorts of GTE teachers – six months, four years and ten years after they graduated. In this material there is no sign of GTE teachers “fleeing” from the teaching profession, either by withdrawal from the labour market, by changing profession nor by further education. When GTE teachers take further education soon after graduation instead of working as teachers, they typically choose forms of educations that are relevant for teaching (Arnesen 2002). Apart from some NIFU surveys, such data are difficult to produce on a national level (cf Hovland / National Board of Education: Data request – the case of Norway).

122. In part, however, such fluctuations will be linked, more or less closely, to the situation in competing sectors of the labour market. In times when new fields of work emerge, like the booms of the information branch of the 80s, and of the professions of consultant / advisor as well as in the ICT trade in the 90s, graduates may have other job alternatives because their teacher education makes them attractive to private companies in thriving sectors.

123. There is a lack of systematic data about the reasons for not entering the teaching profession, data required to give a solid basis for the effective initiatives needed to increase the proportion of those who actually enter the profession. Our own interviews with persons in the target group as well as relevant stake-holders indicate that such a study would reveal a diversity of reasons, ranging from working conditions and salaries to new ways of organizing the school day and teachers' (co-)work, changes in the teacher's role and identity, the curriculum, pedagogical methods, youth culture etc. Of particular interest would be studies that revealed if there were certain types of teachers (for instance groups that are already underrepresented among teachers) who choose other work instead of teaching, and what

²³ As these numbers are based on GTE graduates six months after graduation, one important reason for the marked increase is probably the extension of the GTE programme from three to four years during the early 1990s. When GTE was still a programme of three years duration, there was a substantial incentive, in terms of higher salary, linked to taking one further year of education. As a consequence, many graduates went on studying one additional year directly after their GTE graduation (Arnesen 2002).

reasons they give. Some informants have suggested that those teachers / graduates with particular fields of interest or competence (idealistic / political / organisational etc) are often more than others attracted to other employers than to the public school system. If this is the case, and given that one considers it important to keep teachers with such “specialities” in school, it could be worthwhile trying to get a picture of what it takes to make the school an attractive work place for them.

124. However, the last change in the collective agreement may prove to have some undesirable consequences, increasing the number of young, recently-graduated teachers not being able to get a teaching job even if they wanted it. This situation is the result of a reduction in the number of teaching positions, due to the expansion of the teachers’ teaching hours. Hence, at the moment, there is a surplus of qualified teachers in some regions²⁴. This especially affects the most recently graduated teachers, because they are the first ones to lose their teaching contracts when schools have a surplus of teachers. Since length of service / seniority is a criterion also when taking on new employees, those recently graduated have little chance of getting a job when, as was the case in Oslo last autumn (2002), 1200 qualified teachers competed for 260 teaching positions. In a short-term perspective, this seems like a “dream come true” for school owners and principals, but one should be aware of the possibility that quite a few recent graduates without a teaching position will look for work in other sectors, and possibly stay there.

125. The teacher union “Utdanningsforbundet” disputes the notion that “School Package 2”, which led to an increase in teaching hours per teacher, should be considered the main reason why young, recently-educated teachers now find it difficult to get a teaching job. The union believes that another cause is that many municipalities have chosen to cut down on the number of teaching hours per pupil, as a result of a weak local economy. Such a downsizing practice results in an apparent reduction in the number of teaching positions needed at individual schools.

3.3 Salaries and working conditions: teaching compared with similar professions

Salaries

126. The MER states that the level of salaries is one of several factors that affect the recruitment of teachers (St. meld. nr. 12 1999-2000). The salary level of Norwegian teachers has over a period of time been rather low compared to occupations demanding a similar level of qualifications, and compared to teachers in other European countries (MER 2002:2.7, St.meld.nr. 12 (1999-2000)). Data shows that the average annual income as well as the average life-span income of teachers has been low compared to other professionals with higher education (MER, St.meld.nr 12 (1999-2000:31). In 2000, starting salaries in compulsory education were somewhat higher than the OECD average, and fairly similar in upper secondary education. The salary of teachers at the top of the scale, with 15 years’ experience, was considerably lower (10-25 per cent) than the OECD average (OECD 2002). The difference was particularly marked in upper secondary education (MER 2002).

127. During the last couple of years, there has been a notable increase in teacher salaries (both through ”School packages” 1 and 2 and through general increases), even if some of it must be regarded as compensation for increasing the number of teaching hours (approx. 4 %

²⁴ The number of officially registered unemployed teachers being some 1700 in 2002 compared to some 1400 in 2001 (Statistics Norway). The numbers for the school holiday months of July and August are selected here, as, according to the teaching union Utdanningsforbundet, quite a lot are likely to be employed on short-term temporary positions during the school year.

per teacher per year). The following table shows the average salary increase compared to a selection of other occupational categories, during the periods of 1991-1996 and 1996-2001:

Table 3.3: Average salary increase as regards industrial workers, state-employees, local government employees and teachers during the periods of 1991-1996 and 1996-2001. Sources: Statistics Norway and the Panel for technical calculations on pay settlements.

	Industrial workers	State-employees	Local government employees (County and Municipal level)	Teachers (Primary and secondary schools)
1991-1996	16,9 %	17,7 %	15,9 %	15,0 %
Average annual increase	3,2 %	3,3 %	3,0 %	2,8 %
1996-2001	25,7 %	26,6 %	24,2 %	31,4 %
Average annual increase	4,7 %	4,8 %	4,4 %	5,6 %

128. The salary negotiations of 2002 lead to an additional average raise of 7.7 % in teacher salaries.²⁵

129. A Norwegian study on the impact of teacher salaries on recruitment shows that the mobility of those employed in teaching professions is sensitive to variations in remuneration, both in terms of absolute salary and relative salary. The results can give support to the argument that higher salaries will lead to a reduced level of departures from the profession, and stronger recruitment (Schøne 1999)²⁶.

130. The impact of salary increases on recruitment is calculated both for the group of teachers recently graduated (younger than 30 years old, minimum one year of education from University or College), as well as for the group of working persons with education relevant for teaching but presently employed outside the teaching profession. The decision whether to begin in the education sector or not is pay-sensitive for recently graduated teachers. Recruitment mobility is a more sensitive factor for newly qualified men than for women. However, the pay sensitivity of individuals with teacher training is less than that of newly qualified individuals in economics, administration and social sciences.

131. Newly graduated individuals with qualifications relevant for teaching but currently employed outside school are more likely to change to teaching jobs when teaching salaries are higher compared to other professions. There are no significant differences between men and women in this group. The analysis shows that when salaries are higher in certain sectors of education (pre-school, primary and secondary schools) relative to other sectors, the probability of recruitment is high. Generally, the study shows that using salaries as a recruitment initiative would be more effective towards recently qualified individuals than towards those who are already working (Schøne 1999).

²⁵ Source: Panel for technical calculations on pay settlements. (Statistics Norway is soon to release their 2002 statistics).

²⁶ Based on 1995 and 1996 data

132. Fresh data on teacher students, however, indicates that the level of salaries is not the main issue, as the vast majority of teacher students state that public service is a much more important criterion for choosing a future job than salary; here we can compare teacher students with other groups of students, for instance student nurses (Dæhlen 2003, on basis of StudData).

133. Improved recruitment has certainly been one of the intentions behind different forms of recent salary initiatives and collective agreements. The increase in work load per teacher (approx. 4% increase in the number of teaching hours pr teacher per year) had an immediate effect, reducing the teacher shortage. However it is still too early to draw conclusions regarding effects of increased salary and work load on future recruitment to the teaching workforce.

Working conditions

134. The work environment in public schools is an issue often focused on in the media, especially during election campaigns. The factors that directly affect pupils as well as teachers are particularly highlighted, e.g. indoor climate and the standard of school buildings and the physical environment. Other factors often mentioned that are more exclusively linked to the teachers' ability to perform their daily work are satisfactory working space for teaching preparation as well as equipment and teaching material. The standard and condition of these facilities are subject to substantial variation among schools and municipalities, and depend on the state of the municipal economy and its priorities.

135. The term "working conditions" is a complex one, and trying to define and measure it is a difficult enterprise. In this paragraph we will give a brief summary from some surveys conducted during the last ten years (1993, 1995, 2000).²⁸ Except from indoor climate, teachers report less physical strain than other occupations. When it comes to ergonomic factors, the teachers report less strain than other groups. However, teachers to a lesser extent than other groups report high degree of job satisfaction, and they score higher on factors of collective indexes like "social work strain" (Grimsmo 2001). For instance, in 1993, 17,9 % of the teachers reported feeling "psychologically/mentally worn out after work" every day, while the score is 3,8% among the average of other occupations. In 1995, the proportion was 30,2% among teachers (Lærerforbundet 1996).

136. Researchers and our informants point to factors like the lack of opportunity to "take a breath" and experience "free space" during the working day ("mestringslakk" Grimsmo 2001), lack of flexibility in organizing the workingday and lack of opportunities when it comes to professional development. Such factors as "social work strain" are held to produce stress and eventually reduced health (Grimsmo 2001). On the other hand, teachers report, to a higher degree than others, that they experience greater freedom regarding how to carry out their work, and that they are more satisfied than other groups when it comes to making use of the knowledge and competence they have gained through education and work (MER St. meld. nr. 12 1999-2000 / Statistics Norway 1996).

²⁸ We would like to point out that the groups used to compare with the teachers are not limited to the ones asked for in the outline: "those occupations with similar qualification level", but groups consisting of samples in order to give a representative picture of the state of the working environment in Norwegian public and private workplaces (Grimsmo 2001).

137. In a recent study of Nordic teachers (Klette, Carlgren, Rasmussen and Simola 2002), the Norwegian teachers were not exceptional when describing their job situation as extensive and intense; the job requiring their attention “twenty-four hours a day”:

“...you think about it all the time, like when you are a teacher you think about school, students and the subjects you are teaching all the time, and that’s twenty-four hours a day, in this respect you are working... When [you are] at the movie theatre you are thinking: Could this be used in class? May my student see this? Any perspectives or aspects in this movie that are interesting?”

“I usually get to school about twenty minutes before the first class and there’s always something to prepare and do from the day before - find books, make copies or whatever, and maybe I have time for a cup of tea before I start teaching. And then – the hours run by quickly. I rarely have time for a short break before lunch. There is a forty-five minutes break when you have to do your campus supervision, sometimes just twenty minutes. Then after lunch break back to class and students and the hours go by very quickly. It is so intense there is no time for breaks. Maybe we are able to sneak away for a few minutes while someone is watching the kids or do some copying or a cup of tea, but usually we don’t have time to do this. After classes there are usually meetings to attend, team meetings, staff meetings, meetings with parents on the phone”

(Klette 2002: 76-77. From the interviews with Norwegian teachers)

138. This study gives further interesting pictures from the everyday work of Nordic teachers in times of restructuring in education. However, there are no longitudinal, comparable data on teachers’ working conditions in Norwegian schools. Considering the extensive, recently implemented and ongoing changes affecting teachers’ work, such data would be invaluable in evaluating effects on - as well as planning initiatives for - both recruitment and retention of teachers.

3.4 Policy initiatives and their impact

139. The individual institutions offering teacher education are formally responsible for recruitment of students.²⁹ So far, few institutions have focused on recruitment to the teacher education institutions or implemented special initiatives; as one informant put it “we have taken whoever came”. However, the general trend in public administration to delegate authority is accentuated when it comes to the issue of recruitment of students to teacher education institutions; the new financial system for higher education implies that institutions of higher education (universities and colleges) will receive grants partly based on the number of students graduating (St.prp. 1 (2001-2002)). This will make a policy and strategy for recruitment necessary for every single institution. At the same time the teacher education sections of colleges will have to compete for local priorities in recruitment strategies and costs with other courses offered at the institution to which they belong.

Planned national initiatives

140. Concerned about future recruitment to the teaching profession, the Norwegian Parliament in 1998 requested that the Government prepare a strategic plan evaluating all aspects of teachers’ working conditions and recommending initiatives to secure recruitment and stability in the teaching work force. The following initiatives are some of the suggestions from the MER (St.meld. nr. 12 (1999-2000)):

- Closely watch the future supply and demand situation for teachers
- Improve the opportunities for teachers lacking qualifications to obtain formal qualifications through easy access to PCE in different regions; look at the

²⁹ Still within frames and total dimensions set by the MER.

possibility of reducing the length of teacher education for those without qualifications but with long teaching experience; and simplify the process of approval for teaching qualifications from other countries.

- Set the need for recruitment of teachers in subjects like mathematics, natural sciences and ICT on the agenda, both at national, institutional and local levels (see also Section 4).
- Help to discourage young teachers from leaving the profession, by developing arrangements for following up those recently educated. In addition, Parliament asked that the MER should see to it that every single school offered new teachers a “buddy system” arrangement.
- Improve the work environment in schools, through better advice to school owners (municipalities) on adequate school buildings; initiate work on a broad survey of teachers’ working environment; make sure that the counties’ school administrations report on local work conditions; and take the initiative, together with school owners, on developing a policy for senior teachers
- These plans have to a varying extent been followed up. Even if such plans are regarded within national responsibility, local authorities are often responsible of implementation activities.

Implemented initiatives and “work in progress”

Salary differentiation

141. The salary system for teachers has traditionally been a fairly undifferentiated one. The teacher’s level of education and seniority, with additions for certain clearly defined extra tasks and responsibilities, have been fixed criteria for the salary level. The agreements regulating salaries and the organising of work hours have now been changed, however, and made more flexible and open to local variations. Increases in salary are to a higher degree linked to criteria of individual performance and results. The prospect of receiving financial reward for extra effort, may attract more “new” people to the teacher workforce, as this may be seen as a way of making a career within a profession that traditionally has no career ladder. But many teachers and teacher students express concern that this arrangement will sour the climate in school staff rooms, increase the negative effects of competitiveness, and lead to toadying and intrigues. The teacher unions are not against salary rises in principle, based on individual criteria. However, they uphold a principle of equality in teachers’ salaries, stressing that the criteria for rewarding effort and performance must be discussed and established. To sum up, it seems to be of great importance and interest to evaluate the circumstances of the local salary negotiations³⁰, in particular with respect to what types of criteria are most frequently applied in awarding individual salary increments.

Decentralised and flexible teacher education

142. This is one initiative which many stake-holders view as important and effective when it comes to recruitment. Reports from outlying districts that traditionally have special problems with regard to recruitment indicate that teachers educated through local programmes tend to stay and work in local schools. Today, teacher education programmes (GTE) are offered in all counties except two. In addition, flexible distance-learning and/or part-time programmes have succeeded in recruiting individuals who would not have applied for ordinary, full-time programmes, although there are some indications that the flexible

³⁰ An evaluation of the first year of local negotiations is available (Andreassen og Seip 2001).

programmes might be “stealing” students from traditional, campus based programmes (Langset 2002). Among the positive factors of such programmes for students are the opportunity to stay at home with young children, and being able to work while studying.

National campaigns to attract students to teacher education programmes.

143. In 2001 and 2002 the MER initiated recruitment campaigns, with the object of supplementing, supporting and inspiring the teacher education institutions in their own work of recruitment. The first campaign consisted basically of advertisements in newspapers and television. The last one made use of several strategies. The aim was partly to reach young students-to-be, in particular young men and young people with a minority background, with positive and attractive stories of what it is like to be a teacher, and to initiate locally-based work on recruitment. A team of different young teachers and teacher students (“the ambassadors”) was formed to front the campaign in the media, in advertisements and in person in different kinds of arrangements. A survey including a panel of first-year teacher students from several colleges revealed that only a few new students had seen the campaign advertisements, and that they regarded other sources of information as more important when it came to choosing a profession (Bratterud, Glaser Holthe and Lillemyr 2002). However, the campaign was well covered by the media, with a substantial amount of editorial publicity. Another campaign will not be organised this year, but the institutions and regional school authorities (counties and municipalities) have been asked to continue the work of developing effective recruitment strategies.

144. The new financing system for universities and state colleges means that a proportion of the state funding is given according to the number of students and the credits they gain, and this means that there is a certain incentive for the various institutions to devise and implement recruitment campaigns to attract students. However, as some actors point out, such campaigns are normally focused on highlighting certain characteristics of the institution, its city or district, and extra-curricular student activities, etc. that are regarded as particularly attractive to young people. Teacher education programmes are especially visible neither in the “hip” presentations of universities and colleges, nor in recruitment brochures, nor at education fairs. Thus, the fate of specific recruitment campaigns or strategies to attract students to the teacher education programmes is in the hands of local actors. One possible measure is for several institutions that offer teacher training programmes to join forces to profile the attractiveness of teacher education as such. Another option would be for different local actors to cooperate in launching recruitment campaigns or other strategies; relevant actors would be teacher training institutions, school owners, and authorities at municipal and county level, etc.

“Men in School” / “Men in Pre-school”

145. Several ongoing projects focus on recruitment and the proportion of male teachers, e.g. research projects and networks.³¹ Some of these projects receive state funding.

Additional possible initiatives

- Exchange arrangements giving teachers the opportunity to work abroad for one year, or arrangements whereby teachers can be “visitors” in sectors / companies / occupations relevant for their teaching subjects.

³¹ Cf e.g Bredesen 2002.

- The implementation of a sabbatical year, as an initiative for the retention and professional development of teachers. Parliament asked the Government to report on the possibility of introducing such an arrangement (Innst.S.nr.120- 1999-2000), but the proposal has later been withdrawn.
- The MER suggests (St.meld. nr.12 (1999-2000: 38) the granting of funds to projects developing the role of the teacher, as well as trying out arrangements for bringing other professionals into schools. Among the reasons is that teachers experience that they have to spend an increasing portion of their workday in performing various tasks other than teaching. Teacher unions are positive to the idea of bringing additional, qualified professionals into schools. However, they stress that the inclusion of other qualified professionals in school staff rooms should not further increase the tendency of substituting school assistants for qualified teachers.³² In times of weak municipal economies and downsizing staff in terms of qualified teachers, school assistant positions are more “cost effective” than teaching positions. Teacher unions refer to reports given to the Ombudsman for Children of pupils entitled to special education being taught or supervised by school assistants rather than qualified (special education) teachers. Teacher unions maintain that school assistants should be employed as a supplement to qualified teachers, not as a substitute for teachers, to reduce costs.

³² Teacher unions refer to calculations from compulsory school statistics (GSI) showing that during the period of 1998/99-2002/3 the number of work years performed by qualified teachers has been reduced by 4%, while there has been a concurrent increase of work years performed by school assistants of 4,5%.

SECTION 4: EDUCATING, DEVELOPING AND CERTIFYING TEACHERS

146. An overall objective in formal, initial teacher training and in-service training is to ensure that these forms of training in sum cover regional and national needs for teacher competence (MER, St.meld 16 (2001-2002)).

147. As a common basis for all forms of teacher training, five areas of competence are specified:

- Subject competence
- Competence to change and develop
- Professional ethics in education
- Didactic competence
- Social competence

148. The evaluation of teacher education programmes shows that there seems to be a widespread consensus among teacher educators that these areas of competence are relevant operationalizations of the teaching profession (MER St. meld. nr16 (2001-2002): 3.6). However, there are challenges when it comes to providing teacher students and teachers in service with these forms of competence. Changes in other parts of the school system and in society in general also represent a continuing challenge to both initial teacher education and in-service training.

149. The quality of teacher education and of measures to increase competence has consequences both for recruitment to the profession and for the welfare of those who are already working in schools. The challenge is to offer training courses and programmes to enhance competence which make it possible to attract and keep the best and most highly motivated students and teachers (MER, St. meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002): 1.1).

150. This section consists of two main parts: initial teacher education and the professional development of teachers who have already obtained formal qualifications. In both subsections, we will present major concerns, available data, experiences and policy initiatives.

4.1 Initial teacher education

Major concerns and challenges

151. Underlying the recent changes in teacher education is the “widespread recognition that teacher education is not good enough”, and that an improvement is necessary to ensure that teacher education can become “a positive factor in enhancing the status of the teaching profession”, and thus contribute to adequate recruitment to the profession in the future (Inst.S.nr.262 2001-2002). Formal hearings (2000), assessments (2002) and questionnaires (StudData 2001, FFS and StudData in progress – see section 3 for description of these datasets) in institutes of education point to the need for improvement in both teacher training and practice.

152. The results of international tests (e.g. OECD / PISA 2001) have prompted concern among politicians. The concern is based not least on results that show that Norwegian pupils gain average results in reading, mathematics and science, that success at school is related to

gender and home background, and that many lack motivation for reading in their spare time (Kristin Clemet, Minister of Education, chronicle in the newspaper Dagsavisen 8/2-03). Among the challenges that face teacher education institutes are the need for greater professional competence among teachers and the need for the development of and training in learning strategies that can help to counteract the effects of social and cultural differences.

153. A clear wish and need also emerge from assessments, formal hearings and questionnaires for a professional and practical focus in teacher education, in both the formal and the applied stages of training (Network Norway Council 2002, St. meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002), Jordell 2003 based on Studdata). There is concern about the lack of interplay between subject study and what student teachers need to know in practice (Jordell 2003). Among the challenges is giving the teacher students the ability to tackle the discrepancy between their ambitions and the reality that faces them in the learning space of a school. Teacher students say they want more wholeness, more subject methods and pedagogy in their training (St. meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002): 10.2).

154. At regular intervals, concerns are expressed regarding the amount of time that teacher students spend on their studies. Some surveys have shown that teacher students spend less time studying than for instance engineering students (e.g. Teigen 1997). A recent comparison between teacher students, student nurses and engineers, however, indicates few variations among these groups of students. They all report spending approximately 29-30 hours a week studying and 11-14 hours a week on paid, part-time work (Jordell 2003).³³ The same survey, however, indicates that GTE students report less satisfaction and sense of achievement in their education than do the two other groups.

155. Another study, shows that GTE students' attitudes toward the courses offered are highly pragmatic; they clearly differentiate between the courses they perceive as professionally relevant and those perceived as less useful to future professional practice. When attendance at courses is not compulsory, the teacher students choose to attend the lessons that they find relevant for exams or future work, and omit the other lessons. The teacher students want to know how to "do" teaching (Kvalbein 1998, 2002).

156. A recent study of Nordic teachers shows that formal academic teacher training is not highly valued by teachers in Norway or in other Nordic countries (Klette 2002: 143). Similar evaluations are also found outside the Nordic area in research which reports a perceived gap between theory and practice in formal teacher education (see Stålsett 2003). In the last evaluation of the GTE, it was pointed out that teacher educators have difficulty in giving their teaching a practical focus and relating pedagogical competence to the individual subject. Subject teachers say that students often do not understand that they are receiving instruction in didactics, while students have difficulty in seeing how what they learn in different subjects is linked to what they need to know in a practical, teaching situation. This circumstance is the most significant issue for the individual institute to come to grips with (Network Norway Council 2002a : 32).

157. There are also considerable challenges in the practical training stages of teacher education. Student teachers say they get too little practice; they want more realistic practice teaching and the chance to try ideas out themselves (Network Norway Council 2002).

³³ A survey based on data from 1998, 1999 and 2000 reports the number of hours spent on studying being 29, 1 among GTE students, 32,9 among engineer students and 30,2 among student nurses. This study also reports the numbers for several other professional studies (Wiers-Jenssen and Aamodt 2002).

158. The knowledge a teacher possesses cannot be wholly learnt in teacher education institutes and a spell of practice teaching (Jordell 2003). In official reports and resolutions in parliament since 1996, the need to give greater support, guidance and attention to newly appointed teachers has been stated (NOU 1996:22, Innst.S.nr.285 1996-1997, Innst.S.nr.120 1999-2000, Innst.S.nr.262 2001-2002). The response of student teachers to a recent questionnaire also supports the view that guidance in the first teaching job is needed (Jordell 2003). Norway is not the only country where the first years are seen as a vulnerable, challenging, and in part difficult phase of a teaching career. Studies show that when new teachers are not given attention and guidance, there is an increased risk that they will quit, feel discouraged or become rigid in their teaching role (Flores 2002).

159. All the concerns mentioned above may in some way or another be linked to changes in the teacher's role. Such changes are due to a complex set of factors, ranging from reforms in other parts of the educational system to more general changes in society. As a consequence, new tasks are included in the teaching profession and existing tasks are transformed. New tasks are especially identified in "extra-curricular" parts of the teacher job. A recent study reports that Norwegian teachers, in common with their Nordic colleagues, regard extended demands related to upbringing and the social / emotional aspects of schooling as among the greatest changes in the teacher's role (Klette 2002:142). In addition, the following issues are often mentioned in current discussions about the role of the teacher:

- "Generalist" as opposed to "specialist" concepts of the teacher's role
- Balancing subject-oriented and care-oriented aspects of the teacher's role
- New pedagogic methods and ways of organising the teacher's work: The changing concept of the teacher, from lecturer to guide / instructor / motivator
- The competence reform and lifelong learning: expanding fields of teachers' work.³⁴

Outline of the structure of initial teacher education

160. There are five different types of initial teacher education:

- 1) Pre-school teacher education (PTE): 3 years
- 2) General teacher education (GTE): 4 years
- 3) Special subject teacher education (SSTE): 3 or 4 years (depending on the type of subjects)
- 4) Vocational teacher education (VTE): 3 years
- 5) Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PCE): 1 year (in addition to theoretical or vocational education – usually of 3-6 years).

161. Most of these courses / programmes are offered at Colleges. All counties except two now offer decentralized teacher education. The PCE may be obtained both from Universities and from a number of Colleges. In addition to full-time courses, some institutions offer flexible courses (part-time and/or ICT based distance courses).

General teacher Education (GTE)

162. Entry requirements: General, minimum admission certification for entrance to higher education.

³⁴ Implying that teacher education should qualify for teaching different groups of students in different areas of learning: children, young people and adults in compulsory and upper secondary education, as well as adults in supplementary education under public and private auspices

163. GTE is offered at most State Colleges and one private College. Through GTE, students may obtain a bachelor degree after 3 years, but certification for teaching positions requires 4 years.

164. In the evaluation of GTE (Network Norway Council 2002a), the following recent changes are described. GTE, which qualifies for teaching all school subjects in elementary and lower secondary schools, is regulated through national Curriculum Guidelines. Basic elements in the programmes are educational theory, a number of compulsory school subjects, a choice of optional school subjects, some cross-curricular topics and teaching practice. Subject-related didactics is integrated into each school subject. During the 1990s general teacher education was revised twice through National Guidelines reforms. The new Guidelines of 1992 extended the programmes from 3 to 4 years and gave compulsory subject studies a larger share than before. Another revision in 1998 further extended the compulsory part, leaving only 60 of the 240 ECTS credits open for student choice. In addition, a limited element of choice remains within the categories 'practical' and 'aesthetic' (art) subjects. The first candidates to follow the 1998 Guidelines will take their final exams in the summer of 2002. The State Colleges Reform of 1994 brought further changes. The former, rather small teacher training colleges now became parts of larger, multi-purpose higher education institutions. Then in 1996 a new law on higher education brought these new state (or 'regional') colleges and the universities into the same legal framework, which particularly affected steering and management systems and the procedures for student assessment in teacher training. These reforms and tighter budgets were the cause of considerable change in the way teacher training is organised and provided, with obvious effects on teaching methods (Network Norway Council 2002a:93-94).

Special subject teacher education (SSTE)

165. Entry requirements: General, minimum admission certification for entrance to higher education (or validated practical competence). In addition, applicants often have to demonstrate special competence in the subject(s) studied. The SSTE qualifies for teaching in special subjects, primarily aesthetics.

Vocational teacher education (VTE)

166. Entry requirements: Craft certificate / vocational diploma, or other relevant professional competence (3 years), in addition to two years of work practice. The programmes are regulated through national Curriculum Guidelines and include one part broad vocational studies and one part vocational in-depth studies, in addition to educational theory and in-school practice.

Postgraduate Certificate of Education

167. Entry requirements: Relevant theoretical or vocational education.

168. The PCE is obtained through a one year full time programme called "educational theory and practice" (ETP). This is normally taken after an academic degree, usually made up of 1–3 subjects studied in depth, or a craft certificate / vocational diploma. Holders are qualified to teach these subjects at the middle and upper levels of compulsory schooling, in upper secondary schools and in adult education. Nearly all teachers in upper secondary schools are subject specialists with this type of teacher training. The programmes are

regulated through national Curriculum Guidelines and include educational theory, subject or vocational skill related didactics and teaching practice (Norway Network Council 2002b:119).

After the last reform in higher education (the “Quality Reform”), special teacher training programmes have also been developed at some Universities, to be implemented in 2003,. These programmes will last for four (bachelor) or five (master) years. They will diverge from the GTE in that they, in addition to didactics and in-school practice, offer in-depth studies of only two subjects.

General requirements for admission to teacher education:

169. For all teacher education requiring the general, minimum admission certification for entrance to higher education, applicants may also be admitted on the basis of other relevant competence and/or practical qualifications (“validated practical competence”). These alternative requirements are specified by the institutions according to the distinctive character of the teacher training in question. Requirements vary among institutions; some demand a minimum level of grades from upper secondary or other forms of education, in relation to the number of applicants. However, the number of applicants to teacher education programmes has been low for several years (see section 3). Where teacher education programmes require a minimum of points, the requirements are substantially lower than to other forms of professional education, due to the low degree of competition among applicants for teacher education programmes.

170. Possession of a certificate of good conduct issued by the police is a condition of acceptance for courses of study where students come into contact with patients, clients, nursery school children, pupils or others in the course of clinical teaching or practice teaching. If the official certificate indicates that an individual has been charged with or found guilty of a sexual offence or assault, this may have consequences for the pursuit of certain courses of study.

Graduate requirements / certification

171. Students admitted to a PCE programme have already passed their subject-specific exams. In the PCE programme students are evaluated in pedagogics, subject-oriented didactics and in-school practice. The other teacher training programmes also test their students in subject-specific skills. Methods of evaluation vary, to take account of the characteristics of different subjects. While the Guidelines state the main principles of certification, each institution must develop and determine specific methods and requirements for examination and certification. However, the Council for Teacher Education (under the Norwegian Council for Higher Education) provides a national arena for cooperation, to avoid undesirable divergence in certification practice among institutions.

172. Traditionally, neither the teacher unions nor the school owners / teacher employers (municipalities) have been involved in specifying certification requirements. However, headteachers and school owners are responsible for students’ in-school training, as practice teachers are employed by the schools, not by the teacher education institutions. According to the new Guidelines, practice arrangements as well as specifications of certification requirements are to be determined in cooperation between the institutions and the practice schools.

Aptitude for the teaching profession as a requirement for certification

173. Additionally, a specific assessment of students' aptitude regulates certification in all types of teacher education. Education institutions responsible for teacher training assess whether individual students are suitable for the teaching profession. The certificate of completed teacher training shall be awarded only to students found to be suitable for the teaching profession. On the recommendation of a special aptitude board, the board of the institution may decide that a student is unsuitable for the teaching profession. Students found unsuitable for the teaching profession may be excluded from teacher training courses. The decision to exclude a student on grounds of unsuitability requires a majority of at least two-thirds. The decision may be appealed by the student pursuant to the provisions laid down in the Public Administration Act. The appeal body is the Ministry of Education and Research (cf. Act of Universities and Colleges, chapter 10, section 54c).

Employment qualifications

174. The different teacher education programmes qualify for working as a teacher in different parts of the school structure:

	Pre-school	Primary school	Compulsory school		Upper secondary school
	0 – 5 years	6 – 10 years	Primary school 10 – 13 years	Lower secondary school 13 – 16 years	16 – 18 (19) years
PTE					
GTE					
SSTE					
VTE					
PCE					
-general subjects					
-vocational subjects					

The education is generally aimed at
 Employment possible when teachers have qualifications in certain subjects
 Employment limited to a few subjects

Figure 4.1 Areas of employment and possible positions for different categories of teachers

175. According to The Education Act (chapter 10, section 1), persons appointed to teaching posts in the primary and lower secondary school and in the upper secondary school shall have relevant professional and educational qualifications. The Ministry has further specified requirements regarding educational qualifications and experience for persons appointed to teaching posts at different levels and in different types of school. The following paragraph gives an outline of the major requirements for qualifying for a teaching position³⁵:

1) Requirements for appointment in the primary and lower secondary school:

³⁵ Source: Regulations to the Education Act (§ 10-1 and 10-3), chapter 14: "Competence requirements for teaching staff"

a) The person to be appointed to a teaching position in the 1st grade of primary education must satisfy one of the following requirements:

- Pre-school Teacher Education (PTE) with at least a one-year study in special education, if the main task is special educational needs, or if the pupils' requirements make this background desirable.
- GTE
- Special Subject Teacher Education (SSTE) in practical and/or aesthetic subjects, or equivalent competence in these subjects. Such an appointment covers teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of a half-year of relevant study.

b) For appointment to a teaching position in the 2nd-4th grade of primary school, one of the following requirements must be met:

- PTE and one year of study preparing for teaching in lower primary school
- PTE with at least one year of study in special education, if the main task is special educational needs or if the pupils' requirements make this background desirable.
- GTE
- SSTE in practical and/or aesthetic subjects, cf. The Act relating to Universities and Colleges §54b no. 4, or equivalent competence in these subjects. Such an appointment covers teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of a half year of relevant study.

c) For appointment to a teaching position in the 5th-10th grade of primary/lower secondary school, one of the following requirements must be met:

- GTE
- SSTE, for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of a half year of relevant study
- Vocational Teacher Education (VTE), for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of a half year of relevant study.
- University and/or other higher education which totals at least 4 years of study including pedagogics (PCE), for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of a half year of relevant study.
- PTE with at least one year of study in special education if the main task is special educational needs or if the pupils' requirements make this background desirable.

2) Requirements for appointment in the upper secondary school:

a) For appointment to a teaching position in general subjects in the upper secondary school, one of the following requirements must be met:

- University and/or other higher education which totals at least 4 years of study, including pedagogics (PCE), for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of one year of relevant study.
- Subject teacher education, cf. The Act relating to Universities and Colleges §54b no. 4, for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of one year of relevant study.
- Teacher education as described in 1) with at least one year of study in special education, if the main task is special educational needs or if the pupils' requirements make this background desirable.

b) For appointment to a teaching position in vocational subjects in the upper secondary

school, one of the following requirements must be met:

- VTE, for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of one year of relevant study cf. §14-5.
- University and/or other higher education which totals at least 3 years of study, including pedagogics (PCE), for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of one year of relevant study.
- SSTE, for teaching in the subjects or subject areas in which the appointee has a minimum of one year of relevant study.
- Vocational certificate, journeyman's certificate or successful completion of other vocational training at the upper secondary level, 2 years' study of a vocational subject at a level higher than upper secondary and 4 years of work experience after completion of upper secondary education, for teaching in subjects or subject areas for which the training and background are relevant. In addition, pedagogical competence is required in accordance with §14-1.
- Teacher education as described in 1) with at least one year of study in special education, if the main task is special educational needs or if the pupils' requirements make this background desirable.

3) Requirements for appointment as a mother-tongue teacher for language minority pupils

For appointment as a mother-tongue teacher, one of the following requirements must be met:

- Teacher education from the pupil's home country and documented good Norwegian.
- Teacher with the same mother-tongue as the pupil: university and/or other higher education of a total length of at least 3 years including pedagogic education in accordance with §14-1, and documented good Norwegian. 1½ years of the study period must cover the pupil's language and culture.
- Norwegian-speaking teacher who does not have the same mother tongue as the pupil: university and/or other higher education in the pupil's language totalling a minimum of 1½ years of study, and close acquaintance with the pupil's cultural background, in addition to pedagogical education.

176. In effect, however, the tasks actually performed by teachers can diverge from the appointment qualifications. Once a teacher is appointed, the principal decides what subjects he or she may teach.

177. A recent specification (2002) in the Education Act makes employment qualifications more directly linked to what forms of teacher competence are required for teaching at different levels. Other implications of the new regulations are

- When there are no formally qualified applicants to vocational or minority language teaching positions, applicants that meet the subject relevant requirements may be given a permanent contract, on the condition that he or she obtains full formal qualifications within a certain period of time (to be agreed upon by the employer and the employee) (see also section 3.2. in this report).
- Teachers without formal competence but with what is defined as adequate validated practical competence may teach adult students.

There are ongoing discussions about possible forthcoming changes in requirements for teaching appointments. For example, the MER states (St. meld. nr. 16 (2001-2002)) that as part of a broad evaluation of the Education Act, the Ministry will also consider changes that facilitate the employment of teachers on the basis of validated practical competence in other parts of the educational system as well. In addition, the MER will look into the possibility of decentralizing responsibility in this matter, giving school owners the authority to decide

locally teachers' appointment qualifications. Another topic of discussion is how subject specific, as opposed to general, the qualifications ought to be. If additional professions to a greater extent are to be part of the school staff, the question as to where to draw the "demarcation line" between teachers' work and functions and the tasks of other professions may also be of relevance for teachers' qualifications. Such questions are currently under consideration, but no formal decision has been made. There are several political, pedagogical and professional issues linked to changes in qualifications for employment, some of them incendiary.

Restructuring teacher education

179. Underlying the restructuring of the teacher education lie different elements, such as formal hearings and evaluations, in addition to the implementation of a new degree structure and a new financial system in higher education (the "quality reform"). New guidelines (curricular frameworks) are being elaborated for all forms of teacher education (except VTE, with new guidelines from 1999). The work with the new guidelines is planned to be completed by spring 2003, and is going to be implemented in the autumn, as new classes of teacher students will enter the programmes. This work is being administered by the MER. Teacher unions and school owners / teacher employers (municipalities) are among the stakeholders participating in the formal hearing process.

Important features of the new structure:

180. Up till now, institutions offering teacher education have been responsible for securing and developing the quality of their separate courses. However, they must follow certain centrally stipulated regulations:

- Specific sections in the Higher Education Act
- Central Guidelines (curriculum frameworks) and regulations included in them

181. This main principle is maintained in the new structures. The implementation of new forms of teacher education, however, implies a marked shift in the distribution of authority, giving more responsibility and autonomy to each institution. The new guidelines are substantially less detailed, with the focus on main principles rather than specifically elaborated regulations. Among the reasons for this is the expressed wish, on the part of teacher education institutions, for local autonomy and flexibility. This shift may also, however, be seen in relation to other processes of decentralisation in other parts of the educational system, as well as more generally in the public sector. As a consequence, there are less explicit regulations regarding, for instance, the institutions' choice of ways of organising the training programmes and of methods for teaching and evaluating students.

182. At the same time, the new financial structures in higher education also lead to the distribution of grants to different courses and programmes (teacher education, nurse education, engineering education etc) being handled locally, at the institutional (University / College) level. Up till now, the MER has specified the grants to teacher education programmes. The new system of financing means that the funding is to be allocated within the institutions, partly on the basis of the number of "credits" actually achieved by students in examinations. One of the issues now being debated at the political level, is what consequences this may have for curricular elements that don't "pay off" in terms of "credits" (e.g. traffic training, "children in crisis" courses, ICT etc). With the new financing structure, many challenges regarding priorities have to be tackled locally. It is still too early to reach a

conclusion about what the consequences of the new forms of autonomy and responsibility will be.

183. The duration of the different forms of teacher education will not be affected, and the practice-teaching period is also going to be unaltered. In the course of work on the changes, the introduction of a full year of practice prior to certification was proposed, but this did not gain much support from the parliamentary majority or from experts in the field. To make the new forms of teacher education more professional and practical, however, changes were introduced in the way teacher students' practice was conducted. Practice is now going to be more closely integrated into the individual subject studies through more weight being given to didactics and didactic goals for each subject being stated. In addition, teacher education programmes will make greater use of teaching practice throughout the period of study. Among the measures designed to improve quality, relevance and practicality are more frequent school visits, also outside periods of practice teaching; closer and more regular contact between the institution and the schools where practice teaching takes place; and closer cooperation with the practice schools, for example in the course of project work as part of the teacher education programme.

184. With these changes in the framework of teacher education, GTE is also subject to considerable changes in content and structure. The number of compulsory school subjects is reduced from 7 (8) to 3; GTE now includes maths, Norwegian language, the subject "Christian Knowledge and Religious and Ethical Education" (CKREE) and courses for the basic training of pupils in reading, writing and arithmetic. The new model provides GTE students with more options and the in-depth study of some subjects. Nevertheless, objections have been raised to the new content and structure. One is that the "generalist" concept of the teacher, characteristic of the traditional teacher's role in Norway, will diminish, in favour of a concept of the teacher as a "specialist" in a limited number of subjects. Secondly, in the evaluation of GTE (Network Norway Council 2002), it was especially questioned whether the two subjects maths and CKREE should be compulsory. In the work on new Guidelines for GTE, the MER kept maths as a compulsory subject, and CKREE was re-introduced to the Guidelines by the MER after negotiations in Parliament were completed (Jordell 2003). Some are also concerned at the possible consequences for recruitment, asserting that making two of the less popular subjects compulsory may not be the best strategy for recruiting new students to the teaching profession (Jordell 2003).

185. Some researchers on teacher education describe future challenges for the teacher education under the headline "postmodern students meeting modern teacher educators"³⁶, meaning that the institutions offering teacher educations must consider that the group of teacher students now is a far more heterogeneous one than it used to be. Some add that the teacher educations would gain from increasing the use of teaching and work methods that may prove to be motivating both for the teacher students as well as their future pupils, such as using as a basis and further developing the extensive competence in media methods and genres that young people possess³⁷.

186. Extensive studies are being carried out on students' experience of GTE programmes (StudData, FFS). These may give important background information for further evaluation and development. Some preliminary analysis indicates that 60 % of the teacher students report a high degree of motivation, well-being as well as find their study meaningful. This applies,

³⁶ E.g. Kvalbein 2002, Dons 2002

³⁷ Dons 2002

however, to a somewhat lesser degree for male and minority students compared to female, Norwegian teacher students³⁸.

187. However, additional studies will be required to examine factors specific to the new forms of teacher education after the latest changes. With increased institutional autonomy, there are likely to be variations among institutions when it comes to ways of learning, evaluating and organising teacher training programmes.

Support programmes for new teachers

188. To meet the reported challenges and problems related to lack of support and follow up of new teachers, two different policy initiatives have been suggested: in-school local support systems administered by schools employing new teachers, and programmes of guidance provided by the teacher education institutions. In 2000, Parliament asked the MER to make local support of new teachers available in all schools. Responsibility for such local support systems is now placed at the level of school owners, thus making them subject to local priorities on the part of municipalities and individual schools. To our knowledge, there is no systematic data available on how many schools practise such systems of locally-based support, nor in what ways the systems are organised.

189. Based on experience from pilot projects on the guidance of new teachers, the MER acknowledges that new teachers need other forms of guidance, in addition to traditional in-school “buddy systems” (St.meld 16 2001-2002). The MER has given financial support to a number of projects on the guidance of new teachers. The projects, carried out by teacher education institutions and actively involving principals and mentor teachers at the new teachers’ schools, are reported to be particularly successful (see e.g. St. meld 2001-2002, Stålsett 2002, 2003). In these programmes, the school principals assign one of the staff members, experienced and well fit to guide new teachers, to the task. The teacher education institution then provides these mentor teachers with training in how to guide new teachers, and also takes part in in-school guidance. The principals from all the schools involved attend a certain number of gatherings under the auspices of the education institution. The new teachers take part both in local support sessions and in gatherings with the other new teachers from the schools involved, administered and supervised by the education institution.

190. The principals involved emphasize positive effects in terms of new teachers being more confident in their performance and practice as teachers - as well as participating more actively in staff discussions. The mentor teachers reported the same effects, and also stated that participation in the guidance project led to an increase both in team spirit and insight into school practice. The new teachers were satisfied with the support provided. This applied to the local, in-school mentoring and socialization, as well as to the guidance programme offered at the teacher education institution. The out-of-school programme and gatherings were reported to be useful especially in dealing with “touchy” issues, such as problems arising from difficult relations with individual pupils in teaching situations and from co-work situations with colleagues at school (Stålsett 2003)³⁹. The MER recognizes the positive effects and adds that such guidance programmes increase and improve interaction between teacher education institutions, school owners and practitioners in schools (St. meld. 16 (2002-2002)).

³⁸ Bratterud and Lillemyr 2002, based on preliminary FFS data.

³⁹ For additional reports on different examples of the Norwegian experience with support systems for new teachers, see e.g. Hoel 2002, Hauge 2001, Bjerkholt 2000, Speitz 2000). Unn Stålsett at the State College of Oslo is also currently writing a report on experience with support systems in 37 other countries (commissioned by the MER).

191. The future vision and aim is that programmes for the guidance of new teachers should be available on a permanent and nation-wide basis. The MER has granted resources to continue the development of such programmes. The funds are administered by the Norwegian Board of Education, and at the moment distributed to a selection of teacher education institutions, on the basis of applications. The applicants have to document their cooperation with local school authorities and other relevant actors (counties, municipalities, teacher unions etc).

192. The nationally funded activities will be evaluated within a period of four years. Nevertheless, the experience of some of the pilot projects already illustrates possible pitfalls and challenges that, if not dealt with, may prove obstacles to continued success. 1) “School-package 2” (see section 3) has brought about an acute surplus of teachers, especially in the larger cities, causing dismissals primarily of newly employed teachers. There are therefore few new teachers to guide, and the mentor teachers trained by the teacher educations lack the continuity necessary to maintain and develop their competence as mentors. 2) Part of the responsibility for funding is decentralized, and subject to the priorities of municipalities and the institutions offering teacher educations. At the school level, the school management has to decide whether their budget and resources allow participation. As a consequence, there is a financial uncertainty and unpredictability, making it difficult for teacher education institutions to maintain and improve such programmes. An example to illustrate this is of one municipality which did not maintain participation and grants last year, and instead gave priority to centrally-initiated and fully-financed ICT projects. A “worst-case scenario” would be a situation where no support at all was offered to new teachers starting their careers in schools that lacked effective, local, in-school support systems, and where the school in addition belonged to a municipality that for some reason did not have the will or economic resources to participate in an external guidance programme.

4.2 Professional development and in-service training

Outline of options and structure

193. Professional development for teachers includes several different routes to expanding and improving qualifications. Professional development may take the form of individual or colleague-based updating in subjects or teaching methods, attendance at externally-arranged courses, participation in professional networks etc. There are two main types of organized professional development; the first, formal study and training, results in additional qualifications that are often linked to an increase in salary (e.g. graduate subject studies, or a Master’s degree in a subject relevant to school teaching). Such forms of training may also be regarded as a formal “ticket” to a change in a teacher’s career, if the education achieved qualifies for teaching new groups of pupils. Some teacher education institutions offer programmes of study that lead to a degree in school management and are clearly a pathway to advancement, in terms of both salary and career. The second type of organized in-service courses, informal study and training, covers many different forms of organized professional development that are not linked to formal credits.

194. In the Education Act (Chapter 10, Section 10-8), in-service training is referred to as follows:

“The State, county authorities and municipalities shall make efforts to ensure that teaching staff, head teachers and personnel with special responsibilities in the school system receive in-service training with a view to refreshing and extending their professional and educational knowledge and enabling them to keep informed and on a par with developments in the school and in society”.

195. The professional development of teachers is thus a shared responsibility between state authorities and school owners (counties and municipalities). The state authorities have so far contributed with a somewhat larger proportion of the funding than have the school owners⁴⁰. The state grants have mainly been linked to specific state initiatives in education (Reform 94, Reform 97, and the “Development of Quality” project (2000-2003), in addition to grants administered specifically by the office formerly responsible for national teacher training courses⁴¹ (National Teacher Training Courses). However, the counties and municipalities are ultimately responsible for ensuring the professional development of teachers in their respective primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools. School owners have also been charged with keeping abreast of the local needs for professional development, and facilitating local involvement and activities. Their responsibilities include planning the local work on professional development as well as coordinating activities.

196. State authorities define what development tasks are most important in order to achieve the national aims in education. Evaluating to what extent the school owners actually perform these development tasks is also a state responsibility. The state also provides grants for selected professional development tasks, e.g. those linked to the implementation of national, large-scale school reforms. Since the late 1990s, however, there has been a marked shift towards increased decentralisation of authority also in the field of professional development and in-service training, expressed, for example, through plans for channelling state resources for development purposes through the school owner level, the counties and municipalities (NBE 2001: 8). Professional development activities are now to a greater extent school based and directed towards teachers’ everyday work with subjects and teaching methods (NBE 2001: 9).

197. During and after the implementation of the R97 reform (which also involved new curriculum plans), the MER established a network of teacher education institutions given responsibility for drawing up plans for relevant professional development. The selected areas of priority are subjects like English, the Saami language, Mathematics, the Natural Sciences and CKREE, as well as interdisciplinary courses such as in use of ICT for educational purposes, school management, differentiated teaching, school-based evaluation, individual evaluation, knowledge of teaching materials and equal opportunities studies.

198. Based on reports of mediocre pupil performances in reading skills as well as in subjects like mathematics and natural science⁴², and on surveys showing deficiencies in teacher competence in specific subjects⁴³, the Government has initiated an immediate

⁴⁰ In the 2001 Status Report (Tilstandsrapport), the National Board of Education concludes that 70-80 % of the total amount of economic resources spent on local in-service training and other development projects was covered by the State.

⁴¹ Established in 1962, but now recently closed down, in accordance with the intention to transfer responsibility, administration and activities from central to local levels of authority.

⁴² OECD /PISA (2001)

⁴³ E.g. Lagerstrøm /Norway Statistics (2000). According to this survey, 45% of those teaching maths and natural science in compulsory school report that they do not have formal subject education. This does not imply that the level of competence among Norwegian teachers is remarkably poor, but rather that many teachers also teach subjects in which they have little formal qualifications.

measure. This measure is given the form of a specific scholarship which teachers lacking formal qualifications in the subjects mathematics, Norwegian and the Saami language may apply for. The applicants must achieve formal qualifications equivalent to one year of full-time study of one of the relevant subjects by August 2005.

199. The Norwegian Board of Education (NBE) administers several vital development activities. Among these are collecting reports on the state of local development activities linked to the implementation of the last two reforms; the 1994 reform of upper secondary education and the 1997 reform of primary and lower secondary education. The Board also administers a web site giving information about national development options and activities at the county and municipality levels⁴⁴.

200. Many National Education Offices have actively contributed to stimulating cooperation and interaction between the “sellers” and “buyers” in the market for professional development services: the teacher education institutions and the school owners. As the regional representatives of the national authorities, they also inform, guide and encourage local work on development tasks of national priority, e.g. through arranging meetings of representatives of local authorities and institutions and contributing to their learning from each other.

Reports on training options and effects

201. The in-service formal study and training programmes leading to the award of formal qualifications are monitored for effectiveness in examinations in the institutions responsible. There is currently no existing uniform or systematic evaluation mechanism for other forms of in-service programmes. Some professional development activities are subject to external evaluation, but the general responsibility for quality control is delegated to the schools and school owners. The NBE expresses the opinion that there is a need for evaluating the various development strategies, and stresses the importance of ensuring effective ways of sharing local experience (NBE 2002: 8-9).

202. A survey conducted in 1999 (Jordfall and Nergaard 1999), examined teachers' experience of in-service training. The survey shows an average of 69 hours of organized professional development per year per teacher. Teachers in primary schools reported the highest level of activity, teachers in upper secondary reported the lowest. When asked to identify the areas most in need of development initiatives, the teachers emphasized the use of ICT for educational purposes; updating and upgrading subject competence; general training in the use of computer based tools; and updating in teaching methods and pedagogics.

203. The survey paints a picture of a teaching work force generally highly motivated to participate in professional development activities. This is confirmed in another survey (Lagerstrøm 2000), which shows that young teachers in particular express motivation for increasing their competence in the subjects that they teach. The teachers in the 1999 survey also characterize the last activity they participated in (at the time asked) as having positive effects. The three effects (among the fixed response alternatives) mainly emphasized were 1) improved ability to perform the job, 2) personal development, 3) learning how to perform new tasks.

⁴⁴ <http://skolenettet.ls.no/kompetanse/>

204. However, the degree of satisfaction with training options and opportunities is reported to be fairly low. In the 1999 survey, 40% say that they have had the opportunity to participate in a sufficient number of development activities, 20% state that they have applied for and been denied the opportunity to participate, while 27 % state that they have refused an offer to participate. Approximately half the respondents state that resources for professional development are well distributed both in terms of school needs and staff needs. There is a tendency for the degree of satisfaction to be higher in primary schools, and for the degree of satisfaction to be higher the smaller school.

205. Older surveys similarly conclude that teachers emphasize the importance of development opportunities (Statistics Norway 1993, Statistics The Teachers' Union of Norway (Lærerforbundet) 1995, Statistics Norway 1996). Furthermore, they show that teachers express dissatisfaction with actual options, and more so than do other professions (Statistics Norway 1996). Here, 44% say that the development opportunities necessary for satisfactory job performance are poor. 63% state that opportunities to participate in professional development activities are poor. In the 2000 survey only 10% of the respondents reported that they had been encouraged by their local school management to participate in professional development activities.

206. When asked about factors representing obstacles regarding teachers' participation in professional development activities, the main reasons given were pressure of work, lack of economic resources for training activities, and the difficulty of providing substitute teachers to fill in for teachers participating in development activities.

207. One vital task seems to be to detect and resolve the possible and actual bottlenecks in the continuous work of developing school teachers. As local authorities are increasingly given responsibility for the professional development of their own teachers, the variety of bottlenecks is likely to increase among individual schools and municipal and county districts.

208. The NBE considers that although the state's role is shifting from governance and administration to guidance and quality assessment, it should still be a state task to make sure that the municipalities do not neglect their responsibility as school owners by reducing the scale of local efforts in the professional development of teachers (NBE 2002:9).

SECTION 5: RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND ALLOCATION OF TEACHERS

209. In this section an outline will be given of current concerns, relevant data, significant factors and policy initiatives with regard to recruitment issues that are handled at local authority levels. The recruitment, selection and appointment of teachers are responsibilities of local authorities, carried out either by the local school management (upper secondary education) or by local authorities (compulsory education). There is a trend also in compulsory education towards recruiting teachers at the school level. This trend follows the general move towards the decentralisation of authority and decision-making.

210. The main challenge for those responsible for recruiting, selecting and allocating teachers is to ensure that the staff at each local school possess the total sum and combination of competences needed to meet the requirements of each school.

5.1 Recruitment

Recruitment of qualified teachers

211. The recruitment of qualified teachers to outlying districts of Norway, especially to the Northern regions, has traditionally been difficult. Specific benefits have therefore been offered for a number of years by the Ministry to attract recruitment to these regions. These arrangements have included wage increases, one year of paid leave after 5 years of service, the reduction of student loans by 10%, reimbursement of the costs of moving, and reduced tax. Evaluation of these arrangements shows that they have had a positive effect on recruitment and have reduced the number of qualified teachers leaving (Eikeland 1993, Eikeland 1994, Lie, Røkenes and Eikeland 1997).

212. The MER (St prp 1 2002 -2003:61) suggests that these arrangements be terminated in 2003, claiming that locally-based initiatives may be more effective in the long run. The MER considers that new elements in the salary agreement involving some local flexibility and using locally-based resources will provide better incentives for municipalities than state contributions given according to the number of unqualified persons in teaching posts.

213. There has been a slight rise in recent years in the proportion of teachers in primary and secondary education lacking full formal qualifications. The figure of 5.6% in 1995 rose to 6.1% in 2001. Of these, some 25% were qualified to teach specific subjects. Some 10% had started but not completed their teacher education (Nyen and Svensen 2002). In upper secondary education, the percentage of staff qualified in relevant subjects but lacking the teacher training certificate required was 5.5% of total staff, of whom about 1% also lacked subject qualifications (Lærerforbundet 1998).

214. Recently the situation as far as recruitment of qualified teachers is concerned has been turned upside down, at least in the larger cities. Until recently, there were too few qualified teachers to fill vacant positions in compulsory schools, while in 2002 more qualified teachers applied for positions than there were positions available.

215. This change is possibly related to several factors coinciding. First, the fluctuations of the labour market indicate a general rise in unemployment. Secondly, the salary and worktime agreements of the last years have resulted in an increase in working hours, with a certain

surplus of teachers as a consequence. Thirdly, the salary agreement leading to a pay increase of some 7.7% possibly makes it more attractive both to enter and to stay in the teaching profession.

216. As many teachers are soon, and within the same period, to reach the age of retirement, two crucial questions are asked by a number of schools and municipalities: 1) How are we supposed to fill all the vacant positions with new teachers? 2) What will happen to the teaching environment at those schools where the entire staff, so to speak, consists of young and inexperienced teachers, and how are we to ensure that they will get the support of, and the opportunity to learn from, experienced teachers?

Recruitment measures

At the local, municipal level, different measures are used to attract well-qualified teachers. Such measures include housing subsidies and guaranteed kindergarten places. Municipalities report that such benefits have been successful, but some have abandoned them because they may be “stealing” qualified teachers already working at neighbouring schools. Giving priority to attractive programmes and options for professional development are presented as municipal assets in advertising for new teachers. Some individual schools and municipalities also focus on attractive aspects of conditions of work for the staff, such as team spirit, experimental pedagogical activities etc. Schools with up-to-date technical facilities are also popular among applicants. Several actors point out that establishing networks between schools as regards to exchange of experience, professional development and so forth are initiatives apt to make teaching positions in schools in outlying districts more attractive.

Some municipalities have organized pools of substitute staff to provide a flexible system to cover temporary staffing fluctuations. Those listed in such pools can be qualified teachers giving priority to part-time teaching, surplus teachers having no permanent job, or students looking for a temporary source of income. Local authorities report that the existence of such pools is a recruitment asset.

217. Recruitment to teaching positions in subjects that only constitute a small percentage of a full-time position in an individual school may be particularly difficult. Some local initiatives have proved to be successful in this regard: for instance, several neighbouring schools which have joined forces and added together their unfilled position percentages have been able to offer a full-time teaching position.

Differentiated salary increase based on individual criteria

218. In the national salary negotiations of the last two years, part of the total budget for salaries was made available to local negotiators and administered by municipal officials negotiating with local representatives of the teacher unions (see also section 3). The intention was that the locally determined proportion of the salary funds could be distributed in ways that would reward and stimulate efforts made by individual teachers. The first year of local negotiations resulted in arrangements where salary increases were given as compensation for specific teacher functions and tasks (e.g. as additional compensation for the task of being a form master/mistress).⁴⁵ Among the explanations given for this outcome, was that neither central nor municipal negotiators were sufficiently prepared for this new procedure, and the “counterstrategy” of teacher unions succeeded in turning the intended individual raises into compensation which were less dependent on individual performance or effort. In time for the

⁴⁵ The first year of local salary negotiations is evaluated in Andreassen and Seip (2001).

second year around, however, central and municipal negotiators had received special training, and the employers' negotiation strategies ensured a higher degree of individually differentiated salary rises.

219. The teacher unions are not in principle against salary rises based on individual criteria. However, they uphold a principle of equality in teacher salaries, stressing that the criteria for rewarding effort and performance must be discussed and established. For example, teacher unions are opposed to the idea of giving special groups of teachers (e.g. maths teachers in times of shortage) special benefits. Nevertheless, it seems to be of great importance and interest to examine and evaluate experiences from the local (municipal) negotiations, in particular with respect to what criteria are most frequently applied in individual wage rise negotiations.

5.2 Selection and allocation of teachers

220. What positions are available and what qualifications are needed will at any time be locally decided on the basis of qualification requirements and regulations governing school and class size⁴⁶.

221. Teachers apply for jobs at any level, they are not assigned to posts. Teaching posts must be publicly advertised, though this is not required in the case of vacancies shorter than six months, or when the employer offers the post to a current or former employee to avoid termination of appointment in a situation of surplus staffing.

222. In upper secondary education, applications are normally addressed to the local school management, which also handles the appointment. Compulsory school applications are, however, normally addressed to the municipality and handled according to local regulations and instructions. However, the coordinating body for municipalities (The Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities - NALRA) reports that there is a trend towards increased emphasis on job interviews to make sure that the right person is selected to the position.

Employment of teachers – regulations and practice

223. The qualifications required to teach at different levels of the educational system are regulated by the Education Act, and further through the regulations issued by MER under the Act (see section 4). As regards the process of appointing teachers, the Education Act gives the following instructions:⁴⁷

Advertising of posts

224. Teaching posts and head teacher posts shall be publicly advertised. The requirement regarding such advertising does not apply to posts for a period shorter than six months, or when the employer intends to offer the post to a current or former employee pursuant to section 60 of the Working Environment Act, concerning protection against dismissal, and section 67 of the same Act, concerning preferential claims to employment.

⁴⁶ Regulations on class size are currently being revised, in order to allow more flexible ways of organizing groups of pupils, possibly leading to the maximum number of pupils per teacher being removed.

⁴⁷ Chapter 10, sections 10-4, 10-5, 10-5, 10-6.

Selection between two or more applicants

225. When choosing between two or more applicants to a post, emphasis shall be placed on education and experience, the teaching needs that the appointment aims to meet and the applicants' qualifications for the post.

Temporary appointments

226. In cases where no applicants satisfy the qualification requirements laid down in the Act, a temporary appointment may be made. Unless a shorter period of appointment is agreed upon, such appointments shall terminate by end of the school year, July 31st.

227. Many teachers in compulsory schools start their teaching career with temporary appointments, either as substitute teachers filling up vacancies or on one-year contracts⁴⁸.

The use of school assistants

228. In effect, however, the number of staff members employed in a teaching position is not necessarily identical with the number of staff members actually performing teaching tasks. Teacher unions note that there is an increase in the employment and use of school assistants⁴⁹. Some actors consider this to be a possibly increasing trend, as school managements now have full budget responsibility for their school, and since the employment of a school assistant means lower salary expenses than the employment of a teacher. This may represent a problem to the extent that school assistants are put to work for which they are not qualified. Teacher unions consider this to be of relevance for local recruitment as well, since schools that can offer applicants a relatively high number of qualified colleagues will have a competitive advantage.

Conditions of employment

229. When permanently appointed, teachers are entitled to state pensions and also enjoy the possibility of a flexible retirement arrangement from the age of sixty-two.

230. In a surplus situation where teachers with tenure are hit, these have the right of reappointment or transfer to comparable vacant posts in other schools within the same region. Teachers employed before 1989 have retained the status of government officials and thus are not subject to dismissal. In a surplus situation these teachers have a state payment guarantee. Teachers permanently appointed after 1989 lost the government official status, and are now regulated by local contracts in accordance with the Work Environment Act, ensuring three months' notice on either side. In the case of teachers employed in one-year temporary positions, the contract requires one month's notice on either side.

⁴⁸ Teacher unions consider that the use of temporary appointments should imply that employers have duties as regards counselling and follow-up on the teachers temporarily appointed. They are concerned that the main effect of the practise of temporary appointing teachers will be a less committing employers' responsibility and thus reduced job security for teachers.

⁴⁹ No formal pedagogical or other professional education is required to be employed as school assistants, though some courses are available through actors in the education market.

231. In cases of downsizing and surplus, which have been fairly common at the upper secondary school level due to the merger of schools, staff reductions should be carried out in accordance with the principle of seniority. Younger teachers are more often appointed to temporary positions, and their protection against subsequent lay-off is lower compared to their older colleagues. Thus it is more difficult for younger teachers to build stable local work relations, and this in turn may restrict the possibility of attracting younger teachers.

5.3 Some challenges

232. The recent delegation of negotiating powers to the school owners is subject to strong controversy and debate. Differences in informal competitive advantage and the ranking of regions and individual schools may often be, more or less explicitly, at work when teachers decide what positions to apply for. The perceived level of academic motivation among pupils in a particular school is already among relevant criteria for some teachers, especially in larger cities or regions where such differences between schools are regarded as considerable. Formalizing factors of attractiveness in terms of salary initiatives or other forms of benefits may prove to be a means by which school owners are able to secure the recruitment of teachers to schools of “bad reputation”. However, regional or local salary differentiations may also be a consequence of the state of the municipal economy and the ability or readiness of the municipality to give priority to the school sector.

233. A concern frequently expressed by teacher unions is that teaching salaries may come to vary according to the economic situation of the school owner, subsequently leading to salary differences between regions and schools with probable negative effects on recruitment for municipalities whose financial resources are weak. When the State some fifty years ago took over the employer’s responsibility in negotiating teachers’ salary agreements, it was partly as a means of counteracting the tendency towards substantial differences in teacher salaries among municipalities; in some places, neighbouring schools belong to different municipalities.

234. Decentralization of decision-making has been a general trend in Norwegian education since the late 80s. Decisions formerly taken at the state level or by local authorities are now taken at the school level, and administered by school principals. The financial and personnel-administrative tasks of the school principal have expanded correspondingly. Municipalities are developing different ways of exercising their authority and organizing the management of schools. However, the main trend is that the former "Municipal school office", has been removed, and the school principal now answers directly to the deputy manager of the municipality. This implies that the principal is a “unit manager” with full budget responsibilities. In some municipalities, principals decide what resources to spend on teachers’ salaries rather than alternative purposes, while in other municipalities, staff decisions are made at the municipal level.

235. Questions have been asked about coordination and flexibility at the local or regional level regarding recruitment strategies, and about the quality of systems of competence upgrading and pedagogic leadership as the meso-administrative level dwindles. Are principals fit for the new tasks? Will basic values of equity and common access to high quality basic education be upheld?

236. As the employers’ responsibility has been decentralized, both teacher unions and the coordinating body of municipalities (The Norwegian Association of Local and Regional

Authorities - NALRA) express the need for the municipalities to develop sustainable and effective employment policy strategies towards schools, school managements and teachers. Among the issues focussed on by NALRA are the principal as an employer; municipal management programmes including principals; networks on efficiency improvement; training for job interview techniques, and so forth. NALRA has also initiated several projects with a view to increasing awareness, competence and involvement in school quality development among politicians and administrators at the municipal level.

SECTION 6: RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS IN SCHOOL.

6.1 Measures of effective teaching.

237. Questions regarding the quality of schools and measures to retain effective teachers are basically the responsibility of municipal or county authorities within the framework of existing regulations.

238. No specific measures are taken to identify ineffective teachers, apart from the sections of specific agreements regulating employment. These agreements are subject to the Work Environment Act. This states that the employer, i.e. the local principal, is responsible for finding measures to include staff who temporarily or permanently have problems in coping with the requirements of the job. Union representatives have a right to discuss measures planned and taken.

239. Measures concerning evaluation at the staff and school level are given in the Act (§14) establishing systems of inspection and control. The regulation linked to this paragraph explains: "The school and the apprenticeship workplace shall regularly evaluate to what extent the organization and work processes contribute to the attainment of the goals given in the general curriculum and the subject syllabus. The municipal and county levels have the responsibility of ensuring that evaluations are carried out according to the regulations." The municipal and county levels must also contribute to the establishment of administrative systems and the collection of statistical and other information needed to evaluate the state of affairs and development of education in their areas.

240. In effect, basic statistical material is provided on a local basis. The criteria are determined by the local authority, and annual strategic plans and plans of competence upgrading are worked out at the school level.

241. There are no national systems of quality control and evaluation apart from nationally set final examinations in the most important subjects at lower and upper secondary school level. In most subjects, examinations are locally organized. Grades from final examinations in the most important subjects in compulsory school have recently been made public on the Net on a school basis. These measures do not necessarily, however, reflect teacher effectiveness, but just as much the socio-economic background of pupils, the stability or instability of local communities, etc.

6.2 Teacher absence and retirement

242. Absence from work among teachers is not higher than average in the service and public sectors (Grimsmo 2001)⁵⁰ However, less than 10% of teachers stay at work until the ordinary retirement age of 67 (Lærerforbundet 1999). The proportion of early retirement is significantly higher within the educational system than in the public sector in general. 36% of those who retire early use the opportunity given in the early retirement scheme to leave at the age of 62. A larger proportion of those teachers who retire early, 57%, now receive disability

⁵⁰ In this report, comparing the work environment of teachers to that of a representative selection of Norwegian employees in different sectors, shows that 16% of Norwegian employees report to have been on one or more sick leave of 14 days or longer, while the figures for teachers were 19 % among teachers in primary and lower secondary school and 12 % among those teaching in upper secondary school.

pensions, for medical reasons; the number doubled between 1989 and 1993, and a new doubling occurred between 1997 and 1999.

243. Between ages 45 and 55 twice as many women as men leave teaching for disability reasons. This corresponds to a general trend at work, and to some extent reflects the fact that there is a female majority among teachers, at 60%. It may, however, also be the case that the work of teaching and ways of relating to pupils are subject to gender variations, and that different forms of "emotional work", "caring standby" and "keeping emotional distance" are used by male v. female teachers (Messel Amundsen 2001).

244. A few research projects (upper secondary school, Blichfeldt 2002)) have looked into the reasons for early retirement, asking teachers who have left early, not only those transferring to pension systems, why they left. Indications are that about half the leavers attributed their leaving to working conditions in general being worse, half of these (and those under 55) finding more interesting or better paid work elsewhere, the other half availing themselves of the opportunity of early retirement, or being retired for medical reasons. In upper secondary school, teachers in general subjects seem more concerned about school reforms and intensification of work than vocational teachers.

245. Measures to retain effective teachers probably have to be looked for in the interrelationship between individual, organizational and system levels. This means that measures taken at the state level, by local authorities or at school levels are expected to be reflected at the individual level.

246. At the individual level the question might be linked to motivation, abilities of coping and professional mastery. At the organizational level the question might be linked to matters of work-environment, systems of promotion and upgrading at a local level. At the systemic level there is a question of inter-relatedness and feed-back systems, and also of policy measures, prescriptions and resources distributed as a general framework.

247. The average age of school teachers is approaching 50 years for compulsory as well as secondary education. A fair proportion have been working as teachers for some 30 years. During these years they have experienced several "school reforms," new curricula, prescriptions and working agreements. The most radical changes have come during the last ten years, the speed of reorganizations seemingly accelerating.

248. Evaluations tend to indicate that most teachers at all levels accept and identify with the basic values espoused in the education system. Evaluations also indicate what might be called a certain reform weariness among teachers, especially at the upper secondary level. Indications further are that while there has been continuous development, renewal of teaching strategies, and changes in the way work is organized at the compulsory school level, upper secondary school teaching, especially in the general subject area, has remained fairly stable.

249. Circumstances that might have contributed to reform weariness in upper secondary education might be a) a large number of schools merging during the last decades, b) a fairly high-speed implementation of the upper secondary reform leaving sparse room for local adaptations, c) a wider range of pupils entering schools at a lower average age, d) more weight being given to general courses at the vocational level, and e) an apparent mismatch between established organizational and teaching styles, and new challenges. To some extent one might identify different "working cultures" at different levels.

250. General indications are that the reasons for early teacher retirement and how to retain teachers are complex matters, to some extent varying between schools and types of schools, and the questions that arise should be seen in the perspectives of context and process. Findings so far are inconclusive and call for more comprehensive studies, combining quantitative and qualitative sets of data.

6.3. The use of local autonomy

251. The differences between compulsory school level and upper secondary school level "cultures" became evident as the MER announced the possibility of testing different models of working hour systems. Working – hour system indicates different models for organizing the school day and school week. All the models to be tested implied variations of “office – hours”, i.e. total amount of presence at school, what proportions to use flexibly for preparation work, collective planning, for team – teaching or individual syllabus teaching in classroom. Schools at all levels were invited to participate. 346 compulsory schools took part (10.5% of all schools), whereas only 28 upper secondary schools (3.7% of all) participated.

252. Different models of working hour systems have been evaluated. The evaluation indicates that the five different models overlap, and that several compulsory schools participating used the opportunity to formalise organizational changes already having taken place or being developed.

253. The evaluation report models tendencies regarding working hour organization on the dimensions of the individual as opposed to collective roles of the teacher, and the specialized as opposed to general models of teaching (Bungum, Dahl, Gullikstad, Molden and Rasmussen 2003).

254. The evaluation of the testing of five different models of a working hours system to a certain extent points to the positive effects of flexible working hours and a framework for local teacher autonomy.

255. A development project sponsored by the National Board of Education has looked into ways of retaining teachers beyond age 62 (Blichfeldt 2002). The results to some degree support the findings of the working hour experiment. The findings indicated that flexible organisation, teamwork and collaborative work enhance professional development and increase the ability to cope. Professional development is then defined in terms of opportunities to reflect on your own experiences, to have them shared with colleagues, and in due time to act upon them. The findings indicate that professional development triggered by a flexible and coherent school organization requires clear and coordinated leadership at the school level. Also these experiences point to the positive effects of a framework for local autonomy.

256. A high degree of involvement seems rather to make work more interesting and engaging, provided the teachers have the qualifications required, and provided they enjoy local autonomy, get feedback from local and central authorities, and experience confidence in handling this autonomy.

6.4 Trends in the development of quality in education.

257. Measures of quality control and development in schools have been delegated to

municipal authorities. These authorities have the costs of local plans of municipal quality development met by the national authorities, in accordance with the government's plan for strategies in quality development in compulsory education.

258. A study indicated, however, that quality development in school was not given high priority at the municipal level. General goal formulations on "quality in school" were stated in half the municipalities, covering a wide range of differences. Some 80% of the municipalities, at the administrative level, stated the need for assistance with the work on quality development in schools. The reported need for assistance varied according to region and size of municipality. The greatest obstacles for carrying out quality development in schools were reported to be a lack of capacity in individual schools and municipal administrations, and the national agreements regulating the school sector (Madsen 2000).

259. The measures concerning "quality in basic education" (see Section 2) on the national level is relevant to the responsibility on the municipal level.

Future challenges

- How, if possible, to reconcile measures of local autonomy regarding teaching methods and school organization with national (and international) standardization of output assessments and the inherent danger of encouraging "teaching to pass tests?"
- How to reconcile the value of equal opportunities and an inclusive school with systems of differentiation regarding working hours, wages and achievement bonuses?

Different stakeholders seem to have different opinions regarding these matters.

258. As changes in school structures, regulations and measures seem to take place at an accelerating rate, a basic question is raised: how to keep the stakeholders, principals and teachers, local administrations and politicians, pupils and parents, updated on relevant changes? How can teachers be trained to cope with the changes and new expectations? To what extent do the speed of change and the goals of quality development in themselves undermine the stability and development of teachers, and thus the development of quality in school?

SECTION 7: CONCLUDING COMMENTS

260. In this section we will present the views of stakeholders and comment on issues that are relevant for future studies and investigations, in relation to all the three main topics of this report: recruiting, developing and retaining effective teachers. This is not meant to be an “authoritative statement of the facts”, rather an identification of issues of which further examination and discussion would be fruitful.

7.1 Comments related to the decentralisation of responsibility

261. Various school issues of current interest seem to be related to the ongoing process of decentralisation of tasks and responsibilities. On the one hand, there seems to be a widespread notion that this process facilitates the elaboration and development of strategies and initiatives based on and adapted to local needs and conditions. It may also stimulate and increase the level of local creativity and commitment, as well as promote cost-effective solutions. On the other hand, several actors from various parts of the school system and with different roles within it identify possible pitfalls and challenges in the wake of this process.

262. A main concern, applying equally to issues related to the recruitment, development and retention of teachers, is that generally poor finances at the municipal level will result in a deficient, and possibly deteriorating, level of teacher policy initiatives. Another worry expressed is that the decentralisation of decision-making and of the allocation of funding to schools will lead to inequalities among regions and individual schools. As these issues are frequently the subject of public and political debate, there may be reasons for examining such processes and outcomes more closely. One possible strategy would also be to identify factors and reasons in cases where municipalities actually give priority to professional development initiatives, improving levels of salary and working conditions etc⁵¹.

263. In times of delegation of responsibility, teacher unions and school administrators at different levels express concern regarding what might be called a “draining of school-based competence” at the local school management and local authority level. This is described as a twofold challenge: One was raised through the discussions and hearings related to a proposed change in the requirements for appointment to school management positions to open for the employment of school leaders without pedagogical education or experience. The proposal was withdrawn, but participants in the hearing pointed out that such a change would accentuate the need for ensuring that the school management team also includes at least one person with the education and experience necessary to function as staff consultant in pedagogical and

⁵¹ One National Education Office (county level) consulted in connection with this Country Background Report initiated its own survey among the 24 municipalities in the county (22 responded). Two questions asked were “How can able people be attracted to teacher training programmes and teaching jobs?” and “What initiatives are most important in order to retain able teachers in school?”. The 7 alternative proposals listed in the survey were the same for both questions: 1) Higher salaries, 2) Improved working conditions, 3) Availability of housing, kindergarten places etc, 4) Positive discussion of the teaching profession in the media, 5) A sabbatical year, 6) Professional development, 7) Other factors. The respondents were asked to rank the alternatives on a scale from 1-7. The initiatives most often given highest priority (1, 2 or 3) were counted, with the following results: To the question of attracting able people, the initiatives regarded as most important were higher salaries and professional development (equally important), followed by improved working conditions. Positive publicity came a close fourth. The answers to the question on factors relevant for retaining teachers did not differ substantially: Higher salaries and professional development were again equal first, while improved working conditions and a sabbatical year came equal third.

teaching matters. Furthermore, some was concerned that this might have lead to situations where school managements lack the competence necessary to run a school, taking into account the distinctive character of schools and their kind of “production” and activities. The fear was expressed that school leaders might give priority to aims and measures other than the quality of pupil learning and staff development.

264. Secondly, following the widespread closure of school offices at the municipal level, there is no requirement that the municipal officials responsible for school-related matters have school-related experience or education. Concern has therefore been expressed that school leaders will lack school-competent consultants to turn to at the municipal / school owner level. Some people are also worried that schools will not have dedicated “spokesmen” in the municipal decision-making processes where financial resources are distributed, and where schools compete with other worthy causes on the costs side of municipal budgets. From the outside, both these issues can be seen as related to the broader discussion of the professional background and approach expected of municipal officials responsible for local school matters.

265. Some call for an open discussion of this issue, with a view to establishing what kind of professional competence is required for school management, at municipal and school level, if those responsible are to be able to counsel, support and control the quality of teachers and teaching. There is a reciprocal aspect to this; if subordinates have not sufficient confidence in and respect for the pedagogical-professional competence of their leaders, the ability of the leaders to influence their staff’s practice is correspondingly reduced.⁵²

7.2 Comments related to teacher competence

The “generalist” v. “specialist” teacher

266. Norwegian primary and lower secondary education has been and still is adapted to the scattered demographic pattern of the country, and so we have a large number of small schools. That there are many schools with only a few pupils at each age level - or even with pupils at only some age levels - has influenced the requirements to be met in determining the combination and profile of teacher competence. The general teacher had to possess a solid basic and broad competence, but not necessarily a high degree of specialized, in-depth subject competence (Lagerstrøm 2000).

267. As a consequence, the profile and requirements of Norwegian teacher competence are more general than in other OECD countries, where teachers may be subject specialists even at low levels of primary school. Several stakeholders in various parts of the educational system consider that the generalist teacher is currently under pressure, both through changes in GTE (see section 4) and through demands for a higher degree of in-depth and specialized subject competence also among teachers at lower levels. There are several issues related to this possible shift in the profile of Norwegian teacher competence, and the matter is being debated. Representatives from one of the teacher unions interviewed consider that one important aspect of the “generalist” teacher is that he or she may teach a range of subjects to the same class or group of pupils at the lower levels of primary school, and thus be able to spend more time getting to know the pupils and work with social aspects of the class environment.

⁵² Here quoting Professor of school management Jorunn Møller (Department of teacher education and school development, University of Oslo), speaking at a seminar regarding the teacher’s role, held 12.02.03 for a working group in the Ministry of Education and Research concerned with issues related to the teacher’s role.

In-school processes of developing teacher competence and gaining qualifications

268. Some actors note that there is little tradition in schools for such internal processes of qualification. Projects building on colleague-based counselling and co-reflection are nevertheless reported to have been successful in this area.⁵³

Identifying additional forms of teacher competence

269. The Norwegian principle and practice of unity and equality in school mean that many different pupils are taught in one group⁵⁴. Several stakeholders point out that this situation calls for teachers with broad repertoires of teaching strategies, and for staffrooms containing various types of teachers. The scarcity of male teachers and teachers of language and ethnic minority background is mentioned, particularly in view of the pupils' need for a broad set of teacher models to identify with. Initiatives to increase the number of e.g. minority language teachers in schools with a large number of minority students are reported to have had positive effects⁵⁵. However, other socio-cultural differences among pupils are not so often recognized as are gender and ethnic / language background. Different teacher strategies and broad cultural awareness are needed to teach, motivate and gain respect from different types of pupils, all using their distinctive repertoires of pupil roles (Lyng 2002, 2003). Meeting the educational requirement of offering pupils individually adapted teaching thus demands new strategies both for recruiting students from various socio-cultural backgrounds to the teaching profession, and organizing in-service professional development in teaching strategies for different types of pupils.

270. Representatives of one of the teacher unions interviewed express concern that the latest change in GTE may intensify the social bias in the recruitment of students, as subjects regarded as typically "academic" are the only compulsory subjects in the new curriculum.

271. Representatives of one of the teacher unions interviewed also call for special training provisions for former teachers returning to the teaching profession after a period of absence. According to them, such a course should, for example, include information on new reforms and other changes, new teaching methods and learning strategies, updating in teaching subjects and some kind of practise counselling. They refer to the fact that some municipalities have arranged similar types of courses for nurses.

7.3 Comments related to changes in the teacher's role

272. Changes resulting from general changes in society as well as specific reforms in education and other public sectors are seen as having initiated various processes that have changed the teacher's role.

New tasks

273. Expressions like "from lecturer to counsellor", "from classroom teacher to paper administrator, social worker, psychologist, or nurse" reflect perceptions of the changing

⁵³ E.g. the project "Classroom 2002" arranged by the school office of Skien municipality

⁵⁴ Norway also has a high degree of integration of pupils with special needs. As few as 0,5 % of Norwegian pupils at primary and lower secondary level attend special schools, compared to e.g. 3,7% in Finland and 1,3% in Sweden (Source: Eurydice report: "Key Data on Education in Europe 2001/2002").

⁵⁵ E.g. the Tøyen inner city school of Oslo.

teacher role and its demands.⁵⁶ A recent study concludes that many teachers lack the competence required to practise pupil-active teaching methods like project work, emphasized by the new curricular plan of Reform 97 (Rønning 2002). Moreover, Reform 94 in upper secondary education, as well as combining a number of academic and vocationally-oriented schools under one roof, meant that many teachers, trained in academic disciplines, experienced a rather sudden change in the groups of pupils they faced, as they had to teach vocational pupils, traditionally less motivated for typically “academic” subjects. At the same time, some vocational teachers found their subjects “theoreticized” and were less able to use their professional and subject experience as a basis for teaching.

274. It might be of value to examine how widespread such experiences and perceptions are, and identify and develop sustainable solutions and strategies to deal with them, as well as securing the balance between the various demands and tasks of the teacher role.

Teaching to pass tests?

275. After mediocre results in the last PISA test of pupils’ academic achievements (OECD 2001), Danish school managers are encouraging schools to train their pupils in test situations similar to the ones used in the 2003 PISA test. The aim is to improve the Danish ranking in such tests. Similar forms of pupil training are known from Sweden and Britain, the British aim being to prepare pupils for OFSTED inspections. Recently, the leader of the largest teacher union in Norway stated that they will consider asking schools to prepare and train students for the tests used by the authorities to rank schools.⁵⁷

276. These proposals may be seen as reactions to the purpose and implementation of such tests, which are felt to be imposed upon teachers and to which teacher unions are opposed, for pedagogical as well as ideological reasons. However there might be at least two reasons for watching developments in this area. First, a “teaching to pass tests” practice was surely the intention neither of such tests, nor of the recently implemented practice of making public the marks of pupils in all Norwegian schools in order to compare schools. Secondly, if the perception of an ongoing change in the teacher’s role from “teaching to learn” to “teaching to pass tests” is spreading, this might also be of consequence for both the recruitment and the retention of teachers.

7.4 Comments on aspects of everyday teaching

277. Teachers and teacher union representatives often point to the lack of time, resources and equipment required to do a good job. Here are some topics related to the everyday work of teachers that might be of relevance for further reflection, examination and research.

Relations to pupils

278. Norwegian teachers don’t often report severe discipline problems. Although Norwegian pupils report high scores on indicators like well-being, there are reports of a generally high level of “disturbance” in Norwegian classrooms, compared to most OECD countries (OECD 2001). Other reports may indeed indicate an increased level of pupil violence as well as the sexist harassment of female pupils and teachers. There has recently been intensified focus on bullying in school, and anti-bully programmes are available. Local

⁵⁶ A documentary film from 2002 portraying the work day and tasks of a Norwegian teacher in lower secondary school is available.

⁵⁷ Source: Press release from the teacher union ”Utdanningsforbundet”, 26.02.03.

projects dealing with pupil harassment and violence against teachers are also found, e.g. to prevent teacher sick leave and burn-out among teachers.

279. Several actors point to the benefits of employing professionals with the competence required to deal with particularly difficult episodes on the spot. The MER has proposed granting funds to pilot projects on bringing other professions into schools (St.meld 12 (1999-2000)), and Parliament has approved the plan to open schools to other professions, with the proviso that such a process must not lead to a general “clientization” of pupils (Innst.S.no 120 (1999-2000:13)). However, the use of other professions in schools is not yet a widespread or systematic practice (with the exception of teachers’ assistants, who are widely used).

280. There may also be reasons for looking more closely at everyday “difficult encounters” between teachers and pupils that are neither spectacular nor violent, but nevertheless may be a factor in work strain and feelings of exhaustion among teachers. It might be fruitful to analyse the extent and features of such teacher experiences, which often tend to be “privatised” in the sense that they are often thought to be matters of personal inadequacy and neither discussed nor dealt with systematically in the open.⁵⁸

The importance of being appreciated

281. As in any other professions, the sense of being appreciated is a crucial motivational factor. Teachers talk about the importance of being appreciated in connection with several factors ranging from salaries, school buildings, not having to spend private money on teaching equipment, being granted the trust and flexibility to try out various teaching methods, setting up sustainable in-school solutions of professional support, establishing colleague-based guidance schemes, to providing sufficient time and resources to develop professionally etc. In public and political debates the issue is often raised as to whether teachers really are worse off than others or if “this is just another example of teacher whining”. Such a question may be a complex one to examine. However, when such factors as those mentioned above mean that conditions are perceived as substantially poorer in schools than in other work places, they become everyday “explanations-in-use”⁵⁹ in staff rooms as well as in the media, and thus reasons for leaving the teaching profession.

282. In the study of Nordic teachers this is pointed out as an important challenge to retain teachers in school:

“The volume and extension of teachers job together with weak regulations, ‘you are never satisfied’, your work never stop’, make teaching a demanding profession. Extension of obligations, inside classrooms and outside classrooms together with a lack of public recognition makes teaching hard as a life long career. The gap between funding required and funding provided drain their energy. Many of the young teachers in our material state that they like their job, they find it meaningful and interesting, but it is too hard in the long run. Lack of public recognition in combination with a lot of pressure make teaching as a profession unbearable in a life span. The following utterance from one of the younger informants might illustrate:

I feel, yes, not only do I feel, I know, that a lot of my colleagues feel an enormously pressure on them. They perceive a lot of tasks and pressure and get exhausted and burned out. What makes them exhausted, whether it is the workload or working pressure or the lack of rewards and public recognition as well as lack of professional development, I do not know. I think the combination however makes a lot of us frustrated (...) and increase in workload and demands, pressure on pacing together with small resources and lack of public recognition and support... It is extremely hard to be a teacher today”

⁵⁸ e.g. Hoel 2002, Lyng 2002, 2003

⁵⁹ This expression is borrowed from Willis (1977)

(Klette 2002:90, from interviews with Norwegian teachers).

Teacher team work

283. There is a development in the direction of organizing teachers' planning and teaching in teams, rather than leaving individual teachers to "operate on their own behind closed classroom doors". Cooperation across teams, subjects and classrooms is common in Norwegian schools today (Klette 2003:92). Many teachers applaud this development, perceiving it as motivating, and making the teacher profession a less lonely one as well as professionally more fruitful, in terms of generating and exchanging ideas and also leading to informal methods for mutual control of teaching quality (e.g. Åsgren 2003). Team spirit and solidarity between the teachers seem to have protective functions in forestalling work burn out and lack of commitment (Klette 2003:89). Teachers also point to the importance of being able to work with colleagues who "pull in the same direction", otherwise team work might be a draining activity. In some schools, the break up of established subject units is perceived as a loss for teachers, and opportunities for subject-based planning, cooperation and development are felt to be reduced. Perhaps a challenge might be to find ways of preserving fruitful communities based on common interests, identification and dedication to subject, also in times of interdisciplinary teamwork (e.g. Lyng and Åsgren 2003).

School management

284. The significance of school management for the recruitment, development and retention of teachers should not be underestimated. The school leader has an important role when it comes to the general conditions of work as well as staff motivation. In developing sustainable working conditions as well as strategies for school management and quality measures, some commentators state the view that the motivation of teachers, as of pupils, is not only a matter of "inner" or fixed "input / output" factors, but rather something created and developed in a relational context.⁶⁰

⁶⁰ Once again quoting professor Jorunn Møller.

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APPENDIX:

GUIDELINES FOR THE COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORTS

(Extracts from Design and Implementation Plan for the Activity from the project “Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers”, OECD - Directorate for Education, Employment, Labour and Social Affairs - Education and Training Division, 24 March 2002)

Questions to Guide the Report

1. The questions listed below are intended to draw-out a problem-oriented and dynamic view of teacher policy issues from each country. The grouping of the questions is intended to provide a common structure for each CBR. The questions are not prescriptive. They are intended to draw out coherent analyses and discussions on the key policy issues.

2. Due to differing contexts and circumstances some questions may be seen to be more or less relevant, or be perceived in different ways, from country to country. Such nuances and differences in emphasis will be one of the main interests, but the Activity needs to be based on a common list of questions to which all participating countries respond. However, it is recognised that countries may wish to combine, rephrase or expand certain questions in the light of national circumstances. The key requirement is that the issues underlying the questions are addressed in each CBR.

Section 1: National context

The purpose of this section is to outline broad political, demographic, economic, social, and cultural developments that shape the challenges facing the school system and the teaching profession. It is intended to provide the context for the more detailed discussion in later sections. This section will also be important for assisting readers from outside your country and facilitating comparative analysis. Therefore, the material should be brief and clearly explained. Several questions raise issues about which there is not likely to be clear evidence or where views may differ among key stakeholders. In these cases the section should indicate the matters on which evidence is lacking and/or the range of views held by stakeholders.

- Describe the key political developments and priorities that affect schools and teachers. What are the main objectives and purposes the government is trying to achieve in schools?
- What are the broad population trends in terms of numbers, age structure and cultural diversity that have implications for schools and teachers?
- Present the main economic and labour market trends that have implications for schools and teachers.
- Summarise the main trends in terms of availability of public and private resources for schooling.
- What are the broad public perceptions about the role of schools, the quality of schooling, and the status of teachers?

Section 2: The school system and teaching workforce

The purpose of this section is to outline the main features of the school system and the teaching workforce as they relate to the policy focus of the Activity. This section will provide much of the detail that is to be cross-referenced in Sections 3-6.

- Outline the main structural features of the school system – the types and numbers of schools, their governance structure (the levels of government involved, and the extent of public or private

provision), and the distribution of student numbers by level of school (primary and secondary), type of programme (e.g. general and vocational secondary education) and sector (public and private) drawing special attention to major recent or proposed changes.

- In the public school system what is the division of responsibilities between the various levels of government, individual schools, and teachers in terms of financing, curriculum development, employment of teachers, selection of teachers by schools, teacher evaluation, teacher promotion, teacher dismissal or redundancy, and school accountability? Have there been any recent major changes in these respects, or are major changes planned, and what are the reasons concerned?
- How does the private school sector differ in any of these regards?
- How many teachers are employed by school level, type and sector, and what have been the major trends in teacher numbers over the past 10 years?
- What are the major trends over the past 10 years in the types of personnel other than teachers working in schools?
- What indicators are used to identify shortages of teachers in schools? What types of teachers appear to be in greatest shortage, or for whom shortages are projected?
- What organisations are involved in the development of teacher policies? Are there effective frameworks to promote dialogue and common action among the main stakeholders? How many teacher unions exist and how are they structured? What is the level of unionisation of teachers by school type and sector? What were the key issues at stake during the latest round of teacher employer – teacher union negotiations? What were the outcomes of those negotiations?

General Guidelines for Sections 3-6

The next sections are intended to identify the main issues facing your country in regard to attracting able people into teaching (Section 3), educating, developing and certifying teachers (Section 4), recruiting, selecting and assigning teachers (Section 5), and retaining effective teachers in schools (Section 6), and the policy responses that are being implemented or considered. Information on recent trends and developments is sought to assist readers from outside your country and to facilitate comparative analysis. Each section should also summarise any available evidence on the main causal factors in the area concerned, and the impact of any policy initiatives. It would also be helpful to identify significant gaps in the knowledge base concerning these issues of teacher policy.

Several questions in each Section seek opinions or judgements about matters on which there is not likely to be clear evidence or where views may differ among key stakeholders. In these cases it is important that the report indicates the range of views or opinions held by stakeholders and the main issues which are contested.

The questions in each Section are intended as prompts to draw out the main issues for your country. The report should concentrate on the questions that are most relevant to your country or which address issues of high priority. The page lengths for the sub-sections are indicative only. It is suggested, however, that the total length of each Section does not exceed about 10 pages.

Section 3: Attracting able people into the teaching profession

3.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

- Are there major concerns about attracting people to enter the teaching profession? In what respects?

3.2 Data, trends and factors

- What are the main pathways by which people can become teachers or former teachers can return to teaching? Are there any major trends in terms of the proportions of people entering via different pathways? Have there been any major changes in these pathways in recent years, or are any planned? If so, what are the reasons concerned?
- How have the total number of enrolments and composition of those studying to enter teaching changed over the past 10 years in terms of (i) gender, (ii) age, (iii) ethnicity; (iv) socio-economic background; and (v) academic achievement level? What explains those trends? Is there any evidence on the main reasons why students decide to enrol in teacher education programmes?
- What proportion of those who qualify as teachers enter teaching? Is there any evidence on the reasons for not entering teaching? Are there any major trends in these regards? Is there any evidence on whether new entrants see teaching as a life-long career or as a short term one and the reasons for those views?
- How do the starting salaries, other financial and non-financial benefits, and working conditions of teachers compare with other government and non-government occupations with broadly similar qualification levels? How do the salaries, benefits and working conditions compare after 5 and 10 years of employment? What are the major trends in such relativities over the past 10 years? Is there any evidence on the impact of salaries, benefits and working conditions on decisions to enter teaching?
- Is there any evidence on the numbers and types of former teachers who return to teaching, the age at which they typically return, and the factors in their decision to return?

3.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

- What initiatives have been undertaken or are planned to improve the attractiveness of teaching to potential new entrants and/or former teachers? For those policies that have been implemented what is the evidence on their impact and cost? Where the impact has been either more or less marked than expected, what reasons are apparent?
- Does your country seek to attract teachers from other countries? If so, what specific policies and steps have been taken or are planned? What is the extent of such recruitment and what implications does it have for the teaching profession?
- What issues are the highest priority for future policy development in attracting able people into the teaching profession? What are some policy options that could be considered? What are the likely views of key stakeholder groups on these priority issues and possible policy options?

Section 4: Educating, developing and certifying teachers (*about 10 pages*)

4.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

- Are there major concerns about teacher education, development or certification? In what respects?

4.2 Data, trends and factors

- What are the major requirements to qualify for employment as a teacher? Have any major changes been recently initiated in this regard or are any planned? What are the reasons involved? How does the private school system differ in this regard?
- Outline the structure of initial teacher education – the types of institutions, financing, entry requirements, length of courses, extent of in-school experience, graduating requirements, and the roles of teacher employers and teacher unions or professional associations in shaping course content or certification. Have any major changes been recently initiated in these regards or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?

- Are special education or training provisions made for established professionals from other occupations who would like to become teachers, or for former teachers who would like to re-enter teaching, or for existing teachers who would like to retrain in areas of shortage, or for teachers' assistants who would like to upgrade? What is the scale of such programmes and what is the evidence on their effectiveness?
- Is there any special support or induction programme for teachers in the early years of their careers? If so, how does it operate, and what is the evidence on its impact?
- What types of professional development options and programmes exist for teachers? Who decides what type of learning opportunities teachers need? How are such programmes monitored for effectiveness? Are there any formal links between professional development programmes and maintenance of certification to teach, salary rises, and career pathways? What evidence is available on the impact of such links on teacher performance?

4.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

- What initiatives have been undertaken or are planned to improve teacher education, professional development or certification procedures? For those policies that have been implemented what is the evidence on their impact and cost? Where the impact has been either more or less marked than expected, what reasons are apparent?
- What issues are the highest priority for future policy development in educating, developing and certifying teachers? What are some policy options that could be considered? What are the likely views of key stakeholder groups on these priority issues and possible policy options?

Section 5: Recruiting, selecting and assigning teachers (about 10 pages)

5.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

- Are there major concerns about teacher recruitment, selection and assignment? In what respects?

5.2 Data, trends and factors

- How are vacancies for teaching positions determined, applications invited, and successful candidates chosen? Is there a probationary period? Have any major changes been recently initiated in these regards or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- How do recently qualified teachers typically obtain their first teaching position?
- On what basis are teachers employed – fixed term contracts, tenure positions and so on? What provisions exist for changing the basis of employment e.g. from a fixed –term contract to tenure? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- Are teachers assigned to schools or do they apply? Does this vary depending upon the type of post and their career stage? How does the system ensure an equitable distribution of teachers among schools? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?

5.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

- Have any new policies been introduced in terms of requirements to enter teaching (e.g. changing or removing teacher education requirements, probationary licensing and so on)? If so, what have been their impact?
- What initiatives have been undertaken or are planned to improve teacher recruitment, selection or assignment procedures? For those policies that have been implemented what is the evidence on their impact and cost? Where the impact has been either more or less marked than expected, what reasons are apparent?

- What issues are the highest priority for future policy development in recruiting, selecting and assigning teachers? What are some policy options that could be considered? What are the likely views of key stakeholder groups on these priority issues and possible policy options?

Section 6: Retaining effective teachers in schools (*about 10 pages*)

6.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

- Are there major concerns about retaining effective teachers in schools? In what respects?

6.2 Data, trends and factors

- Summarise the data on the numbers of teachers who leave the profession each year – if possible by age, extent of teaching experience, gender, teaching area, reasons given, and destination. Do they leave more from certain types of schools or regions, or at certain points in their career, than others? Are there any major trends in these regards, and any evidence on the factors involved?
- What is the average number of absences that teachers have per year? Is absenteeism more of an issue for some types of teachers or schools than others? What are the major trends in regard to teacher absenteeism?
- What types of leave are available to teachers? What numbers are currently on the various forms of leave, and when can they be expected to return to teaching? Is there special provision for stress leave? What are the major trends and developments in regard to teacher leave? Is there any evidence on the factors involved?
- How frequently are teachers evaluated and decisions made about their employment renewal? What processes and criteria are involved? How are ineffective teachers identified? What happens to them? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- What opportunities exist for promotion and career diversification, and what proportion of teachers at different ages get promoted each year? Apart from promotion, what other means are used for recognising and rewarding teacher performance? What processes and criteria are involved in teacher promotion and recognition? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- How are teacher salary scales structured, and what determines movement from one salary increment or level to the next? Is there any form of performance-related teacher compensation? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- What are the current practices in regard to class size, teaching workloads, and the availability of other professionals and support staff in schools? How are these practices and resources determined? Have there been any changes in these respects, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?
- To what extent are school and personal safety and student discipline perceived as important factors affecting working conditions by teachers? What policy initiatives have been taken to improve school safety and minimise student discipline problems?
- What opportunities do teachers have for secondments or periods of leave to work in other areas of education or occupations outside teaching? Is there any evidence of the impact of such programmes on teachers' professional growth and retention?
- What is the usual retirement age for teachers? Have there been any changes in retirement provisions, or are any planned? What are the reasons involved?

6.3 Policy initiatives and their impact

- What initiatives have been undertaken or are planned to improve the retention of effective teachers? For those policies that have been implemented what is the evidence on their impact and cost? Where the impact has been either more or less marked than expected, what reasons are apparent?
- What issues are the highest priority for future policy development in retaining effective teachers in schools? What are some policy options that could be considered? What are the likely views of key stakeholder groups on these priority issues and possible policy options?