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Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers

Country Note:

Switzerland

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This report is based on a study visit to Switzerland in March 2003, and background documents prepared to support the visit. As a result, the report is based on the situation up to that period.

The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Swiss authorities, the OECD or its Member countries.

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1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purposes of the OECD Review

1. This Country Note for Switzerland forms part of the OECD activity *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*. This is a collaborative project to assist teacher policy development for improving teaching and learning in schools.

2. The activity was launched in April 2002. OECD Education Ministers have set out a challenging agenda for schools in responding to rapidly changing needs and providing the foundations for lifelong learning. The Ministers drew a clear connection between the challenges facing schools and the need to attract, develop and retain high-quality teachers and school principals.

3. The project's purposes, analytical framework and methodology are detailed in OECD (2002a).¹ The main objectives are:

- To synthesise research on issues related to policies concerned with attracting, recruiting, retaining and developing effective teachers;
- To identify innovative and successful policy initiatives and practices;
- To facilitate exchanges of lessons and experiences among countries; and
- To identify options for policymakers to consider.

4. The Activity is focused on primary and secondary schools. It encompasses vocational programmes that serve secondary students, and special education programmes that enrol students of school age. While the major focus is on teachers, the scope includes other staff working in schools, and the ways in which their roles interact with those of teachers.

5. The project involves two complementary approaches: an *Analytical Review* strand; and a *Thematic Country Review* strand. The Analytical Review strand is using several means -- country background reports, literature reviews, data analyses and commissioned papers -- to analyse the factors that shape attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers, and possible policy responses. All of the 25 countries are involved in this strand. In addition, 10 of the school systems chose to participate in a Thematic Country Review, which involves external review teams analysing the countries concerned.

6. Switzerland is one of the countries that opted to participate in the Thematic Country Reviews and hosted a review visit in March 2003. The reviewers comprised an OECD Secretariat member, and educational researchers and policy makers from France, Germany and the United States. The team is listed in Appendix 1. The thematic review provides a unique means to explore in greater depth issues situated

1. Reports and updates are available from www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy

within the context of the participating country, engage a wide range of stakeholders and allow for a review team to look at those issues from a certain distance. The review team saw its work as gathering information, forming impressions, raising questions and offering reactions and ideas as part of a wider national discussion – complementary to the rich policy dialogue underway and, in some measure, contributing to that dialogue.

1.2 The Participation of Switzerland

7. Switzerland's involvement in the OECD activity is organised by the Swiss Co-ordination Centre for Research in Education under the management of the National Co-ordinators, Mr Stefan Wolter and Mr Stefan Denzler, and a National Advisory Committee co-ordinated by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP). The membership of the National Advisory Committee is detailed in Appendix 2. The participation of Switzerland in the activity is also supported by the Federal Office of Education and Science.

8. An important part of Switzerland's involvement was the preparation of a comprehensive and informative *Country Background Report (CBR)*² on teacher policy. This was prepared by Karin Müller Kucera from the *Service de la Recherche en éducation du canton de Genève* (SRED, Geneva) and Martin Stauffer from the EDK/CDIP.

9. The review team is very grateful to the authors of the CBR, and to all those who assisted them for providing an informative, analytical and policy-oriented document. The CBR covered themes such as the background and content of the education reform policy, the nature of the school system, characteristics of the teaching workforce, aspects of the recruitment and retention of teachers, modes of teacher certification and employment, patterns of initial teacher education and continuing professional development and teachers' conditions of work. Some of the main issues identified by the Swiss CBR, and which are taken up in this Country Note, are:

- The on-going reform of teacher education with the process of setting up the Universities of Applied Sciences in Education (*Pädagogische Hochschulen (PH) / Hautes écoles pédagogiques (HEP)*);
- Teacher recruitment difficulties particularly in lower secondary education;
- The need to maintain and strengthen quality in the teaching force, consistent with maintaining an internationally competitive education system;
- The need to strengthen assessment and evaluation practices at different levels of the education system;
- The need for more flexibility in teachers' work and career paths; and
- The balance of centralised and decentralised responsibility for human resource management decisions affecting teachers.

10. The Swiss CBR is an important output from the OECD activity in its own right, as well as a significant resource for the review team. The analyses and issues discussed in the CBR are cited frequently

2. The Country Background Report is referred to throughout the report by the abbreviation CBR and corresponds to Müller Kucera and Stauffer (2003) in the list of references.

in this Country Note.³ We suggest that the two reports be read together since they are intended to be complementary.

11. The review visit took place from 10 to 18 March, 2003. The itinerary is provided in Appendix 3. The review team held discussions in Bern, Lausanne and Lucerne with a wide range of education authorities, schools, teachers, students, teacher education institutions, teacher unions, parents' organisations, trainee teachers, and researchers. The visit was intended to provide a broad cross-section of information and views on teacher policy in Switzerland and priorities for future policy development.

12. This Country Note draws together the review team's observations and background materials. The visit was not a review of Swiss education as a whole, but rather an analysis of the issues concerned with attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in primary and secondary schools. The present report is an input into the final OECD report from the overall activity. The reviewers trust that this Country Note will also contribute to discussions within Switzerland, and inform other countries about Swiss innovations.

13. The analysis and findings in this report are based on information collected during the visit of March 2003 and documentation prepared mostly in 2002. Since conditions and circumstances can change rapidly, the particular timing of the review needs to be borne in mind.⁴

14. The review team wishes to express its gratitude to the many people who gave time from their busy schedules to assist us in our work. A special word of appreciation is due to the Swiss National Co-ordinators, Mr Stefan Wolter and Mr Stefan Denzler, for going to great lengths to respond to the questions and needs of the review team. We are grateful to them for providing us with their unique expertise, crucial assistance, kindness, and very pleasant company.

15. The openness to cooperation, comparison and external views provided ideal conditions to the review team for a successful education policy review exercise. The review team is appreciative of the informative and frank meetings that were held during the visit, and the helpful documentation that each group provided. The hospitality extended to us throughout our stay in Switzerland made our task as a review team as pleasant and enjoyable as it was stimulating and challenging.

16. Needless to say, however, this Country Note is the responsibility of the reviewers. Although we had excellent assistance from Switzerland, including detailed feedback on a draft of this report, any errors and misinterpretations are our own.

1.3 Structure of the Country Note

17. The remainder of the report is organised into four main sections. In Section 2, key contextual social, economic and educational factors shaping the teaching workforce and teacher careers in Switzerland are outlined. That section also provides, from an international perspective, what is distinctive about the teaching workforce and teacher policy in Switzerland. Section 3 identifies the main strengths of Swiss teacher policies, but also the challenges that the system faces. The discussion addresses eight broad areas: system governance; initial teacher education; teachers' professional development; the labour market for teachers; career structure and incentives; teachers at the workplace; school management and leadership; and evaluation and accountability.

3. Unless indicated otherwise, the data in this Country Note are taken from the Swiss Country Background Report.

4. For example, more recent evidence from 2004 suggests a considerable reduction of teacher recruitment problems (Bättig and Stauffer, 2004).

18. Section 4 uses the analysis of these issues to discuss priorities for future policy development. Some concerns - such as teacher recruitment - are fairly recent in origin while others - such as the structure of teacher education - are more long-standing yet the target of substantial new reforms. The suggestions draw heavily on promising initiatives that the team learned about during the visit. Section 5 offers some brief concluding remarks.

19. The policy suggestions recognise the reforms that are already underway in Switzerland and the strong commitment to further improvement that was evident among all of the groups and individuals we met. The suggestions are also offered in recognition of the difficulty facing any group of visitors, no matter how well briefed, in grasping the complexity of Switzerland, the factors that need to be taken into account and the pace of change in schools, communities and the country as a whole.

2: THE CONTEXT AND FEATURES OF TEACHER POLICY

2.1 The structure of Government⁵

20. The Swiss political structure consists of three different levels: the *Confederation*, the *cantons*, and the *communes*. Well-grounded principles applicable to governing arrangements feature federalism, decentralisation of power, subsidiarity in terms of government intervention, and direct and semi-direct democracy. Swiss citizens elect their representatives to the Confederation's parliament⁶ and can express their will in *plebiscites* and make use of *initiatives* and *referenda*. Similarly, the legislative bodies and members of the executive branches are directly elected by the people both in the cantons⁷ and in the communes.⁸

21. The constituent elements of the Confederation are the people and the cantons. The central government handles areas such as National defence, foreign affairs, economic and social policy, civil and criminal law, and the court of final appeal among other functions. It has limited jurisdiction in the area of

5. More detailed information can be found in IDES (2001).

6. The Parliament (*Bundesversammlung/Assemblée Fédérale*) has two chambers, the National Assembly (*Nationalrat/Conseil National*) with 200 members elected based on proportional representation, and the Senate (*Ständerat/Conseil des Etats*) with 46 members, two from each full canton and one from each half-canton. The government of the Confederation (*Bundesrat/Conseil Fédéral*) consists of seven members who are elected by a joint session of the parliament. Switzerland has neither a prime minister nor cabinet ministers. The *Bundesrat/Conseil Fédéral* functions on the principle of collegiality. Every year the president of the Confederation is elected among the seven, although this person is primarily *primus inter pares* with essentially representational functions.

7. The legislative branch is the cantonal parliament (*Grossrat or Kantonsrat/Grance conseil*) and consists of just one chamber and the executive branch is the *Staatsrat or Regierungsrat/Conseil d'Etat* and consists of five to nine members, each typically elected through a majority voting system or on a proportional basis.

8. The legislative branch is the City parliament or the Assembly of the citizens (*Gemeinderat/Parlement communal or Gemeindeversammlung/Assemblée communale*) and the executive body is the City Council (*Stadrat or Gemeinderat/Conseil de la ville*), elected by the citizens on a majority or proportional basis.

education. The Confederation is made up of 26 full and half-cantons. These are sovereign states and have an organisation similar to that of the Confederation in political and administrative terms. They each have their own constitution and government offices for the legislative, executive and judicial branches and have autonomous authority in the area of taxes and finances. The 2942 communes are the basic units of the state and often benefit, like the cantons, from a relatively large degree of self-determination. The communes have their own legislative and executive branches as well as their own administration. They are autonomous as to their taxes and finances.

2.2 The Economic and Social Context

22. Switzerland is a wealthy country. In 2000 its GDP per capita was around \$29,600, which was the 4th highest among the 30 OECD Member countries.⁹ However, the Swiss economy has been characterised by poor growth performance in the last two decades, by comparison with the OECD average. Between 1980 and 2002, the annual growth differential relative to the Euro area averaged $\frac{3}{4}$ of a percentage point, while relative to the United States it was over $1\frac{1}{2}$ percentage points. In recent years, the downturn in activity has been severe and more pronounced than in the Euro area and the United States, with almost no growth in 2002 and a recession during 2003 – the decline in output in the first three quarters of 2003 was the biggest in ten years (OECD, 2004b).

23. The traditional poles of economic activity, most notably in industry, have given way to new sectors, products and services. In line with global trends, the volume of jobs in services increased as a share of the total reaching 64% in 2000 and that in industry (32%) and agriculture (4%) declined. Technological change and a growing global interdependence have re-shaped economic activity in sectors in which Switzerland has long held a pre-eminent position. Product or service change and innovation and strengthened global links may be seen in financial services, pharmaceuticals, tourism and specialised areas such as the watch industry.

24. The unemployment rate has risen in recent years, reaching 3.8 % in autumn 2003, the highest in five years, but it is still low in international comparison. The share of the jobless with high skill levels has risen considerably, reflecting the special nature of the recession which has hit activities with skilled personnel, such as banking, insurance and information and telecommunications technologies. On the other hand, part-time employment, mainly by women, continued to increase and the participation rate among men aged over 55 fell (OECD, 2004b).

25. At the end of 2000, there were approximately 7.2 million people living in Switzerland (48.8% male and 51.2% female). The proportion of foreigners was 20.5%, a clear increase from the 9.5% of 1960. Life expectancy was 82.6 for women and 76.9 for men. More than two thirds of the residents lived in urban areas (1998: 67.5%, 1970: 57.6%). Switzerland has four official languages: German (spoken as a native language by 63.7% of the population in 1990), French (19.2%), Italian (7.6%), and Rhaeto-Romanic (0.6%). Other native languages were spoken by 8.9% of the population. The educational policy for foreign language has traditionally established as a goal that the first foreign language taught in primary school be a national language (e.g. French in German-speaking Switzerland). However, it is currently being challenged as some cantons are giving preference to English instead of a national language.¹⁰

9. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita in equivalent US dollars converted using Purchasing Power Parity Exchange rates (OECD, 2003a).

10. The common strategy in foreign language policy set by the cantons recommends two foreign languages, from at least lower secondary education, with the first foreign language a national language or English.

26. The Swiss population is ageing. Although the overall population in Switzerland is continuing to grow (increase of 5.9% between 1990 and 2000), the number of young people is declining in relative terms (within 40 years the proportion of 0-19 year-olds has decreased by about one-fourth). It is projected that by 2010 the number of children aged 5-14 will be 9% lower than in 2000, while the number aged between 15-19 is projected to grow 9% (Appendix 4). The demographic outlook is an important influence on the demand for teachers.

27. Immigration is a key source of population growth and change. Although less than in the past, Switzerland continues to be a country of immigration. As of 2002, most of the foreign population is European (85.7%) and the remaining from Asia (6.5%), Africa (3.8%), Latin America (2.3%), North America (1.3%), and Oceania (0.2%). Immigrants have introduced much greater diversity into the schools, especially in larger cities. In 1998-99, the proportion of non-native speakers of one of the national languages was 22.3% in primary and lower secondary schools and 16.1% in upper secondary schools. Five countries accounted for 70% of the children speaking foreign languages: the former Yugoslavia (27.9%), Italy (18.3%), Portugal (9.9%), Turkey (7.4%), and Spain (7.5%). It is widely acknowledged that the increasing diversity of students has made teaching more challenging and requires teachers to develop new skills.

2.3 The Organisation and Governance of the School System

28. In Switzerland powers in the area of education are split between the cantons and the Confederation. Each canton has sole responsibility for its compulsory schooling (primary and lower secondary). At the upper secondary level, the Confederation sets down regulations for vocational training (with implementation left to each canton), while the cantons have primary responsibility over general programmes (*Gymnasia/gymnases*). Upper secondary diploma requirements are set jointly by the cantons and the Confederation. With some exceptions, the communes are in charge of running schools at the compulsory level while the cantons manage upper secondary schools.¹¹

29. Over time co-ordination across cantons to harmonise aspects of school legislation have been effected through formal inter-canton agreements. The agreements also set out means for strengthened co-operation between cantons and with the confederation, notably through the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP), and four regional consultative conferences¹² to advance co-ordination among the cantons concerned. The relative independence of the EDK/CDIP and the four regional conferences – neither located at nor committing individual cantons nor the Confederation to initiatives – has proved to be effective in going beyond the identification of problems to policy development useful at canton and confederation levels. The research undertaken and the experience shared (“relative osmosis” in the words of one official) allow canton-level policy makers to select approaches that are most likely to be effective and garner support.

30. Each canton has a distinct school system.¹³ The typical structure consists of 5 or 6 years of primary school, 3 or 4 years of lower secondary school and 3 or 4 years of upper secondary school. The

11. See Table 2.3 of CBR for a detailed account of distribution of responsibilities within the Swiss school system.

12. These are the CIIP (*Conférence intercantonale de l'instruction publique de la Suisse romande et du Tessin*), the NW EDK (*Nordwestschweizerische Erziehungsdirektorenkonferenz*), the BKZ (*Bildungsdirektorenkonferenz Zentralschweiz*), and the EDK-Ost (*Erziehungsdirektorenkonferenz der Ostschweizer Kantone und des Fürstentums Liechtenstein*).

13. Diagram descriptions of cantonal school systems are provided in Markees (2003).

period of compulsory education is nine years corresponding to primary and lower secondary education. In most cantons, pre-primary education is not mandatory and not part of the formal system. Most cantons have recently reduced the duration of the *Gymnasium/gymnase* by eliminating the 13th grade.

31. At the end of primary education, pupils are directed to different types of lower secondary schools depending on their academic achievement: schools with basic courses (accounting for approximately 20-30% of total enrolment in lower secondary schools according to IDES (2001)),¹⁴ schools with intermediate courses (35-40%),¹⁵ and schools with advanced courses (35-40%).¹⁶ Structures differ across cantons, with some locating each stream in its own school; some bringing together different streams in a single school; and some (relatively fewer) offering in the same school classes that mix students from different streams.¹⁷ In recent years changing *tracks* has become more feasible. Graduates from lower secondary schools can choose between academic upper secondary schools and vocational ones with the following programme providers: general education schools (*Matura* diploma schools and Intermediate diploma schools¹⁸), full-time vocational schools, and dual- and triple-vocational education schools.¹⁹ In 2000-01, more than 70% of students in upper secondary schools followed the vocational track (see Table 2.2 of CBR). Training usually lasts three to four years and ends with a diploma or a federal certificate of competence.

32. The law grants everyone the right to run a private school as long as cantonal regulations (permit to open, public contributions, oversight, recognition of diplomas granted, etc.) are observed. In principle, they do not receive public funding support with very few exceptions in some cantons (e.g. when they provide services the public schools cannot offer). The proportion of students enrolled in private schools is 2.2% at primary level, 4.1% at lower-secondary level, 4.0% in vocational education, and 7.7% in schools preparing for the *Matura* diploma.

33. Compulsory public education is free of charge for all students. In some upper-secondary public schools, a nominal tuition charge is levied and school materials have to be paid for. There is no free choice of school in Switzerland, except for the open enrolment within the public system in upper secondary general education. With some authorised exceptions, parents are obliged to send their children to a school within the school district of their residence.

14. These are differently labelled in the individual cantons. They can be called “Realschule”, “Oberschule”, “Berufswahlschule”, “Werkschule”, “section pratique”, “section moderne”, “section préprofessionnelle”, or “classes à options”. They promote the practical abilities of the pupils and prepare them for apprenticeships.

15. They can be called “Sekundarschule”, “Sekundarschule allgemeine Abteilung”, “Orientierungsschule”, “section moderne”, or “division supérieure”, depending on the canton. They augment general education and prepare for apprenticeships.

16. These are known as “Bezirksschule”, “Gymnasium”, “Sekundarschule progymnasiale Abteilung”, “Mittelschule”, “Untergymnasium”, or “division gymnasiale” in the individual cantons. They prepare for continuation in general education schools, vocational full-time schools or apprenticeships that require an intensified general education, and schools offering the vocational *Matura* diploma (*Berufsmaturität/maturité professionnelle*).

17. Students with learning, performance, or behavioural difficulties receive special instruction in all of the cantons. In this context, special-purpose classes are set up for students with behavioural and learning difficulties. In 2000-01, approximately 6% of pupils in compulsory education attended special-purpose classes. Efforts exist to integrate these students in the regular classes using additional forms of care.

18. Intermediate diploma schools, known as *Fachmittelschulen/écoles du degré diplôme*, are general education schools at the upper secondary level in which lower standards are set than relative to *Matura* schools.

19. The dual system consists of the apprenticeship in a company, accompanied by attendance at a vocational school while the triple system includes additional introductory courses.

34. The Swiss system of colleges and universities is a dual one, comprising universities – which include cantonal universities and federal institutes of technology – and universities of applied sciences (*hautes écoles spécialisées* (HES)/*Fachhochschulen* (FH)). The Confederation regulates the latter and it also has supervisory authority over the federal polytechnic institutes. The cantons have responsibility for cantonal universities and provide most of the financing for universities and universities of applied sciences, although they do receive some support from the Confederation (see OECD, 2003b, for more detail).

35. Expenditure on schools as a share of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) reached 4.3%²⁰ in 2000, the 5th highest value in the OECD area. About 92% of all education spending comes from public sources. Expenditure per student in public institutions is particularly high in comparison with other OECD countries: Switzerland ranks 1st in upper secondary education (US\$11,622) and 3rd in both primary and lower secondary education (US\$6,631 and US\$8,012, respectively) (See Appendix 4). Over the 1990s, per student expenditure held steady in real terms as the growth in student numbers was slightly greater than the growth in real public spending. This was the result of budget pressures imposed by the economic crisis and affected individual school levels differently: while per student expenditure increased in vocational education, it decreased in compulsory and general upper secondary education.

36. Financing of education is also shared between the Confederation (12% in 1999), the cantons (53%), and the communes (35%).²¹ During the 1990s, the saving measures in the public sector led to an increase in the share borne by the communes as a result of a relative decrease in the Confederation's funding while the proportion provided by the cantons remained stable.

2.4 The Educational Policy Context

37. As in every other policy area in Switzerland, participation, sharing in decision-making and consensus-building frame the process of policy development in education. A remarkable weight is given to wide consultation in search of solutions that take into account the full range of views. Official consultation procedures draw in views and recommendations of various school, teacher, political, community or business groups.

38. In most of the cantons, under different forms, teachers have a legal right of co-determination which they do exert in practice. This is not limited to the “discussion stage” but also encompasses the right to participate directly as members of educational councils or other school authorities, especially in German-speaking Switzerland.

39. As part of the freedom of association, teachers in Switzerland are represented by trade unions and professional organisations. The representatives of the teachers' unions are systematically included in all reform initiatives. Around two-thirds of the teachers in Switzerland are organised into three main trade unions: the *LCH/ECH* (*Dachverband Schweizer Lehrerinnen und Lehrer/Association fédérale des enseignantes et des enseignants suisses*), with nearly 50,000 members, is the nationwide umbrella organisation for more than 20 cantonal teacher organisations; the *VPOD/SSP* (*Schweizerischer Verband des Personals öffentlicher Dienste/Syndicat suisse du personnel public*), with about 4,400 teacher

20. This figure includes expenditure on post-secondary non-tertiary education institutions as depicted in Appendix 4.

21. Great variability exists by school level. In 1999, the share of school funding was broken down for compulsory education (primary and lower secondary), vocational upper-secondary education, and general upper-secondary education respectively, as follows: Confederation (0.2%, 14.1%, 0.7%); cantons (38.8%, 70.6%, 95.8); and communes (61.1%, 15.3%, 3.5%).

members, is the Swiss public-service union; and the SER (*Syndicat des enseignants romands*), with 10,000 members, is the regional union of teachers in the French-speaking part of the country.

40. The three unions are involved in official consultation procedures at cantonal and confederation level. They are very active not only in the negotiations defining teachers' incentive structure and working conditions but also in producing proposals for policy development in a wide range of educational areas. Typically, unions have their own pedagogical units, which elaborate position papers and reports. They also offer counselling and training courses for their members in fields such as job descriptions, school principals and quality assessment. For instance, the LCH/ECH has produced its own profile of the teaching profession and a code of conduct, the SER has its own set of rules on professional status and ethics, and the VPOD/SSP has concentrated its activities in the area of integration and intercultural education.

41. Educational policy in Switzerland is undergoing a period of major development. The two major reforms underway are the harmonisation of compulsory education across the country (project *HarmoS* – “Harmonisation of standards at national level”) and the creation of a national system of educational monitoring. The former aims for national coherence, coverage, mobility, and the establishment of a basis for external assessment. The objective is to define national standards to be attained at several stages of compulsory education. The initial phase, started in 2003, sets up measurable and verifiable descriptions for skills to be achieved in languages, mathematics and the natural sciences. In parallel with this, the various language regions are to develop skill levels for other domains (e.g. history and politics, geography). This implies a greater harmonisation of the curriculum. A national system of educational monitoring will be implemented in 2005 by the Confederation and the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP). It will involve the regular measurements of skill levels using student tests and include the evaluation of particular domains in education (e.g. languages or schools preparing for the *Matura*), therefore providing a knowledge base for future policy intervention.

42. Teacher policy is also central in the current reform. Teacher education is undergoing a major reform with the establishment of the *Hautes écoles pédagogiques* (HEP)/*Pädagogische Hochschulen* (PH), bringing all initial teacher education to the tertiary level and achieving the recognition of cantonal teaching diplomas throughout the country. Furthermore, special initiatives are being taken to raise the professional image of teachers and improve the levels and quality of recruitment. These reforms are being advanced largely through existing means for co-ordination and consultation with the aim of greater harmonisation, rather than through a delegation of responsibilities to the Confederation.

43. The assessments of 15 year-olds conducted by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) revealed some weaknesses. Swiss students stood near OECD average in the reading and scientific literacy scales (but above OECD average in the mathematics literacy scale) and there is a wide dispersion of results between the best and the worst students. A sizeable share of students is in the low-performing categories. Many of these, even if born in Switzerland, are foreign students. Furthermore, there is a stronger variation according to the social and economic background of parents than in most other countries (OECD, 2001b). These findings complemented earlier results of the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) in which assessments placed Switzerland around the middle of 20 participating countries in the document and quantitative domains and somewhat below the middle in the prose domain (OECD and Statistics Canada, 2000).

2.5 Initial Teacher Education

44. Teacher education is going through a period of major reform in Switzerland. As of 2004 all teachers are educated at tertiary level. Previously, teachers for primary schools and lower secondary schools (with the exception of schools with advanced courses) were mostly trained at upper secondary

level in Teacher seminars (*Lehrerseminare/Ecoles normales*). The far reaching reform was launched in Autumn 1995 by the EDK/CDIP with two main goals: (i) raise the professional standards of teachers; and (ii) harmonise teacher education and achieve the recognition of teaching diplomas across the country. The reform has less impact on the education of teachers for lower-secondary schools with advanced classes and upper-secondary schools (both academic and vocational) as preparation for such teachers was already provided at tertiary level.

45. The reform entailed the creation of about 15 new institutions, the Universities of Applied Sciences in Education (*Hautes Écoles Pédagogiques* (HEP)/*Pädagogische Hochschulen* (PH)), all operational since the 2003-04 academic year.²² They replace the former 150 teacher training institutes (most of them cantonal *Ecoles normales*). The latter were abolished, converted into upper-secondary schools, or integrated into a teacher training college.

46. The creation of the PH/HEP led to fundamental transformations of teacher education in Switzerland. In addition to the introduction of new institutional structures, it led to the re-organisation of teacher education programmes in domains such as the curriculum, structure and duration. The recommendations established by the EDK/CDIP lay down strict rules regarding the institutional structure, but provide considerable freedom for the organisation of teacher education programmes. No unification of curricula was attempted and the standardisation introduced seeks the regulation of the mutual recognition of teaching diplomas: it defines competencies to be acquired and the areas in which students need to be assessed. As a result, the setting up of the different PH/HEP followed a great variety of models. In addition, the scope of operation of PH/HEP is considerably broader as it now encompasses in-service training of teachers and research and development. In many cases, the PH/HEP took over the pedagogic and practical education of teachers for lower secondary schools with advanced courses and upper secondary schools.²³

47. Training routes differ according to the school level and type of programme for which student teachers are being prepared. The initial education of teachers for primary and lower secondary schools takes place in a single location, typically a PH/HEP (see list in Table 4.1 of CBR), institutes attached to Universities (e.g. Teacher Education Institute in the city of Bern), or Universities (e.g., Geneva, Fribourg, St. Gallen). Not all cantons maintain a PH/HEP but most are associated with a particular one (e.g. the *Pädagogische Hochschule Zentralschweiz* is a collaborative project between the cantons of Lucerne, Nidwalden, Zug, Obwalden, Schwyz and Uri and has campuses in Lucerne, Schwyz and Zug). In addition, not all PH/HEP prepare all categories of teachers.

48. The initial education of teachers for upper secondary schools combines a general education at a university or a federal institute of technology (leading to an academic degree in a given discipline) with a pedagogical and didactic preparation either in a PH/HEP, in faculties of educational sciences of some universities (e.g. Fribourg) or in tertiary-level institutes of teacher education (e.g. Bern, Geneva).

49. The preparation of vocational teachers is more diverse. Teachers for a specialised field must possess a certificate from a university of applied sciences (FH/HES) or a university. Requirements call for the highest possible certificate related to the professional field, at least two years of professional practice,

22. In 2002 the creation of the Swiss Conference of the Deans of the *Hautes Ecoles Pédagogiques* (CSHEP) ensures the co-ordination and development of the PH/HEP and their integration within the system of the *Hautes Ecoles Spécialisées* (HES)/*Fachhochschulen* (FH).

23. Currently, within the EDK/CDIP and based on the Criblez (2002) report, Working Committees seek ways of introducing greater co-ordination and harmonisation across cantons of teacher education for upper-secondary schools (both academic and vocational). They are also proposing that in-service training for upper-secondary teachers be offered by PH/HEP.

subsidiary instruction at a vocational school, and pedagogical and didactic preparation. The latter is mostly offered by the Swiss institute for the pedagogy of vocational training (*Schweizerisches Institut für Berufspädagogik* (SIBP) / *Institut Suisse de pédagogie pour la formation professionnelle* (ISFPF)), located in Lausanne, Lugano and Zollikofen and is often undertaken by teachers while on the job. Programmes for teaching pupils with special needs are offered by specialised institutions at the tertiary level (but not university level except in Basel and Geneva). At the national level, the Swiss Institute for Curative and Special Pedagogy (SZH/SPC based in Lucerne and Lausanne) provides services in the field of specialised pedagogy.

50. In eleven cantons the teacher education system offers training for individuals wishing to join teaching after several years of experience outside education and no initial teaching degree (Stauffer, 2001). In five cantons, special training courses are offered in the PH/HEP while in the remaining cantons in-service or complementary training is offered.

51. A *Matura* diploma (awarded by *Gymnasia/gymnases*) is the rule as an admission requirement for all institutions providing teacher education. Some exceptions are possible, however. Admission opportunities have been created for graduates of Intermediate Diploma schools (*Fachmittelschule/école du degré intermédiaire*), for persons with a *vocational Matura* (*Berufsmatura/maturité professionnelle*) as well as for people with a federal certificate of ability (*Eidg. Fähigkeitszeugnis/certificate fédéral d'aptitude*) and several years of professional experience. Typically these individuals need to undergo preparatory courses and/or admission examinations to compensate for deficits in general education before beginning their studies.

52. The creation of the PH/HEP led to a curricular re-organisation according to training *modules* with contents very different from those proposed by the former *Ecoles normales*. Nonetheless, the PH/HEP differ considerably in their approach to modular design of teacher education programmes. Typically, a course of study consists of training in a set of disciplines, training in educational sciences (e.g. pedagogy, didactics, educational psychology) and a practical component undertaken in schools. The recent reform led to a greater emphasis on interdisciplinary, open workshop, group, and project instruction. Also, students are encouraged to get involved in applied education research. Furthermore, practical in-school experience is a priority as reflected by the fact that it is one of the aspects regulated by the EDK/CDIP: classroom practice needs to correspond to 20-30% of the total amount of study time.

53. The education of teachers lasts at least three years for the primary school level, at least four years for the lower secondary level, and at least five years for *Matura* schools. The initial education of teachers for primary and lower secondary schools with no advanced courses generally follows a concurrent model while it can take both the concurrent or consecutive forms for teaching in upper secondary schools and lower secondary schools with advanced courses. Training for *special education* teachers occurs, as a rule, after or during training for teaching in the regular grades at the primary or lower secondary levels. Full-time study lasts at least two years, and part-time study while working in a profession, at least three years.

2.6 Teachers' Professional Development and Induction

54. Teacher induction practices vary greatly across and within cantons. In the majority of the cantons there is no systematic and structured phase of initiation into the profession. In those cantons where some form of integrated induction phase exists the responsibilities are generally shared between the school inspection, school principals and teacher training institutes. But, where no systematic approach exists, schools generally organise some form of induction programme. However, a great deal depends on the character of the school and the attitudes, skills and levels of interest of senior staff. Also, in some cases new teachers are assigned a mentor who is not necessarily trained for that role. Recently, some cantons

have adopted formal induction programmes which include the training and support of practical tutors/advisers. In a promising development, the newly founded Conference of the PH/HEP is currently elaborating a common concept of formal induction to provide support to newly-hired teachers.

55. Continuous professional development of teachers is also currently undergoing significant transformations. The principal line of reform is to situate in-service training within the tasks of the school and in line with an evolving view of the teaching profession. As put in an EDK/CDIP press release, "... in a modern concept of the teaching profession, the school is a place in which a team of adults collaborate to prepare men and women for tomorrow – *and continue to learn in their company.*" (EDK/CDIP, 2003a). The current process of consultation led by the EDK/CDIP is proposing that objectives concentrate on: (i) personal, subject-related, and professional development of individual teachers as an element of their career progression; (ii) school development both at the pedagogical and organisational levels; and (iii) school system development as regards its organisation, structure and curricular framework as they lead teachers to undertake new tasks (EDK/CDIP, 2003b).

56. The cantons are responsible for the continuing education of teachers. They plan, develop and conduct professional development activities. In addition, they cover the main share of the costs incurred. The EDK/CDIP ensures co-ordination at the country level and is currently working on an overall framework for teachers' in-service education (EDK/CDIP, 2003b).

57. Professional development options are numerous and varied and Swiss teachers benefit from a wide range of providers. Among the most important are the cantonal continuing education institutions (now being brought under the PH/HEP or equivalent institutions), the Swiss Office for In-Service Training of Upper-Secondary Teachers (WBZ/CPS, based in Lucerne) for teachers in upper secondary schools, and the Swiss Institute for the Pedagogy of Vocational Training (SIBP/ISFPF, based in Lausanne, Lugano and Zollikofen) for teachers in vocational schools. In addition, private providers (e.g. *Schule und Weiterbildung Schweiz*), professional organisations and teacher unions offer numerous other possibilities for in-service education (see Table 4.2 of CBR). The establishment of the PH/HEP also intends to give them a greater role in in-service education. The process of organising a wide range of in-service training opportunities within the PH/HEP is currently being undertaken.

58. School-based professional development has emerged particularly strongly in recent years as a result of the growing autonomy of schools and earmarked budgets (global budgets for continuing education in the German-speaking cantons and "mandats de prestations" in the French-speaking part). This is already reflected in the levels of school provision, relative to other OECD countries, as shown in Appendix 4. Switzerland ranks above average in terms of the share of schools with a separate budget for in-service education (87%, ranking 4th in a group of 14 countries), the percentage of schools providing time for professional development activities (91%, ranking 4th), and the percentage of schools organising staff development activities (87%, ranking 6th). Two types of training are typically provided. One consists of school-initiated and organised professional development activities, among which: exchange among teachers, peer visits in classes, shared development of curriculum materials or of solutions to particular problems, or measures for the induction of new teachers. Alternatively, the school can engage a public or private training provider judged to be particularly well-suited to organise professional development, for all or a large number of the school staff. We learned of examples of such initiatives at the HEP in Vaud, and also in Bern, where a school can request support from the system office for in-service teacher training (*Schulinterne Weiterbildung für Lehrpersonen*).

59. Individual subjects or interdisciplinary topics are the object of a substantial part of continuing education offerings. Educational, specialised didactic and psychological issues as well as school development projects make up the remaining part. The HEP in Vaud gives a good example of the range of possibilities. Three forms of in-service teacher training are on offer: on demand, through negotiation with a

school with a team having a specific project or set of needs; through a training programme, most particularly aimed at individual teachers who want to leave their current school; and, via a pedagogical resource centre, available to all professionals, students and teacher trainers in HEP, at two websites (one devoted to media and information and communication technology in education and special education; the other providing access to materials).

60. The right to continuing education is guaranteed by the cantons, and participation in such activities is generally considered a duty as well. Some cantons make professional development activities mandatory (e.g. 5 days a year in canton Schwyz, 4 days a year in canton Vaud). Yet the content is not defined in school laws. The choice of professional development activities is left at the discretion of individual teachers and is generally not made within a context of school development. Nevertheless, as part of the introduction of assessment systems, some cantons (especially Zürich and St. Gallen) are introducing direct links between teacher evaluation and professional development activities. Cantonal authorities may declare some continuing education activities mandatory – say, in connection with the introduction of new curricula. The cantons assume the main portion of the costs incurred but the teachers may bear some of the expense. Usually no evaluation of the teachers who participated in continuing education activities takes place. Professional development is not formally tied to advancement in the career. However, sometimes it opens up new prospects, such as teaching additional subjects or undertaking new roles in school management and development (e.g. counselling, team work, evaluation).

61. Available comparative data on participation levels in professional development activities for teachers of 15-year olds shows that Switzerland stands in the top third of countries with available data (Appendix 4). Also, according to the OECD International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS), Swiss upper secondary school teachers are more likely than their counterparts in a group of other OECD countries to undertake professional development in the form of regularly scheduled collaboration among teachers on instructional issues, mentoring or peer observation as a formal arrangement, or visiting companies or employers. However, Swiss upper secondary teachers are less likely than their counterparts to participate in professional development organised as part of an advanced degree programme, to develop collaborative research, or to undertake ICT-related professional development activities (Appendix 4).

62. Recently, several federal and cantonal in-service training institutions have developed an Internet platform (www.webpalette.ch) which serves as a vehicle for disseminating in-service continuing education opportunities throughout the country, offering great potential to improve participation levels.

2.7 The Teacher Labour Market

63. The labour market for teachers is stratified fundamentally according to level of education, type of programme, type of provider (public or private), region of the country (cantons and communes), and subject matter. As such, considerations about the current balance between demand for and supply of teachers should reflect the existence of different sub-markets for teachers.

64. A large share of resources for schools is spent on teachers. In 2000, about 85% of current expenditure on the school system was devoted to the compensation of teachers and other staff, a figure considerably above the OECD mean (80.3%) (Appendix 4). In 1998-99, a total of 96,952 teaching staff was employed in compulsory public schooling (76% of total) and public upper-secondary schools (24% of total).²⁴ For the public sector,²⁵ the number of teachers in compulsory education has increased significantly (17.8%) since 1993-94, but more moderately in full-time equivalents (5.8%) (see Table 2.4 of CBR).

24. In full-time equivalent terms the corresponding figure is 66319 (80% in compulsory education and 20% in upper-secondary schools).

65. The teaching workforce is considerably feminised in primary education: in 1999, 72.4% of primary public school teachers were women, a slight increase relative to 1996 (69%). The picture is clearly different for other levels of education: in 1999, only 45.0 and 31.7% of teachers in lower-secondary and upper-secondary education respectively were women (the figures for 1996 were 37% for both these levels of education) (OECD, 1998 and 2001a). The teaching workforce is not particularly aged, for either the primary or the lower secondary levels of education: in 1999, about 20% of primary public school teachers and 27% of lower-secondary public school teachers were 50 years old and over. More concerns arise in upper-secondary public schools where, in 1999, about 33% of teachers fit in the same age range. This implies that, in upper-secondary education, about a third of the teaching workforce will retire within the next ten years. A slight ageing tendency has been observed for primary and lower secondary education in the most recent years – the corresponding figures in 1996 were 16% and 24% respectively (OECD, 1998 and 2001a).

66. Another striking feature of the Swiss teaching workforce is the number of part-time teachers, accounting for 46%, 47% and 62%, respectively, of the primary, lower secondary and upper secondary²⁶ teacher education workforce for the 1998-99 school year (see Table 2.5 of CBR). Part-time teaching corresponds to 50 to 90% of a full-time post.

67. In 2001-02 difficulties in the recruitment of teachers were clearly evident. According to a survey conducted by IDES (Information Documentation Education Suisse) in 2001-02 about 200 full-time posts were found to be unfilled or provisionally occupied (Stauffer, 2001). Results from OECD International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS) indicate that the percentage of full-time equivalent (FTE) teaching posts needed to be filled at the beginning of the 2001-02 school year stood at 13.9% of total FTE posts, above an OECD country mean of 12.3% (Appendix 4 and OECD, 2004a). Qualitative shortages are also a reality: while in primary education more than 99% of the teachers hold an appropriate certificate, the corresponding percentage for teachers at lower-secondary and upper-secondary (general programmes) levels is 90% and that for teachers of classes with special curricula and tenth-year classes is around 75% (Stauffer, 2001).

68. A similar trend is observed in the proportion of entering teachers who do not hold the required certificate. In some cantons the percentage of teachers entering the profession without satisfying the formal requirements is extremely high. For instance, for lower-secondary education in 2001-02 the figure was 70% in Valais, 60% in Schwyz and Schaffhausen, 50% in the French-speaking part of Fribourg, and 30% in Lucerne (Figure 5.3 of CBR and Müller Kucera *et al.*, 2002). Similar figures characterise upper-secondary education (Figure 16, Annex 5 of CBR and Müller Kucera *et al.* 2002).

69. Difficulties in the recruitment of teachers have been identified at different levels of the labour market. It would appear that the greatest difficulties in filling vacancies occur at lower-secondary level. The size of the pool of applicants to teaching positions shows that choice is becoming quite limited. In lower-secondary education, each advertised position attracts only between one and five applications, the situation being more severe for mathematics and physics (Müller Kucera *et al.*, 2002) (Figure 5.1 and Annex 5 of CBR). However, considerable differences exist across cantons.

70. In 2001, the cantons reported great difficulties in filling the available vacancies. Two-thirds of the cantons that responded to an inquiry about difficulties in filling vacancies reported at least

25. No teacher statistics are available for private schools.

26. Data for the upper secondary level refer to 2001 and are taken from the OECD Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (OECD, 2003a and OECD, 2004a).

“considerable difficulties”²⁷ in filling vacancies in most subjects of lower-secondary (Table 5.1 of CBR and Müller Kucera *et al*, 2002). Results from ISUSS reveal that, for upper secondary education, the situation in Switzerland was more critical than in other OECD countries in the 2001-02 school year. Principals in upper secondary schools expressed more difficulty in hiring fully qualified teachers in areas such as Mathematics (2nd highest index among the 14 participating countries with 61% of students attending schools where principal reported difficulty, against an OECD country mean of 33%), Computer sciences/information technology (2nd highest index with 76% against an OECD country mean of 49%) and Sciences (3rd highest index with 50% against an OECD country mean of 30%). The situation seemed to be less problematic in the languages and social studies (Appendix 4 and OECD, 2004a).²⁸

71. Regarding future prospects of teacher supply, some uncertainty has been brought about by the creation of the PH/HEP. The new system leads to significant changes regarding the type and number of students enrolling in initial teacher education. Initial available statistics indicate that no major rupture in the supply of teacher education graduates will occur in the country. The number of students entering initial teacher education programmes has increased from 1995 to 2001 for all levels of education, more markedly so for lower-secondary education and vocational education (908 to 947 in programmes training future primary school teachers, 930 to 1140 for programmes specialising in lower-secondary education and 96 to 235 for programmes specialising in vocational education).²⁹ Positive trends are also observed in the number of graduates from initial teacher education programmes. In programmes training future teachers for lower-secondary schools, the number of graduates increased from 552 in 1995 to 789 in 2001. For the same period, in programmes for primary schools the number of graduates decreased from 2104 to 1615, in programmes for general upper secondary schools, the number increased slightly from 401 to 514 and a reduction was observed for the vocational stream of education (from 182 to 152).²⁹

72. Regarding the characteristics of students in initial teacher education programmes, male students decreased as a share, from 1992/93 to 2000/01: from 29% to 22% in primary education and from 57% to 44% in lower secondary education. The percentage of non-Swiss nationals in initial teacher education programmes is quite small, around 3 to 4%, and has changed little over time.

73. Little information is available regarding the mobility of teachers within the country and across the cantons. Anecdotal evidence indicated that within-country mobility is low. The current reform of the teacher education system, by granting the recognition of teaching diplomas countrywide, provides conditions for an increase in within-the-country mobility of teachers.

74. Regarding professional mobility – movements from the current teaching position – the available turnover rates, fairly comparable across school levels for the 2000/01 school year, vary between 5% and 11% across the different cantons (Figure 6.1 in CBR and Müller Kucera *et al* 2002). A study by Henneberger and Souza-Poza (2002) indicates that the turnover rate of 8% taking the teaching sector as a whole is lower than the mean rate of 10.2% for all sectors of the economy.

75. The cantonal and communal authorities together with the communes’ school committees (or commissions) and the school management/principal, are responsible for the recruitment, selection and appointment of teaching and administrative staff. The degree of intervention of each of these authorities

27. “Considerable difficulties” is defined as “At least 20 percent of vacancies are difficult to fill”. In turn, a vacancy is “difficult to fill” if it is advertised more often than envisaged, or for which a derogation has to be granted or is filled by a student teacher.

28. It should be noted that the situation has rapidly changed since 2001 and, at the time of the publication of this report, recruitment difficulties have been considerably eased.

29. Figures provided by the *Office fédéral de la statistique* through the data request made in the context of the OECD Activity.

depends on the canton. As we have noted, the cantonal authorities involved in the recruitment are generally “militia bodies” – school committees/commissions, elected by registered voters of communes, who do not generally have any extensive experience as regards pedagogical matters and human-resource management in schools.

76. The everyday human-resources management of teaching staff remains the responsibility of the communes’ school committees/commissions (especially in the German-speaking cantons) but recently there is a trend whereby more responsibility is assigned to the school management. Regarding the recruitment and selection of teachers, the school principal/management has often the major role despite the fact that the formal responsibility remains with the school committees. This is particularly the case in upper secondary schools and the French-speaking part of Switzerland. According to the International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools, the school responsibility for the hiring of teachers is slightly below average relative to procedures in other OECD countries (Appendix 4). But there is little standardisation to the procedures used. Teachers in schools have the right to make suggestions regarding the teaching staff to be recruited and they often participate in the selection process. In addition, teachers have a say through their participation in school committees/commissions.

77. The selection procedure is typically thorough and includes the consideration of applicants’ files, “portfolio” analysis, a guided visit of the school, interviews, and possibly a probationary lesson. The selection seems to be based to a great extent on the qualifications and the merit of the candidates. Interested applicants submit their applications directly to communal school committees in primary and lower secondary education while they contact directly the schools in the upper-secondary education sector. The labour market for teachers in Switzerland also exhibits a high level of transparency. Vacancies for teachers are generally published by the cantonal or communal authorities in school newssheets, newspapers, periodicals or in the Internet.

78. Entering the teaching profession with professional experience acquired outside education and no formal initial teacher education is possible. Typically, in compulsory education, less than 10% of new recruits come from background. However, figures are higher for upper secondary education – in certain cantons the percentage of new teachers recruited from this source reaches 30%. This is especially the case in vocational education (Figures 3 and 4 in Annex 3 of CBR). The system has limited provisions to employ candidates without teacher training but with experience outside education. Only 11 of the cantons provide programmes of teacher training for this type of candidates. In addition, no provisions exist to recognise work experience and skills acquired in sectors other than education.

79. Recruitment from foreign countries has also been facilitated by the establishment of an equivalence of qualifications and the provision of training opportunities to ensure teachers from abroad familiarise with the Swiss education system. Twenty four cantons accept teachers from outside Switzerland. The proportion of teachers recruited who hold a non-Swiss diploma remains relatively low (between 2% and 10%) at primary level (See Figure 5 in Annex 3 of CBR), whereas several cantons take on more than 15% of non-Swiss teachers at secondary level.

80. Vacancies appear to be disseminated well through announcements in newspapers and on the internet (Table 4 in Annex 5 of CBR). Other more direct and targeted strategies such as campaigns in teacher training colleges, distribution of brochures and other information about the teaching profession are also undertaken by some cantons (Table 5 in Annex 5 of CBR). Moreover, 15 cantons have recently set up Internet or Teletext-based job exchange systems (e.g. www.educajob.ch). Regarding the monitoring of the labour market, there does not seem to be long-term recruitment strategies based on predictions of teacher needs and size of school-age population. For instance, the *Office Fédéral de la Statistique* has not updated their data on teachers since 1999. However, a number of cantons envisages setting up systems permitting a forward-looking management of human resources in education.

2.8 Teacher Employment and Careers

81. The formal employer of teachers is either the canton or the commune. Accordingly, the determination of salary scales and conditions of employment are made by one of these two authorities. The type of employment contract is typically decided by the canton.

82. A marked feature of the teaching labour market in Switzerland is that teachers are no longer civil servants in practically the entire country. In the last few years, in most cantons and at confederation level, the employment status of public workers has moved from that of civil servant to that of salaried employee. However, it is important to note that, as a general rule, the previous civil servant status was not associated with an appointment for life but instead with contracts of a given duration. In most cantons the new salaried employee status goes along with indefinite, terminable contractual arrangements regulated by public law, which are similar to those offered in the private sector. These contracts can be terminated within a few months notice typically if: (i) the employee fails to follow the regulations; (ii) the employee performs unsatisfactorily; or (iii) the post becomes redundant. In the cantons where this reform has not been undertaken, teachers are employed with a renewable contract of a typical duration of four to six years, regardless of whether they benefit from a civil servant status or not. In these cases dismissals are only possible in extraordinary circumstances. Lifetime contracts are not offered to teachers in any Swiss canton.

83. Generally teachers are subject to a probationary period upon entering the profession. Procedures depend on the canton but often passing the probationary period, which can last some years, means the assignment to a 'regular' teaching post (*nomination*). In 1995-96 the proportion of teachers with a 'regular' teaching post was 78% for primary education, 73% for lower-secondary education and 70% for upper secondary education.

84. By and large teachers are placed on a salary scale corresponding to the school level or type of school where they teach and their initial education. Advancement for an individual teacher occurs within that single salary scale and typically depends on years of service only, with no links to any form of evaluation. Some cantons have recently moved away from this seniority-based system by introducing links to an assessment of performance; for example, developments in Zürich and St. Gallen are outlined in Box 1. Linking teacher pay to performance is under discussion in other cantons, particularly in the German-speaking part of the country.

Box 1: Links between teaching performance and salaries in Switzerland

Two Swiss cantons, Zürich and St. Gallen, have introduced links between teaching performance and pay, as components of quality monitoring and improvement initiatives. In both schemes, salary increments are provided over a period of years, rather than applied on the basis of the assessment of a year's work.

In 2000 St. Gallen introduced a link between teachers' performance assessment and their pay scale through the "Systematic salary-effective qualification" (SLQ: *Systematische Lohnwirksame Qualifikation*). The St. Gallen scheme associates performance to promotion (with influence on pay levels) but not directly to pay. The pay scale is made up of four grades and moving up to the next grade is only possible if the teacher is given a positive assessment. Movement from increment to increment within a grade occurs largely automatically. Teachers are assessed every time they reach the top of a grade, and are not able to receive a salary rise unless their performance appraisal is positive. The assessment criteria are jointly agreed by the teacher and the evaluator. The assessment focuses on three skill areas: organisation and delivery of lessons; interactions with students, teachers and parents; and participation in in-service training. The assessment is based on a self-assessment and external assessment. The external assessment is the responsibility of one of the members of the school committee/commission.

In 1999 Zürich introduced a similar link through the "Salary-effective qualification system" (LQS: *Lohnwirksames Qualifikationssystem*). Teacher assessments affect salaries only for teachers in the "principal phase" of their careers (beyond the initial years, and short of the late career years when only truly exceptional appraisals will lead to salary increments). Salary increments, on the basis of favourable assessments, are provided in the order 1-3 % for the 4 years following the assessment. If an assessment is unsatisfactory, promotion is delayed for a year and measures are agreed to overcome deficiencies. The assessment is undertaken by a team formed of representatives of the school committee, all of them receiving special training. The assessment includes class observation, an interview with the teacher being evaluated, and the preparation by the latter of a report describing his/her pedagogical approach.

85. In general teacher salaries are set uniformly within individual cantons, but considerable differences exist across cantons. Starting salaries, adjusted to take into account the number of lessons taught and cost of living, for primary as well as lower secondary teachers range across cantons from roughly 20% below the overall Swiss mean to roughly 20% above the Swiss mean. Cantons also show differences in salary progression, on comparisons of mid-career teachers' salaries to starting salaries. The data show, for example, that in Vaud (among the cantons with the lowest starting salaries) the salary of primary school teachers after eleven years will be more than 40% above their starting salary; for lower secondary teachers, the progression is on the order of 55%. For several other cantons, salary progression is closer to 25% in 11 years. Salary progression is about average when compared to other OECD countries (e.g., in lower secondary education, it takes on average 24 years to go from starting to top salary, one year less than the OECD country mean, Appendix 4). Taken together, these comparisons give some indication of the extent to which salary and salary progression make it attractive to enter and remain in teaching. The canton differences also provide an indication of the potential incentives for teachers to move between cantons, partly as a consequence of the mobility opened up by nationwide recognition of qualifications.³⁰

86. Besides the basic salary, earnings also usually include special long-service bonuses and family allowances. Increases to base salary also occur when the teacher has management duties, teaches students with special needs, teaches more hours than required, undertakes special activities such as drama and homework school clubs, or guidance and counselling of students (Appendix 4). Financial instruments to

30. Analysis of initial job destinations of Swiss university graduates shows that university graduates respond to relative salaries when opting for upper secondary school teaching posts over other jobs (Wolter and Denzler, 2003). However, the study finds that the degree of responsiveness of teachers to relative salaries is smaller than in other countries, which might be explained, according to the authors, by the high teacher salary levels.

compensate Swiss teachers typically do not include signing bonuses, housing subsidies, or provision of child-care. As a rule, there are no extra allowances for difficult working conditions, areas of shortage (an exception is St. Gallen), or disadvantaged areas. However, teachers benefit from a generous pension scheme. The regulated retirement age is 65 for men and 63 for women (to be increased to 64 in 2005 as a result of efforts underway to equalize retirement ages) but it is possible to retire earlier including for reasons of bad health. The full pension amounts to about 75% of the last salary.

87. On average, teachers take about 3 weeks of holiday per year during school holidays and work between 10 and 13 hours per week in schools during the remaining school holiday period (IDES, 2001). School holiday periods which exceed teachers' holiday entitlement are to be used for professional development activities and long-term instructional planning. As with other public employees, teachers are also entitled to other types of paid leave such as sickness and parental leave.

88. Cantonal educational authorities have committees which decide on teachers' dismissals. A teacher can be dismissed for disciplinary or administrative reasons, such as underperformance. Only in very exceptional cases do the educational authorities move a teacher from one post to another. Teachers have the right to be heard before decisions are taken and, in case a sanction occurs, teachers have the right to return to their original post after a given time has elapsed. Permanent dismissal from the profession is extremely rare.

2.9 Teachers at the Workplace

89. The role of teachers in Swiss schools and their core tasks and responsibilities are not defined in a clear manner by any existing regulation, in the form of a job profile. The work of teachers evolves around the following key duties: teaching; class preparation; student assessment; communication with parents; student academic guidance; long-term instructional planning and evaluation; administrative duties; in-service continuing education; and co-ordination with colleagues. Typically, teachers' working time is defined in terms of teaching hours. These vary between 1900 and 2000 hours per year across cantons, which corresponds to a full-time administrative job in Zürich (Landert, 1999, Forneck and Schriever, 2000). On average, these hours are broken down as 50% teaching, 23% preparation, 11% planning and evaluation, 5% administration, 3% counselling, 4% continuing education and 4% joint activities (Landert, 1999). Some cantons have taken steps to set out more clearly the job of teaching, as in Schaffhausen, where total working hours are set at 1940 per year, with 45-50 per cent allocated to teaching.

90. The level of support staff in schools is below OECD standards, at least in upper-secondary schools. According to the OECD ISUSS survey, Switzerland is among the countries with the lowest proportion of non-teaching personnel in upper-secondary schools with 19% compared to an OECD mean of 27%. Non-teaching personnel is distributed as a percentage of school staff as follows: 4% of management personnel (below the OECD mean of 5%), 2% of teacher aids (same as OECD mean), 2% of professional support personnel (below the OECD mean of 4%), and 11% of other support personnel (below the OECD mean of 17%) (Appendix 4).

91. Differentiation within the teaching profession is limited. Diversification in school roles includes essentially administrative positions – as principal or vice-principal – and, in some cantons, the role of school counsellor or head of department. Formal roles as mentor for beginning teachers, project supervisor, or co-ordinator of professional development activities are rarely found in Swiss schools, and no mechanisms exist to define or regulate their existence.

92. Several developments have changed the conditions under which teachers work. New responsibilities, including more school-level decision-making, create new demands on teachers. A separate

development concerns changes perceived by teachers in the engagement, preparation and demeanour of students and in consultations with parents. In the course of our visit, teachers expressed the view that diversity and changing youth culture require new adaptations,³¹ and that heightened expectations of parents call for more and different kinds of consultation with them.³² Third, a large and possibly increasing share of teaching is being handled by teachers who are not appointed to regular full-time posts. Such teachers change the ways teaching is organised and other functions are carried out.³³ Finally, the introduction of assessment systems alongside new autonomy and responsibilities for schools demands more time and effort from teachers.

93. These developments refer to specific tasks and demands, and some have been identified in various surveys as sources of erosion in job satisfaction having potentially adverse consequences on the retention and motivation of teachers. An LCH/ECH report based on survey results identified frequent educational reforms, the excessive burden of administrative chores, class sizes, the lack of mentoring and support, and the limited involvement of teachers in decision making as areas that require attention if job satisfaction is to be improved (Landert 2002).

2.10 School Leadership and Management

94. At present, the drive to bring all public services (including education and schools) under the approach commonly termed “new public management” has raised particular questions regarding the structure of school management.

95. The authorities formally responsible for taking decisions on school matters are typically school committees or commissions that comprise members elected by the commune’s registered voters but with no particular expertise with regard to pedagogy, personnel, or management. While responsibilities for day-to-day management of the school resides in the communes’ school committees or commissions (particularly in the German-speaking cantons), the recent trend is to delegate greater authority for school matters to the management of each school. Up until the late 1990s, limited organisational and co-ordinating aspects of school administration were handled by designated teachers who had no formal powers. Now the school principal, often with advice and involvement of a leadership team, assumes a major role in decisions concerning the development and running of the school, even though formal responsibility remains with the school committee. Primary schools in two-thirds of the cantons and lower-secondary schools in four-fifths of the cantons operate in this way. This is generally the case throughout the French-speaking region of Switzerland³⁴ and in upper secondary schools. In the latter the role of school principal as an educational leader is typically well established throughout the entire country.

31. The changes identified by teachers go beyond growing cultural and linguistic diversity to motivations of students more generally. At upper secondary level, teachers referred to a weakness in preparation at earlier levels, less motivation for learning and less coherence in student choices.

32. Teachers in several schools identified relations with parents as a particularly problematic aspect of their work. A particular adaptation found to be generally effective assigns a single teacher the responsibility as a “class year” contact for all parents for the duration of the cycle of education (Berne). Parents’ views have shifted, according to teachers in several schools, from working with the teacher to ignoring the advice of the teacher or challenging and questioning the teacher’s judgment (Berne, Lucerne).

33. Several full-time teachers told us that they prefer to recruit colleagues who will work full-time – perhaps in recognition of the wide range of shared tasks and the likelihood that part-time teachers contribute less to the development of a collegial environment.

34. In French-speaking Switzerland and Ticino, the role of school principal has had much greater tradition than in the German-speaking part.

96. Under the new arrangements, school principals have some pedagogical authority and a more direct say on teacher recruitment, teacher assessment, annual planning, developing the school's profile, pedagogical projects, school development, community relations, co-operation with parents and quality improvement. The scope for decision-making by the school management is growing, but limited in important ways. School budgets are decided mostly by the commune rather than on allocations taken by the school principal,³⁵ little latitude exists regarding curriculum matters or the organisation of learning activities. Further, as of 2000, the extent to which school principals should have control over staffing matters remained a matter of some debate (CBR and Oggenfuss 2000).

97. Each teacher has the right to have a say on matters such as sanctions, support staff, in-service training within the schools, and the school profile, among other things. Moreover, teachers have a right to make suggestions and submit formal proposals on teacher qualifications, recruitment of administrative staff, recruitment of teaching staff, leave for professional development, or the organisation of classes.

98. School principals usually work with and rely on a senior management team, comprised of various combinations of deputy principals and lead teachers (or heads of department). Members of the team might assume responsibilities for mentoring, evaluation or school projects concerned with, e.g., quality improvement. Those with such responsibilities are usually experienced teachers chosen by the school principal. Principals are appointed by the school committee or commission, typically from among experienced teachers with some prior school-wide administrative experience. Principals also receive additional salary and typically keep a teaching duty.

99. The job profile of the school principal has yet to be clearly elaborated. Cantons are working to develop that profile through recommendations for training and an accreditation procedure for institutions which provide training for school principals has been established by the EDK/CDIP in February 2004. Currently, cantonal offices of continuing education and organisations such as the LCH/ECH offer training courses but, for the most part, training programmes are still being set up. Supply of programmes is not systematic, training generally occurs while on the job, and the contents and structure are not harmonised across the country. School leaders in one canton judged training to be limited, although available in the form of continuing education through course modules in administration, organisation theory and curriculum development.

2.11 Evaluation and Accountability

100. The current movement towards greater school autonomy is tied in with the progressive introduction of evaluation schemes and accountability mechanisms. Most cantons now either have launched or are planning to launch quality assurance mechanisms that generate information for policy development and action. In the coming years, the cantons and the Confederation intend to develop, at the national level, a broad monitoring system in order to track the performance of education systems in the country.

101. Assessment practices vary greatly across cantons (see Table 6.2 in CBR) and are not always systematically applied within cantons. A culture of evaluation seems to be more established in the German-speaking part of the country and in Ticino. In most of French-speaking Switzerland, evaluation mechanisms are in early stages of implementation or subject to great controversy (e.g. no evaluation

35. In 2000, an estimated 8 per cent of principals of primary and lower secondary schools in the German-speaking region of Switzerland reported having a global budget envelope at their disposal (CBR and Dal Gobbo and Peyer-Sigrist, 2000). The compulsory schools we visited operated on the basis of budgets agreed by the commune.

system is currently planned for Geneva, Jura and Vaud). Two characteristics of the existing schemes emerge. First, most of the systems tend to combine self-assessment with an external evaluation. Second, assessment tends to focus on the evaluation of a school as a whole rather than on the individual teacher or other school staff.

102. The cantonal board of inspectors is responsible for school oversight in most of the cantons. This authority monitors the implementation of cantonal laws, adherence to the curricula, and review of methods, among other things. In recent years, the duties of inspectors have included advisory activities and promotion of educational projects. The focus is progressively shifting to school development and assistance with the resolution of conflicts. Inspectors are typically former experienced teachers with training acquired in continuing education courses.

103. Teachers are assessed typically by local authorities or cantonal bodies. In some cantons, teachers are assessed within the context of the evaluation of schools. The method generally involves classroom observation and an interview with the teacher. Practice varies greatly across and within cantons in terms of the frequency, methodology, inspectors' qualifications and instruments for assessment. In upper secondary schools the school principal might also be directly involved in the feedback that is provided to teachers.

3: STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES IN TEACHER POLICY

3.1 System Governance and Funding

104. The organisation of the Swiss school system has considerable strengths. First, the strategies emerge from local or regional actors and levels, rather than "top-down" from the Confederation or the canton. In this way, schools respond to local and regional circumstances and interests, at a level where adaptations take into account specific cultural and linguistic patterns as well as economic and educational needs. A recent trend is to increase the margin for school-level decision making, which in our view should further strengthen the responsiveness and effectiveness of educational and management practices. We gained the impression, in our conversations with parents as well as members of school commissions that communities feel close to their schools.

105. Second, cantons and the Confederation collaborate effectively. While each canton has formal responsibility for education provided within its borders, the cantons and the Confederation have found effective ways to work together and to develop and implement guidelines that serve regional or national aims as well as needs and interests specific to the individual canton. The EDK/CDIP and the four regional consultative conferences effectively provide the framework for co-ordination among the cantons, and serve as an independent forum for developing, testing and exchanging new policies. Harmonisation seeks agreement on common standards, while leaving to cantons and regions greater scope for how such standards are to be implemented.

106. Third, consultation is a featured, effective hallmark of the decision-making process. There is wide participation from many different stakeholders in discussions, ensuring responsiveness to the various needs and interests. Direct democracy, through which any law can be brought to public vote, encourages public authorities at all levels to consult widely so as to arrive at decisions that enlist near-consensus support. Teacher associations/unions play a particularly important role, beyond formal participation in consultative processes. Teacher unions initiate activities of research and reflection on education issues and approaches, engage teachers in discussions on the matters raised, and contribute findings and views in the

wider arena. In short, consultation is thorough, inclusive and on our brief review, thoughtful; the agreements reached are solid; and the ground is laid for follow-through and engagement from all parties.

107. Finally, the education infrastructure and the level of resources are generally good. Our impression of facilities and staffing broadly aligned with the national and comparative statistics that show relatively favourable levels of overall spending and of teachers' compensation.

108. The challenges for policy in this area emerge, to some extent, from the same features or approaches that have served the education system well, in terms of governance and financing. First, the decision-making process requires both time and effort, and thus can lead to a lack of timeliness on matters that warrant relatively immediate decisions or to a reluctance to take up a matter. Someone involved in the process observed that the time frame for response is very short, at a moment when the issues have become more complex. Consultation, as a key feature of the decision-making process, has a further indirect consequence, in that lines of accountability blur as those who participate in a decision are not necessarily responsible for providing support nor for implementation.

109. Second, notwithstanding the generally good level of resources and favourable state of the infrastructure, the system is experiencing budget cuts. Budget constraints make it more difficult to take initiatives, as activities must be undertaken through re-allocation rather than application of additional resources. Budget cuts, without flexibility to make re-allocations owing to contract obligations, may lead to the loss of key staff, particularly technical or other support staff not otherwise protected by contract.

110. Third, in our view, the research and information base is narrow and plays a noticeably limited role in the monitoring of the education system and in informing teacher policy. Data on teachers or educational performance are not systematically collected throughout the country. In addition, educational authorities are not active in promoting research on Swiss education, and publicising the results. This is reflected in the limited research on education that is undertaken in academic institutions. Until the recent reform of initial teacher education, the relatively weak research and information base was due in part to the location of most teacher education programmes (and staff) below the tertiary level. Further, those universities that offer teacher education course modules have not (with some exceptions, such as the University of Geneva) given high priority to research in this area.

111. Fourth, Swiss education offers limited options for choice of schools at primary, lower secondary, or upper secondary level. Student in-take is largely confined to a specific catchment area. However, an individual school that establishes a distinctive profile is unable to attract students from outside the area who find the profile meets their particular interests and needs. Parents, too, have limited options: in the first instance through the neighbourhood and community in which they choose to live and, further, through some (limited) private schools.

112. Finally, parent associations in most cantons have no institutionalised and clearly-defined role in the schools, or system. The right of parents to participate in decision-making is institutionalised only to a limited degree: *direct democracy* at the commune level grants all citizens the right to express their views; at the canton level participation rights are granted through the parliament, via *referendums* and *ballot initiatives*. Parents are represented in the school commissions and in some cantons, various flexible rules provide for the collaboration of parents in school matters (Cusin, 2000). In a few cantons, reforms include more explicit regulations governing parents' rights.

3.2 Initial Teacher Education

113. No field of teacher policy is under as substantial or rapid transformation as teacher education. The reforms build on strengths outside of teacher education as well as embedded within the new concept of

teacher education. First, the change strategy relies heavily on an accepted and understood process of co-ordination that brings together all parties (among which canton authorities and teacher unions) and envisages roles for various bodies in the realisation of the reform. The EDK/CDIP plays an important role, informing and guiding the development of new regulations for consideration, by canton authorities as well as other parties. Co-ordination also provides a basis for the development of a number of partnerships, between PH/HEP and the communes or schools, and in some instances between PH/HEP and university faculties of education and also in the disciplines. Decisions that lead to sometimes painful consequences (e.g. obliging trainers at teacher seminaries to compete for posts at the new PH/HEP) are reached with less resistance because all parties are consulted and consensus is sought on matters of need, consequences, and implementation. The manner of co-ordination also leads to a reform concept that holds considerable promise to succeed, through a process in which (in the words of the EDK/CDIP) “the objectives are standardised, but the means to reach them (study programmes, teaching methods, traditions of pedagogy and didactics) can differ” (EDK/CDIP, 2002).

114. Second, the teacher education reform leads the system to respond better to the needs of schools. In this respect, the upgrading of all initial teacher education to university level both raises the professional standards of the study programmes and opens up possibilities for continuous updating and deepening through applied research undertaken at the PH/HEP as well as in partnership with university faculties. The reform also anticipates greater articulation between initial teacher education and professional development, as the PH/HEP shoulder shared responsibility for training at different career stages and in relation to identified school or canton needs. Finally, agreed standards for teacher education graduates and the recognition of diplomas throughout the country afford greater geographic choice for initial teacher education and, on graduation, for jobs in teaching.

115. Third, the teacher education reform establishes consensus around some important principles, including better integration of discipline-based studies and pedagogical training, common competencies for teachers at all levels, better integration of practice and theory, formalised partnerships with schools, and better alignment with school standards and the professional profile of teachers. Another promising reform being introduced through the creation of PH/HEP is that of *modularisation* of studies, allowing for greater flexibility within teacher education programmes. If appropriately implemented, modularisation could create horizontal linkages between subjects that have previously been isolated from one another; enhance the inclusion of more practical elements into the curriculum; open new possibilities for interfaces between initial training and on-going professional development; make course structures more transparent and improve quality management; make programmes more flexible, increasing their accessibility to a wide range of students, making it easier for students to move from one programme to another or one PH/HEP to another, facilitating the possibility for students to obtain an extra degree covering another level of education; and recognise earlier studies or work experiences and make it easier for “side-entrants” to join the teaching profession.

116. Fourth, given the importance of ensuring the influence of schools on teacher education and of providing to student teachers an early contact with the realities of teaching, the allocation of 20-30% of the total amount of study time to classroom practice is to be supported (see Box 2 for a description of the approach followed by the HEP in Vaud).

Box 2: Partnerships with schools: the example of the *Haute École Pédagogique du Canton de Vaud*

Practical training in schools represents about a third of the initial education of a teacher in the *Haute École Pédagogique du Canton de Vaud* and is undertaken in the context of formal partnerships with schools. It is based on four main components:

- Pedagogical workshops;
- Didactical workshops;
- Short internships;
- Long internships.

The pedagogical workshops, part of short internships, are intended to familiarise student teachers with school realities, the dynamics of classroom teaching and the principles underlying it, at an early stage of their education. They are organised in partner schools and involve the collaboration between teacher educators (located in the HEP), teaching practice trainers (“*practiciens formateurs*”, school teachers at the partner school) and host teachers (“*maîtres hôtes*”, school teachers at the partner school). Four short internships, planned in the initial phase of the training, involve participation in school activities, classroom observation, and interaction with the different actors in schools. The didactical workshops, organised at the intermediary stage of the training, bring student teachers to partner schools for one-day discussions on class preparation, classroom interaction and teaching methods. The long-term internship, offered at the final stage of the training, is the key element of students’ school experience. Typically, it lasts two semesters (not necessarily consecutive), involves the responsibility for 50% of the teaching of a given class and is closely followed by a school teacher (teaching practice trainer) and teacher educators from the HEP of Vaud.

At the start of each school year, the HEP of Vaud establishes a formal partnership with about 80 schools through a two-year contract which sets the principles and operational aspects of the collaboration. The roles of the teaching practice trainers (“*practiciens formateurs*”) and host teachers (“*maîtres hôtes*”), who are regular teachers at the partner schools, are particularly important. The teaching practice trainers play a key role in the collaboration between the HEP of Vaud and schools as they directly interact with teacher educators and provide input regarding the structure and content of teacher education programmes. They conceive and organise the pedagogical and didactical workshops offered in schools to student teachers and they follow and evaluate students in their final internship. Their teaching duties at the school are reduced to accommodate their services as teaching practice trainers, which are in turn paid by the HEP of Vaud. The host teachers agree to receive, for 4 weeks per semester, student teachers for short internships and the associated pedagogical workshops. They serve as advisors and follow student teachers in their participation in school activities and classroom observation. They also receive some monetary compensation for their services from the HEP of Vaud.

117. The current reform period also gives rise to some concerns. First, notwithstanding the nation-wide reach of the PH/HEP reform, the new teacher education establishments operate differently from each other in many respects, including the structure, contents and emphasis of programmes, the requirements for student entry, the background of teacher educators and the collaboration with university faculties. This can have both advantages and disadvantages.³⁶ For instance, the degree of freedom granted to PH/HEP can foster innovative approaches and open the possibility for individual or groups of PH/HEP to specialise in some particular areas or approaches. On the other hand, such variation in approach can create problems for the mobility of students between PH/HEP in the course of their studies or for their aptitude for a teaching position in a canton other than the one(s) associated with the PH/HEP where the training is provided. This is particularly the case for those students who enter PH/HEP with no *Matura* diploma and who go through alternative entry procedures which, across PH/HEP, are currently very diverse and with no automatic guarantee of recognition.

36. Issues arising from the multiplicity of approaches to the implementation of PH/HEP in the German-speaking part of Switzerland and in Latin Switzerland are treated in Schärer (2002) and Maradan (2002) respectively.

118. Second, a particularly critical aspect is the degree of preparation of teacher educators in the PH/HEP. An important part of the physical and human infrastructure was inherited from the former 150 teacher seminaries. Considerable efforts were made to identify those teachers in the former seminars better suited to work in the PH/HEP and special training was often offered to them. However, it will take a substantial effort to prepare teacher educators for all the challenges PH/HEP are proposing to face. Among these, research activities in the PH/HEP and in collaboration with universities remain very limited, diverse and essentially local in nature. PH/HEP simply seem to be currently lacking human resources to take on that task. In addition, PH/HEP have yet to develop programmes in other areas they intend to cover such as training for school management, training for evaluation and quality assurance, or induction of beginning teachers.

119. Third, some PH/HEP may lack sufficient size, including human and financial resources, to effectively mount the full range of teacher training and research activities. In the German-speaking region, the ratio between enrolments in the largest and smallest PH/HEP is 8 to 1, compared to a ratio of 3 to 1 in other regions (Schärer, 2002). However, both re-grouping small PH/HEP into a larger PH/HEP or establishing the means for a large PH/HEP to share and support teaching and research activities with a small PH/HEP have the disadvantage of reducing choices for students. On this matter, the experience in establishing *hautes écoles spécialisées/Fachhochschulen* (HES/FH) in other applied fields could be instructive. The PH/HEP risk a certain isolation, neither connected or conceived as part of a system of universities of applied sciences (HES/FH), but more broadly defined, nor on equal standing with the universities. A related aspect is the importance of the links with universities, which could provide an impetus for research activities and establish the grounds for good collaboration in the teaching of subject didactics, in particular. The impression formed by the review team is that tensions persist and that collaboration with university departments has yet to be developed beyond its narrow and limited base.

120. Fourth, co-ordination and harmonisation of teacher education across cantons has yet to be achieved for upper-secondary education (both academic and vocational). A further difficulty is that, as in many other countries, universities are often reluctant to recognise teacher education as one of their key functions and to accept this as an autonomous professional area. The establishment of the PH/HEP gives the opportunity to develop links with universities, raise the profile of its educational sciences departments, and improve the teaching of subject didactics. Also, initial teacher education is not required for the majority of part-time vocational teachers, who carry the largest share of the teaching load. For those vocational teachers on the job, teaching loads of 20 lessons per week leave little time for their own training as teachers. Furthermore, very few cantons offer flexible programmes in pedagogy/didactics appropriate for “side-entrants” -- individuals with work experience outside education but no initial teacher education.

121. Fifth, there appears to be relatively little research on the entrants to teacher education, in particular in light of the potential effects of the new structure of teacher education not only on the number of individuals wishing to engage in teacher education but also on their characteristics.

3.3 Teachers' Professional Development

122. As is the case for initial teacher education, the strategy for change in the provision of professional development is considered, relying on consultation and participation with all parties. The committees, working groups, discussion papers and forums organised and co-ordinated by the EDK/CDIP lead to strategies that are built on experiences and knowledge from different perspectives. This not only permits the identification of potential needs and difficulties in the process of developing strategies for professional development of teachers, but also provides a good basis for the engagement of all parties in the implementation of the strategies chosen.

123. Second, there is official acceptance in Switzerland of the need for induction and the continuing professional development of teachers. There is also a realisation of the need for qualitative improvements in the forms of in-service education being provided. Provision is organised and available through a variety of providers and means, of varying lengths, and so it is potentially responsive to a wide range of particular needs. There is also a tradition of teacher engagement in in-service training.

124. Third, in most cantons, professional development is conceived as a right and a responsibility of the teacher. The obligation to undertake continuous education and development, being discussed at the country level, aligns with the emerging view of the teacher as a professional. It establishes the basis for accountability for taking steps to improve practice, on the part of the teacher as much as on the part of the canton and/or school committee.

125. Fourth, professional development activities appear to be reasonably well-financed and supported based on our limited review of provision in a few cantons. In some cantons and for some types of professional development, the support typically covers the direct costs of the instruction, and sometimes the indirect costs of the time teachers may be away from their classes. In addition, as noted above, participation levels seem to be above average within the OECD area.

126. To strengthen further professional development in support of teachers and teaching practice and school performance, policy attention will need to be directed at a few key challenges. First, there appears to be no strategy for professional development -- aligned to provision, career progression or needs -- for teachers of different levels and types of education. Professional development opportunities appear not to be conceived to provide a continuity of learning, with evaluation at each stage. Links remain weak between training on offer and the identified needs of teachers, of schools or in relation to school projects.

127. Second, the incentives for teachers to engage in professional development are sometimes inconsistent. While the costs of specific training activities might be covered by the educational authority, schools often are not given means to address the replacement of teachers undertaking in-service education activities. Mechanisms to replace teachers for short periods of time are not available and teachers often refrain from undertaking training because that might impose extra work on a colleague.

128. Third, the growing authority of school management in decisions on approval of and support for professional development has not generally been accompanied by a greater appreciation of – and use of -- the breadth and complementarity of the different types of training activities. The role of teachers in identifying their own (or school-wide) needs, and setting the timing for their own professional development remains weakly defined. The criteria for gaining approval and support from the school principal are not yet clear, nor is it evident how voluntary participation in professional activities will be considered in advancement in the school. In other instances, where training has been identified to address weaknesses, the evaluations leading to that determination remain ambiguous and the role of the school principal in such evaluations still contested.

129. Fourth, while teacher induction exists, it tends to be short, and lacks systematic planning and effective forms of implementation. A great deal depends on the school's initiative to trigger the interest of senior staff.

3.4 The Labour Market for Teachers

130. Several structural elements that characterise the labour market for teachers in Switzerland stand out as particularly relevant in contributing to its effectiveness. First, there is a considerable number of different employers (cantons and communes) which, coupled with the nationwide recognition of teaching

diplomas, improves the matching between the preferences and characteristics of individual teachers and the available supply of employers.

131. Secondly, the recruitment and selection processes appear to be transparent and effective. The selection of candidates seems to be done in a very thorough way (school visit, portfolio analysis, interviews, probationary class) and teachers are hired largely based on their quality, for instance by avoiding seniority priority rules. Vacancies also appear to be well advertised within cantons leading to high levels of transparency.

132. Third, despite the formal decision-making power of the school committees/commissions or Education Department of canton, having schools increasingly involved in the recruitment and selection of teachers increases the efficiency in addressing school-staffing needs as schools are better able to identify their specific necessities. In particular, school principals are granted better conditions to build a school team leading to a distinctive identity.

133. Despite these strengths, the Swiss labour market for teachers is currently faced with important challenges. First, difficulties in the recruitment of teachers are a reality for specific levels of education, areas of the country, and/or specific subjects. As illustrated earlier, the greatest difficulties appear to exist in lower-secondary education. During visits to schools, the review team heard supporting anecdotal evidence. A striking example was that of a teacher of chemistry in lower-secondary education (in a *Realschule*) who was trained as primary school teacher – a training complemented by in-school 2-week preparation provided by an experienced chemistry teacher. As stated by several principals during the visit “the best among the least good are recruited into schools”, in a reference to the small and low-quality pool of applicants for vacancies in their schools.

134. Cantons have adopted a wide range of responses to recruitment difficulties: encouraging part-time teachers to increase their number of contact hours (23 cantons); encouraging leavers to return to the profession and offering in-service training courses for teachers wishing to change their teaching level (16 cantons); providing training for people with experience outside education (11 cantons); increasing the number of places in initial teacher education programmes (ten cantons); introducing the possibility of modulating salaries as a function of the subject taught, reflecting labour-market shortages (Canton St. Gallen); bringing back retired teachers (six cantons), increasing class sizes (five cantons), increasing the number of compulsory contact hours per teacher (two cantons), reducing the number of lessons received per child (one canton).

135. Second, in the light of differences among the cantons regarding the balance between the demand for and the supply of teachers, the lack of mobility of teachers across the cantons is a key area for attention. The limited mobility has been partly due to unevenness in the recognition of teaching qualifications, and so new policies promoting standardisation and recognition on a nation-wide basis hold promise for improved mobility. Yet the considerable differences across cantons of school system structures and some linkage between the latter and initial teacher education systems remain as key obstacles to mobility. It is clear that a full integration of the teacher labour market at the country level is far from being achieved.

136. Third, no structured system to address (short-term) replacements in schools³⁷ seems to exist in most cantons. Schools need a means through which they can find a prompt solution for the immediate short-term substitution of teachers. The review team learned, for example, that a class was cancelled at one school because the school was unable to locate a substitute teacher to cover for the class teacher engaged

37. Similar to, for example, the “Supply Pool” in the United Kingdom or the “Replacement Pool” in the Flemish Community of Belgium.

that day on a professional development activity. The lack of a flexible, reliable replacement system has the potential to hinder professional development activities of teachers as well as to disrupt school programmes.

137. Fourth, the current incentive structure does not encourage mobility between education and other sectors of activity. In particular, the recognition of the qualifications, experience and skills acquired in sectors other than education is very limited. In addition, most cantons have not yet developed procedures to grant the certification of “side-entrants” for teaching, for instance through in-service education courses on pedagogy and didactics. The PH Zürich provides one example of a sort of “side entrants” programme, for candidates with a professional background. These students can complete teacher training in less time and combined with a part-time teaching job that provides on-the-job experience as well as a “trainee salary”. Initial teacher education programmes need also to provide graduates with qualifications having labour market relevance outside education. Broader qualifications give scope for a greater movement from education to other sectors, more easily adapting the system to periods of excess supply of teachers and permitting exchanges with other economic sectors with potential benefits for education.

138. Fifth, cantons do not seem to have the data collection and analysis capacities to assist them in developing a long-term strategy in recruitment (an exception is Canton Geneva, which has set up a monitoring system). The monitoring of the situation of the teacher labour market is also not carried out at the national level. However, the ongoing EDK/CDIP project to develop national strategies to recruit teachers provides a promising base for further development (Müller Kucera *et al*, 2002).

3.5 Teachers' Career Structure and Incentives

139. Some features of the formal system to recognise the work of teachers considerably improve the attractiveness of the profession. A prominent favourable aspect is that the average salaries of teachers are competitive both relative to those of teachers in other countries and those of other occupations requiring similar qualifications within Switzerland. Salaries of Swiss teachers are among the best in the OECD area. This is particularly the case when they start their career – among OECD countries, starting salaries in Switzerland rank 2nd in primary schools and 1st in both lower secondary and general upper secondary education³⁸ – and in upper secondary education, a level at which Swiss teachers are the best paid in the OECD area at any stage of the career (Appendix 4). In addition, salaries of teachers are also competitive relative to other professions. An analysis of salaries, taking into account hours of work, age, professional training, experience, position within the profession, geographic region, and gender, shows that teacher pay compares favourably with pay in other sectors, among which health and social work and public administration. Pay in the financial services and insurance sector is relatively higher, while pay in wholesale and retail trade and the hospitality sector is relatively lower (see Annex 3 of CBR). The level of teacher salaries relative to GDP *per capita* reinforces this impression as they stand clearly above the values in other OECD countries, in particular in upper secondary education (2nd highest ratio) (Appendix 4).

140. Notwithstanding the comparatively high salary levels in Switzerland, real growth in salaries at each stage of the teaching career has been greater for the OECD as a whole in comparison to Switzerland. In general terms, Swiss teacher pay in the five-year period from 1996 to 2001 remained roughly steady (1 and 3% real salary loss at the beginning and middle of the career respectively, and a real increase at the top

38. Salaries at the top of the salary scale compare almost as impressively: on average, within the OECD area, they rank 3rd, 2nd, and 1st in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary (general programmes) education respectively. This is the result of a salary progression that is about average (as revealed by the ratios of salaries at different stages of the career, see Appendix 4). For any level of education, at the start of their career, the salary of Swiss teachers amounts to approximately 65% of the maximum salary while in the middle of their career (after 15 years of experience) the corresponding figure is about 85% (Appendix 4).

of the career of between 1 and 2% for lower and secondary education respectively). Over that same period, teacher salaries across the OECD region increased between 6 and 10% in real terms for the different schooling levels and career stages (Appendix 4).

141. Another strength of the Swiss system lies in the existing contractual arrangements. First, a lifetime contract is not offered. This avoids the rigidity of a form of job security that often fails to give teachers the incentives to continuously challenge their skills and improve their practice. It also brings teachers closer to the levels of job security of workers in the private sector, with advantages to the image they hold among the general public. In addition, the recent reforms regarding the employment status of teachers introduce elements – contracts which are indefinite but terminable if underperformance or redundancy occurs - which can potentially provide more flexibility in the management of the teaching workforce. If applied with attention to student learning and school strategic plans, the new employment arrangements can improve the way the system addresses performance for the teacher and the school. Finally, a further positive element is that the needs of the school system (e.g. influenced, for instance, by the number of students) define the number of teaching posts available, rather than the result of a legal claim to employment granted to teachers upon graduation. These contractual elements place decision points at several stages of the teaching career, encouraging both teachers and employers to consider different paths or deployments. Entry into and exit from school posts can be more aligned with needs, and the problem of a poorly performing teacher can be more readily handled. Also, while essential job protection is assured under public employment laws, the new employment contracts provide somewhat more security for younger teachers, who will no longer be squeezed out because of civil service/seniority rights.

142. Along the same lines, the existence of a probationary period upon entering the teaching profession in most cantons provides a means to identify in early career those teachers who are unsuited for teaching and the profession.

143. Another positive aspect is the flexibility the system offers to teachers to choose the amount of work best corresponding to their interests and needs. Part-time teaching is widely used on a voluntary basis by a significant proportion of the teaching workforce, especially by women, and reflects the fact that relatively high levels of pay make part-time teaching an attractive option.³⁹ This introduces some flexibility in career paths, adapted both to the needs of teachers opting for part-time work and to the staffing requirements of schools.

144. Despite these strengths, the structure to reward and recognise the work of Swiss teachers faces some important challenges. First, compensation is related to a very limited number of aspects – in effect, the type of initial teacher education and years of experience. Rewards for extra responsibilities or additional duties are not provided, with a few exceptions (e.g. management roles). The financial rewards do not reflect the totality of tasks a teacher is now expected to perform. Similarly, the extent to which the compensation package is related to performance is still limited in terms and coverage. Also, the current compensation package does not recognise the different nature of the tasks to be performed -- defined, for instance, by working conditions, remoteness of school area, or subject speciality. The stratified nature of the labour market for teachers is not acknowledged by the existing incentive structure. Further, the existing criteria can lead to high costs with the ageing (and associated higher qualifications) of the teacher workforce. High salary costs owing to a relatively senior teaching force squeeze out margins in the budget envelope to provide targeted support for innovation and quality initiatives.

39. A possible alternative explanation for the high proportion of teachers voluntarily taking the part-time option is that a full-time commitment, relative to compensation, entails an increasingly demanding workload.

145. Second, opportunities for promotion are scarce, a situation often mentioned by teachers as hindering the attractiveness of the profession. Teachers may acquire further qualifications to teach additional subjects or at another school level. The remaining possibilities are to be promoted to head of department, to a management position, or to assume a new role in the educational system such as inspector. Little diversification of careers exists. The existing scope for career diversification includes taking on new school responsibilities such as the management of school projects, the co-ordination of in-service training, the mentoring of beginning teachers, or assume new tasks outside school, for instance in the provision of in-service education. Nonetheless these new roles are still not institutionalised in Swiss schools and the associated duties are not reflected on teachers' reward packages. Moreover, in the few cantons (e.g. St. Gallen) that offer promotion posts (in the sense of moving to a higher salary scale) these are not associated with new roles and responsibilities. At a time when new tasks and roles are being introduced in response to school needs, the lack of opportunities for more diverse career paths stands as a barrier to attracting, retaining and effectively deploying teachers.

146. Third, the rewards package relies primarily on salaries. There appears to be far less creative use of other types of reward mechanisms, such as time-allowances, sabbatical periods, leaves of absence, professional development opportunities, or teaching awards. These types of mechanisms might be effective in targeting specific needs of individual teachers as well as of the school and education system.

147. Fourth, salary differentials across schooling levels, which are argued to be justified on the basis of the duration of initial teacher education, are substantial. For any stage of the career, the ratio of salaries in upper secondary general education to salaries in primary education stands at around 1.4 while the corresponding figure when salaries in upper secondary education are compared to salaries in lower secondary education is around 1.2. Both these values are above typical figures in the OECD area, considering countries where the duration of studies also differs. Moreover, salary differentials between primary and lower secondary teachers are more difficult to justify as, in most cantons, for schools with no advanced courses, the duration of initial education is the same. Also, in light of the recent reform of initial teacher education calling for longer studies for teachers preparing to teach in primary and part of lower secondary schools, there seems to be less reason to maintain the existing salary differentials on the basis of required levels of preparation.

148. Finally, no apparent policy, at present, aims at preventing the early retirement of teachers. Retention of such teachers would not only help to address areas where recruitment difficulties exist, but maintain an important balance of experience in the classroom and on school-wide matters.

3.6 Teachers at the Workplace

149. The attractiveness and effectiveness of teaching is enhanced – or undermined – by the way teachers experience the job “on the ground”. In many respects, the conditions of work are quite favourable, representing particular strengths in the Swiss case. First, teachers perceive and greatly value the professional autonomy that they exercise in their teaching. Within their classes and related to their fields, teachers generally take their own decisions on what and how to teach and on the evaluation of student work. As expressed to us, that sense of professional autonomy is an important reason teachers like what they do (and remain in teaching). It also implies a sense of professional responsibility for (or ownership of) teaching, and for the learning and development of those they teach. In our visits to schools we witnessed a strong professional commitment among teachers and good relationships between teachers and students. For example, teachers in lower secondary education routinely assist students prepare CVs and find internships (*stages*) on the way to a first job. From this, teachers also maintain a familiarity with the world young adults experience on leaving the school.

150. Second, the infrastructure for teaching and teachers appears to be good. The facilities for teacher preparation and planning in the schools visited by the review team were good in that they sometimes consisted of an individual desk space and computer. Schools were well-designed, with well-equipped classrooms. In those schools, teachers seemed to benefit from conditions permitting them to carry out some of their tasks at the school. Furthermore, the physical facilities and the instructional materials were of very good quality.

151. Third, class sizes are below OECD average both in primary (20 pupils per class against an OECD average of 22) and lower secondary education (19 against an OECD average of about 24). Swiss teachers of 15-year olds also benefit from a relatively good class disciplinary climate, as revealed by the PISA questionnaire to students (Appendix 4).

152. Despite these positive aspects, the work of teachers in schools is currently faced with important challenges. First, teachers are grappling with new demands from parents, from students with particular backgrounds (e.g cultural and linguistic minorities), interests and needs (e.g special needs), and from new administrative and management tasks given over to the school. They are also faced with new areas of responsibility such as working and planning in teams, developing civic and social skills, being part of a learning community, and evaluation and systematic school improvement planning. In many instances, the responses to these demands imply departures from prior concepts of what teachers should do. For example, a teacher may be asked to function as supervisor of staff hired to cover extended day arrangements (*Tageschule*). Although such challenges may be stressful for many teachers, most seemed to respond very positively and to take satisfaction from their work of educating difficult children and supporting their development. Many schools also benefit from extra resources to improve the proficiency of immigrant students in the language of instruction.

153. Yet, there is no clear, well-defined job profile that lays out the tasks and roles for teachers in schools. The lack of such a profile gives rise to an excessive burdening of the tasks performed by some teachers, and some of those tasks might be perceived by teachers as outside the bounds of a teacher's professional responsibilities. In addition, without a clear profile, unevenness in teachers' workloads emerges as some of the tasks are undertaken on a voluntary basis. Furthermore, by conceiving teachers' work typically in terms of classroom teaching hours, less scope exists to involve teachers in the overall activity of the school as an organisation. For example, teachers are not expected to be at school when they do not have classroom teaching, which limits the scope for collaborative work and whole-school planning.

154. Teachers have a perception of a heavy workload, mostly as a consequence of the new demands and diversified tasks. Some of those with whom we discussed these matters claimed that changes in workload had prompted current or prospective full-time teachers to opt for part-time teaching arrangements. The claim itself raises the more important point: as demands and workload increase, the job as experienced "on the ground" becomes less attractive and the motivation and effectiveness of those in post may be reduced. Teachers feel unable to find time for more collaboration because of the pressure of additional duties and fitting in their own class planning and preparation. Some teachers referred to a lack of resources to cope with new demands and tasks. They identified as a possible solution additional support staff (e.g. teacher assistants, student counsellors, psychologists), who could assist in addressing new tasks and so permit teachers to concentrate on their core responsibilities.

3.7 School Management and Leadership

155. The current changes build on the ways schools and school staff have, in the past, worked. Prior and ongoing features serve as evident strengths in the exercise at school-level of management and leadership functions. First, schools function as collegial organisations, with a shared sense of "the school"

on the part of those who work there. In the schools we visited, teachers assumed leadership on various initiatives, sometimes as part of additional or changed formal assignments to become a member of a senior school management team or sometimes as an informal, ad hoc effort undertaken on behalf of the school or all or part of the teaching staff. As best we could judge, teachers see participation in, and occasionally taking the lead on, the oversight or development of various school matters as within the broad professional boundaries of their work.

156. Second, schools are gaining a larger margin over decisions on site. School principals have a role in teacher evaluation and decisions on training, and the school is granted a say in recruitment, selection and deployment of staff, in planning and school profiling as well as in more directed pedagogical matters.

157. Third, school principals have now acquired experience with new responsibilities, and the school direction appears to be functioning well. The schools we visited relied on a senior management “team”, with differing combinations of department or subject area heads, deputy school principals, and senior teachers with some responsibilities, e.g., for the organisation of professional development. The teams considered staffing needs and concerns, including recruitment and induction.

158. Fourth, targeted training for school leaders now exists in many cantons (e.g. Basel, Bern, Solothurn, Thurgau, Zürich, cantons from Central Switzerland), and private organisations can request the EDK/CDIP to accredit their school management and leadership training programmes. Development in this field is recent and rapid, and training modules and programmes will warrant monitoring, evaluation and adaptation as experience “on the ground” continues to shape the way school heads and leadership teams function and schools are managed.

159. If management and leadership at the school level are to provide the kind of dynamic development anticipated in the light of emerging demands and new and continuing constraints, policy will need to address a number of challenges. First, school committees or commissions often lack the expertise to take the decisions that they are charged to make. No systematic means yet exist for either the development of that capacity (formally or informally), or for drawing on the advice of senior school staff, or for sharpening the lines of responsibility and accountability of the school committees. Moreover, participation on school committees or commissions, on our understanding, has been seen by some as a step in a career in politics. Members with such motivations may have less connection, background or interest in the functioning of the school and its staff, and how parents, businesses, and community groups could be consulted and engaged on educational matters.

160. Second, schools tend to lack long-run strategies, developed out of a shared vision for the school and its profile and, linked to that, a strategy for human resource staffing and development. School principals and senior school staff are obliged to respond to immediate needs, but these responses are not necessarily located within a longer term strategy or vision for the school. School committees or commissions, where formal responsibilities are lodged, do not provide such a strategy or vision. While members of school committees or commissions with whom we spoke looked to the school for the development of the school profile, school principals and senior school staff relied on the committees or commissions for direction. One consequence is that the profile of the school appears to be developed more or less independently and reactively, rather than as a result of reflection on the part of the school principal and his or her team.

161. Third, the role of the school principal is in evolution. The position is unclear, with respect to the school committee and also teachers. Those with whom we spoke described different ways to view the job profile (and responsibilities) of the principal: as a “parent” responsible for and available to handle the concerns of individual school staff; as a manager/administrator responsible for the allocation of resources, more or less including staff recruitment and deployment, in line with regulations and school committee

decisions; as a head teacher responsible for the development, delivery, coherence, and performance of the overall teaching programme and student learning. More generally, the responsibilities and lines of accountability are not sufficiently clear about, nor aligned in, two related areas: human resource development and resource allocation. Without clear responsibilities in these areas, school principals cannot be held accountable for achieving the aims.

3.8 Evaluation and Accountability for Improvement

162. Evaluation and accountability processes, a strong if still developing area in the OECD region, are important targets for Swiss education and teacher policy. There are some strengths on which to build. First, significant steps are being taken in order to institute a culture of evaluation and accountability. Switzerland has over the past ten years played an active international role in developmental work on the evaluation of system and school performance and the assessment of knowledge and learning – e.g. PISA, IALS (International Adult Literacy Survey), DeSeCo (Definition and Selection of Competencies). Federal and cantonal authorities have used international and comparative indicators to benchmark Swiss performance, indeed seizing the opportunity of comparative surveys to examine patterns of performance within Switzerland (e.g. comparisons of PISA results have been developed at canton level for the German-speaking and French-speaking regions). Also, the EDK/CDIP is currently preparing recommendations to guide the process of evaluation/assessment. Five types of measures have been identified: (i) establishment of indicators, including student examinations; (ii) ensure the quality of the recruitment and management of the teaching workforce; (iii) set clear standards; (iv) establish external inspections (e.g. inspectorate, peer reviews); and (v) develop self-evaluation (EDK/CDIP, 2003c). The process of establishing a broad assessment system to monitor the performance of education in the country has also started.

163. Second, evaluation tends to focus on schools rather than individual teachers. Evaluation results thus tend to inform school-wide reflection and reform, and draw in all teachers as well as other parties. Third, teachers appear to take responsibility for assessing their own needs for professional development and receive more support and advice from the school management and school inspection than in the past.

164. As in other countries, however, Switzerland needs to raise its game. To do so, several challenges will need to be addressed. First, the lines of accountability are unclear. Different stakeholders have responsibility for decision-making, and on a number of matters, governance is shared among, e.g., school principals, school committees, communes or cantons. The increased scope for decision-making by schools is not backed up by clear accountability review and measures. Shared governance complicates accountability: school principals may be given the specific task of securing improvements in student achievement, but lack the means, conditions or authority to make changes needed to successfully carry out the task. Moreover, accountability is weak for school committees, communes, or cantons; difficulties or weak performance of schools may lead citizens to vote against incumbents (the ultimate accountability), but there appear to be no means, for example, for canton or commune authorities to replace members or intercede in the work of school committees that are not addressing pressing school-level needs.

165. Second, school evaluation targeted on quality development and improvement, with clear measures of performance in view, does not seem to be consistently and systematically used throughout the education system. While individual schools may profit from evaluation efforts targeted on specific needs and concerns, all schools will benefit from a system-wide school evaluation process that covers common areas of school development and quality improvement and permits comparisons of results as a means to identify more clearly the most promising approaches and practices. In this respect, there is a lack of systematic information on the effectiveness or performance of schools available to canton authorities. The project *HarmoS* (“Harmonisation of standards at national level”) and the National Monitoring System Project, both decided in 2002 but not yet implemented, seek to overcome these deficiencies. Similarly, in

many schools, there are no regular mechanisms by which teachers can benefit from feedback from their peers or schools managers. Apart from anything else, the lack of regular feedback to teachers about their work is likely to increase their sense of professional isolation and build the perception that their efforts are not appreciated.

166. Third, professional development for teachers and school principals does not seem to be sufficiently linked to the results of individual or school-level evaluation. Instances of good practice notwithstanding, there is too little “supervision pour soutien”. At present, teachers, schools and canton authorities have very little information on the professional development needs of teachers. As a consequence, professional development opportunities are not always aligned with needs.

167. Fourth, there is a lack of tools, methods and school-level expertise for appraisal of staff performance. Practices are ad hoc and isolated, not systematic and structured. Fifth, most teachers are not routinely involved in less formal self- and peer-evaluation activities, such as mutual classroom visits and other forms of concrete peer reviews and consultations. However, where such practices providing for appraisal and evaluation of teachers are in place, in some schools and some cantons, there is benefit to be gained from evaluating and disseminating that experience to schools as a whole.

4: PRIORITIES FOR FUTURE POLICY DEVELOPMENT

168. The suggestions that follow are intended to help the Swiss school system meet the challenges of attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers. They seek to build on initiatives that are already underway, and which further strengthen the traditions of decentralisation and local autonomy within an overall framework of quality assurance. These suggestions are based on the review team’s observations, discussions and reading, especially of the policy discussions in the comprehensive background report (Müller Kucera and Stauffer, 2003). They are offered for evaluation and debate, with the understanding that recent and on-going developments necessitate that they need to be adjusted for changing circumstances.

4.1 Strengthening and Modernising Governance

169. Given the shared view of the need to improve the competitiveness of Swiss education, the harmonisation of standards, the close monitoring of performance (through pupil evaluation), raising the level of professional standards for teaching (through the PH/HEP reform), and improving student and teacher mobility (through the nation-wide recognition of qualifications) should be continued and reinforced. Consideration could be given to other means to support the aims of harmonisation with respect to teachers, most particularly through financial incentives in support of students crossing canton boundaries or regions to enter initial teacher education and of new teachers (and experienced) teachers to consider taking up vacancies in other cantons or regions. The experience with the hautes écoles spécialisées/Fachhochschulen would be relevant.

170. As a greater margin for decisions is given over to individual schools and school leadership, roles and responsibilities of the different levels of governance would gain from further clarification. Our recommendation is to further clarify through policies the realisation of the principles of new public

management applied to the education system. The features, many in place, call for each canton (now in agreement with other cantons) to establish standards to be met and, through evaluation, to gauge the performance of the education system and each school. Individual schools are left to organise teaching in ways that best promote student performance against the standards, taking account of the backgrounds and interests of students and local communities and the strengths and profiles of the school's teaching staff.

171. Means of accountability need to be clarified for canton authorities, both with respect to performance against standards and levels and use of resources (human and financial). In this connection, cantons may wish to consider how far the allocation of resources to individual schools could be tied to the extent to which schools meet the standards. Cantons and the Confederation might agree to address circumstances in particular communities or cantons that make it difficult for some schools to realise performance to standards. As another means of accountability, there is also scope to enlarge the school choice of parents, subject to capacity constraints. This together with school involvement in the recruitment of teachers would improve incentives for schools to increase their demand for quality teachers. However, this requires a careful implementation as some counter-productive effects might occur, namely that schools in disadvantaged areas might find themselves in a more difficult position to secure quality teachers. This can be tackled by providing such schools with additional resources for attracting teachers. Finally, as is the case in other OECD countries, authorities should consider the institutionalisation of the participation of parents' organisations.

172. Recent budget cuts have imposed some austerity. However, the fact that Switzerland is among the top OECD countries as regards expenditure per student (for all levels of education), indicates that there is room for using the currently available resources better rather than increasing spending per student. This might also call for some re-allocation of resources within the school system.

173. There is an urgent need to develop a monitoring system drawing on data relevant to the teaching and education workforce to be collected in a systematic way across the country. This should involve the Confederation, the EDK/CDIP, and the cantons. In this respect, the effort by the EDK/CDIP through IDES (Information Documentation Education Suisse), as reflected in the periodical survey on the employment situation of teachers in Switzerland (Stauffer, 2001) stands out. Moreover, more research activities on education and the teaching profession should be supported by the Confederation and the cantonal educational authorities. This would reduce the current extensive gaps that exist in research domains such as teacher remuneration, teachers' professional status, teacher career paths, teacher workloads, or human resource management at school level. The recent completed tertiarisation of teacher education certainly enlarges the capacity to respond to this need.

4.2 Consolidating the Reform of Teacher Education

174. The reform of teacher education is at the top of the agenda of education policy in Switzerland and provides a unique opportunity to establish a sound basis for the sector, one of continuing dynamic improvement. Within this framework, several particular priorities became evident for the review team.

175. As the teacher education system continues to develop, several key aspects should be taken under consideration. The fundamental guiding component is the set of standards established for teacher education – a profile of the characteristics, knowledge and skills expected of teacher education graduates. This needs to be aligned with the profile of the teaching profession, in turn related to school current needs and demands. Certain competencies appear as critical, including: to be sensitive to different cultures and student backgrounds; to effectively respond to disadvantaged students and students with learning and behavioural problems; to use new technologies; to better communicate with parents; to keep pace with rapidly developing fields of knowledge; to work in teams; and to learn over a lifetime. In the light of this,

the concept of student learning in teacher education programmes should give increased opportunities for student active engagement and independent learning.

176. Initial teacher education should also be developed through study programmes that seek to develop the capacity to both anticipate change and to find ways to adapt to it and through provision that is sufficiently flexible to allow for pathways to and from other fields and programmes. The ideal to aim for is different flexible modes and structures but within common high standards, and course credits to facilitate mobility across cantons, across different sectors of schooling and between education and other economic sectors.

177. Another central goal should be to ensure the influence of the school sector over the structure and content of teacher education programmes, avoiding a domination of views coming from within teacher education institutions, namely at a time the PH/HEP are being established. Securing the participation of the teaching profession (through individual contributions, professional organisations, school involvement) in the organisation of teacher education programmes is surely valuable. Furthermore, partnerships between schools and teacher education institutions should be strengthened. Schools will need to have the time, training and resources to adequately supervise and support trainee teachers.⁴⁰ The education institutions' supervisors should work in association with mentors in schools, who ought to get some credit for their inputs by means of reduced fees for in-service courses, extra pay, or reduced teaching hours in the schools. We suggest that clear standards be established for schools which take part in practical training, and that their selection for this function be done through an accreditation procedure based on these standards. Involving practising teachers and school principals in teacher education course planning and delivery will also help to better reflect the new challenges that schools face.

178. The diversity of approaches in setting up the PH/HEP entails potential benefits. It grants PH/HEP the potential for innovation, development of specific strengths and building of a distinctive profile. This broadens the scope of approaches the students can choose from, making the system more demand-driven. But there is the risk that, in doing so, PH/HEP are tempted to limit themselves to local needs and resources, losing their national dimension and compromising the demand-driven national system of teacher education. Hence, efforts should be undertaken to ensure that unique profiles of PH/HEP remain of interest to students in the different parts of the country. A related aspect is that PH/HEP need to foster the mobility of students across the country, both before and after graduation. This calls for the reciprocal recognition of procedures such as the ones associated with entry requirements or course credits. While it is important to keep the diversity of training routes, flexibility, patterns of provision and locations offered, it is necessary that teacher education courses are comparable with one another.

179. Extensive efforts to reinforce and upgrade the skills of teacher educators in the PH/HEP will be needed, particularly in those areas now seen as priorities of teacher education institutions (particularly, in research and development). A priority should be the development of a profile for teacher educators to define the competencies and aptitudes required together with a clear definition of the necessary training and academic background, and needs for on-going professional development. A good approach is currently being followed by the cantons in Latin Switzerland through the design of a post-graduate programme specifically targeted at teacher educators (DESS: *diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées*). This is

40. The recent experiences in Sweden, the Netherlands and Ireland are instructive. In Sweden, close co-operation between the school and the teacher education institution allows student teachers to work for up to 30 weeks with a team of teachers in the school. In the Netherlands, student teachers, employed part-time during the final year of their education, help teacher education institutes follow current developments in schools more closely by relating their experiences back to the institutes. All Irish teacher education programmes now place increased importance on the school as a site for helping students understand the dynamics of classroom teaching using full-time block placements throughout the year.

related to the ability of PH/HEP to respond to the challenge of developing research activities. It is rather evident that most PH/HEP cannot respond to this challenge on their own. Co-operation among groups of PH/HEP, or between PH/HEP and university departments is to be strengthened. This will not only permit research activities in PH/HEP to “take off” but will also lead to a reassessment of research priorities in university departments, often oriented towards disciplinary areas rather than teacher education and schools. The success of such collaborations could also trigger the interest of educational authorities and national research agencies to finance research to inform policy formulation.

180. The current efforts to improve the co-ordination and harmonisation of teacher education across cantons for upper-secondary education should be pursued. Also, there is a particular need to ensure that part-time vocational teachers go through training in pedagogy. This calls for particularly flexible provision procedures such as school-based on-the-job training for vocational teachers as well as intensive training at the federal institutes. Furthermore, in most cantons, more flexible pedagogical training should be offered to “side-entrants.” This is an appropriate task for the PH/HEP, in consultation with stakeholders, as they elaborate initial teacher education programmes and engage, often with others, in in-service teacher education.

181. Given the great uncertainty of the effects of the reform, it is imperative than an evaluation of the process be carried out. A process of this nature often calls for adjustments and the lessons delivered have generally broad implications (e.g., the degree of heterogeneity of programmes, their national dimension, ability to deliver in all domains covered, number of PH/HEP). This could be done along with the establishment of an overall structure for the accreditation and evaluation of teacher education programmes. Also, teacher education institutions need to be better informed about the backgrounds of those who enter their courses, the factors that influence their success in the course, their destinations after graduation, and their early career progress. The teacher education sector as a whole does not seem to have a tradition of using information about its graduates’ job experiences as a way of monitoring its own performance and using this feedback to more closely meet teacher and school needs.

182. A number of strategies could also be considered to make teacher education an active choice by more well qualified students. These include: developing financial and other incentives to encourage able students to choose to train to teach; better informing potential entrants of the practical and theoretical demands of the course, including encouraging them to spend time in schools early in their programme so that they make more realistic choices; and increasing the incentives to providers of teacher education to offer courses that meet identified actual or potential shortages and reflect policy developments, e.g. teachers of ICT or immigrant children, and to actively market these courses to potential candidates.

183. The teacher education reform is also an opportunity for Switzerland to align broadly with the objectives of the Bologna Declaration on the creation of a common European higher education area, including in teacher education. The creation of the PH/HEP together with the organisation of programmes according to *modules* result in significant progress in achieving the Bologna goals in a number of areas: the creation of horizontal linkages between subjects that were previously isolated from one another; the inclusion of more practical elements into the curriculum; the improvement of the articulation with on-going professional development; and the introduction of mechanisms for improved quality assurance.

184. But important questions remain such as the introduction of a qualification with more labour market relevance, and how the BA/MA (Bachelor degree / Masters degree) structures will relate to the current ones. The question of the labour market relevance of a BA qualification is at the heart of the Bologna process. It calls for the provision of programmes based on the development of general skills relevant for teaching but also allowing employment in other professional areas requiring such skills (e.g. foreign languages, communication, writing skills, general presentation skills, project management, ICT competencies, cooperation skills, teamwork, treatment of diversity). A higher level of specialisation could

be then offered at the MA level. However, authorities should be cautious in the application of the BA/MA model since the new structure may have undesirable effects such lowering the provision of school-based experience at an early stage of the training. The realisation of the Bologna principles in teacher education also requires that the definition of entrance requirements for teaching be more flexible, taking account of the fact that the school sector is not the only likely employer of teacher education graduates. A more flexible definition of the qualification requirements for teachers, together with an increasing role for professional development will provide new teachers with more career choices, and enhance the capacity of the school system to adapt to changing circumstances. Programmes should increase their accessibility to a wide range of students and recognise earlier studies or work experiences, making it easier for “side-entrants” to join the teaching profession. The consultation procedures and structures used for the current reform will certainly be helpful to bring the Bologna process to fruition.

4.3 Improving the Development of Teachers

185. Professional development represents a growth point for teacher education policy, with the potential to support teachers in their work and enhance the attractiveness of teaching careers.

186. Beyond the co-ordination efforts underway, engagement in professional development should be directed through means that fix such activities in the context of changes in the professional work and growth of teachers and through the stimulus of additional financial and material support. To raise the level of teacher qualifications and to improve the capacity of teachers to adapt their teaching to the dynamic requirements of a changing society, teachers will need to be encouraged to undertake ongoing professional development (through training leaves, released time for training and full or partial coverage of training fees) and also to locate those professional development experiences at the cutting edge of their fields of teaching. This calls for contacts with research and researchers, at universities and also with social partners having particular scientific, technical and cultural knowledge. In this sense, professional development might well be developed as a collective endeavour. The Canadian experience illustrates both the concept and a means for implementation: teachers undertaking university-based continuing education receive “points” that are taken into account in consideration for career progression. Authorities have supported, through funding and supplementary time, projects that train teachers to be able to work alongside professionals in the same fields.

187. Further, the overall professional development effort would benefit from its closer link to career paths and personal development including effective and consistent use of a professional profile and developing professional portfolio. It may also be worth considering the provision of opportunities for professional renewal through changes in role and responsibilities at times e.g. secondments to work in other settings including PH/HEP, and workplaces in industry. Ways to release teachers for professional development commitments without colleagues or students being potentially disadvantaged, is another major priority.

188. School management should be provided with training on human resource development strategies. School management should locate the full range of professional development in the framework of a long-range human resource development plan for the school as a whole (as a constituent part of the school plan). From this perspective, individual teachers would be assisted in identifying needs, selecting the best professional development activities that improves their own capacities in response, and supported in undertaking those activities.

189. Professional development work could more fully address the changing needs of the profession through means such as encouraging networks, professional associations, schools, PH/HEP, and universities to further identify and disseminate effective and successful teaching practice; developing internal

knowledge management systems in schools - e.g. through collaborative working and peer evaluation - to support sharing expertise in schools and provide professional development from within; and developing the expectation that professional development is part of the work of all teachers and is important for their long-term career development.

190. As regards the induction of teachers beginning their teaching career, the review team considers that a more thorough policy approach should be adopted, drawing on current experience, but giving more structured support, particularly in the first year through a reduced workload and the support of a designated mentor. In this context, all of the PH/HEP have set up programmes to support this process (e.g. PH Zürich provides a four-week induction course, to be completed by beginning teachers within three years of entry into the profession). These programmes need to be further developed and refined, on the basis of experience, and beginning teachers need to be supported in their participation in formal and on-site induction activities, by their employers.

4.4 Improving the Effectiveness of the Labour Market

191. In order to provide targeted responses to problems which arise in specific teacher labour sub-markets, the incentive structure should be used in a more flexible manner. For instance, pay differentiation to account for shortages, allowances for teaching in difficult areas, transportation assistance to promote mobility, or subsidies to account for higher cost of living in urban areas, should be given careful consideration for future policy development. The adaptation of the incentive structure to the stratified structure of the market can also be undertaken by differentiating non-monetary incentives. For instance lower class contact times or smaller classes for schools in socially difficult areas or which have particular needs could be extended beyond the cantons already applying such measures. These strategies offer considerable scope to address shortages and might contribute to a more equitable distribution of teacher resources across schools by preventing those schools located in disadvantaged or remote areas from being more affected.

192. Some promising initiatives have been taken in this regard as described earlier. This is the case of the shortage-related allowance provided to teachers in St. Gallen. An area in which there is particular room for improvement in Switzerland is that of part-time teachers. Given their weight in the system, policies targeted at encouraging part-time teachers to take on additional assignments seem worth exploring. Another target group are former teachers. More than half of the cantons already offer training for individuals wishing to return to teaching, a policy initiative that deserves encouragement.

193. Another solution to tackle the problem of shortages is to expand the potential supply pool. This can be achieved, for instance, by opening the teaching profession to individuals with relevant experience outside education. This would imply the development of an incentive structure that is able to recognise the qualifications, skills and experience acquired outside education. Some cantons have already developed policies whereby the system provides the necessary training in pedagogic and didactic skills. The review team felt that such systems have scope for expansion and still lack a systematic and consistent approach. Furthermore, the harmonisation of systems for accommodating “side-entrants” across the cantons should be pursued in order to promote greater geographical mobility. Increased mobility of teachers across educational levels and school types offers another way to expand the supply pool. Development in this direction requires greater flexibility in teacher education programmes (Sweden, the Netherlands, and Finland offer examples of possible approaches to widen the types of schools in which teachers are qualified to teach) and targeted further education programmes.

194. In order to address the need to engage substitute teachers, replacement pools have been established at some local/regional levels, and there would be benefits from similar schemes throughout the

country. Teacher replacement pools can provide prompt responses to schools' short-term teacher needs. Such pools have the potential to enable immediate responses to imbalances between demand and supply and to overcome certain information gap issues. They are also potentially a good means to monitor local and regional labour markets and a way for cantons and communes to co-operate in the recruitment of teachers.

195. The mobility of teachers across cantons should be improved. The achieved recognition of teaching qualifications across the country is a fundamental step in that direction. It is now necessary to guarantee that differences in the structure of school systems of individual cantons and the varied approaches of the different PH/HEP do not serve as features that favour candidates from the canton in which a given post is advertised.. Otherwise, the integration of the Swiss teacher labour market will be undermined. In addition, the review team formed the view that little communication exists between the cantons regarding teacher needs. Moreover, information on teaching posts in one canton does not seem to be easily available to individuals in other cantons. Educational authorities of each canton should be encouraged to disseminate information about the conditions of employment as a teacher especially directed to individuals in other cantons. This would complement the existing nationwide online listing of vacant posts (www.educajob.ch).

196. The increased say of schools in the selection of teachers is a positive trend and its further expansion might prove useful. School Commissions often do not possess the expertise required to take decisions regarding the selection of teachers, and their role in this area should be more limited. A more direct interaction between candidates and schools is likely to have an impact on the characteristics of candidates selected and how fully committed they become to the work requirements of the jobs they accept. However, schools may also lack the capacity and expertise to deal with all aspects of the employment decision, and there are further potential concerns arising from school-based selection about an inequitable distribution of teachers and the possibility of selecting teachers on grounds other than merit. The latter aspect can be addressed by introducing accountability policies leading schools to systematically be responsive to local needs through, for example, a supervisory committee comprising members of the school community (e.g. such as the School Commission). The inequity aspect can be tackled by providing additional resources to those schools located in difficult areas.

197. Finally, a country-level system for monitoring the teacher labour market should be established as a collaborative effort between the different cantons. Such system would acknowledge the fact that long-term strategies are needed to respond to imbalances in the teacher labour market.

198. At the country-level, a number of good initiatives launched by the CDIP/EDK seeking to improve prospects in the teaching labour market should be continued, monitored, reinforced and disseminated. They include: (i) an assessment of the current situation in the job market for teachers (Stauffer, 2001 and Schubiger and Stauffer, 2003); (ii) an analysis of the recruitment of teachers (Müller Kucera *et al.*, 2002); (iii) production of information materials targeted at upper-secondary students and the launch of an Internet site with information on how to become a teacher (www.phschweiz.ch); and (iv) the elaboration of a document on "Profession enseignante – Lignes directrices" (Bucher and Nicolet, 2003a and 2003b) to launch a countrywide public discussion on the teaching profession.

4.5 Ensuring a Rewarding and Effective Career

199. A key goal of teacher policy is to ensure that teachers are encouraged and supported to continuously review their skills and improve their practice. The existing contractual arrangements for teachers in most cantons, as emphasised earlier, give considerable room for this objective to be achieved. In the current context, it is important to consider the following aspects:

- a wide range of opportunities for teachers to improve their practice thereby improving their capacities to secure the positions they hold while responding to the changing needs of schools;
- an open, fair and transparent system of teacher evaluation involving teaching peers, school leaders and external experts who are properly trained and resourced for these tasks – and who are themselves evaluated on a regular basis; and
- fair but speedy mechanisms to address poor performance. Teachers should have the opportunity and support to remedy any deficiencies but, if improvements do not occur, measures should be put in place to move these teachers either out of the school system or into non-teaching roles.

200. As regards the career structure and incentive mechanisms for teachers a number of initiatives might prove useful. Foremost, the structure of teaching careers might benefit from: (i) extra differentiation, (ii) consistency across school levels; and (iii) closer links to aspects other than qualifications and seniority.

201. Extra differentiation would provide more opportunities for promotion on the basis of the creation of positions associated with specific tasks and roles. This follows on the recognition that schools and teachers need to take on a greater range of tasks and responsibilities both within and beyond the classroom. Roles such as mentor/coach of beginning and trainee teachers, co-ordinator of in-service training, school project co-ordinator and student counsellor could be associated with new positions in the career structure. The duties implied by the new positions or assignments need to be clearly defined and transparent. We recognise the difficulties in this area, but also note the evident problems with an incentive structure that is insufficiently aligned to teachers' work or to careers in education. This last merits further emphasis: while Swiss teachers view teaching as a long-term career choice, the career paths within teaching are limited and, in some cases, counter-productive owing in part to the incentive structure (e.g., no career path that enables highly effective teachers to obtain substantial recognition and reward by remaining in the classroom).

202. A new consistency in career structures across school levels recognises that the greater complexity of teachers' work, which calls for a greater diversity of roles, is common to the different educational levels. Extra career differentiation needs to be offered irrespective of school levels. Salary differentials across levels should also be narrowed, in line with what appear to be similar levels of expertise, qualifications and responsibilities for teachers at each stage and sector. The harmonisation of salaries would support our recommendation for reflection on broadening the knowledge and competence base in new and strengthened initial teacher education in the PH/HEP to cover wider age groups, including across cycles.

203. Linking career progression to aspects other than qualifications and seniority offers the potential for the best qualified people to be encouraged to take on new roles, and to be recognised and rewarded for doing so. In a context of a more diversified career structure, steps within salary scales, and promotion from one scale to the next could be related to the effectiveness of the teacher. For example, salary progression could be deferred if teachers had not met the stated expectations of performance or could progress two salary steps at once if their performance was exemplary. As described earlier, St. Gallen and Zürich have recently introduced such links. Any success in linking rewards to performance, of course, depends on the clarity of the performance expectations and the skills of those evaluating performance.

204. A case for diversifying the contents of the compensation package also exists. Rewarding teachers with time allowances, sabbatical periods, fee support for post-graduate courses, or opportunities for in-service training could overcome the little current flexibility for raising salaries and offer additional reasons for attracting individuals into the profession. As key comparative advantages of the career, the flexible

approach to working time should be maintained and more possibilities to work out of schools for some periods of time should be introduced.

205. Finally, considerable efforts should be devoted to the development of policies targeted at keeping more experienced teachers in the profession. Experienced teachers need a system which continuously challenges them, gives them the opportunity to improve professionally and grants them the possibility to access new roles and tasks. This can be accomplished in the context of a career structure embodying more diverse and rewarding roles. In particular, more experienced teachers might gain motivation from engaging in new tasks such as mentor of beginning teachers or school project co-ordinator and could benefit from lighter classroom teaching workloads. Canton authorities should also explore possible revisions in employment and pension laws that would permit schools to retain (and pay), in exceptional cases, retired teachers.⁴¹

4.6 Supporting Effective Teachers

206. A top priority is the definition of a professional profile of teachers that explicitly recognises the wide variety of tasks that the profession entails. This profile should provide a clear definition of roles, responsibilities and tasks, including a description of resource needs – time, assistance, infrastructure, and materials. It should reflect: (i) the increasing heterogeneity of the student population; (ii) the need to provide individualised support for every student and to use new, creative methods that are more efficient in building motivation; and (iii) the increasing importance of the school as an organisation, with the stress placed on intensive internal communication and cooperation, participation in collective strategic planning, quality management, self-evaluation, professional development planning, and community relations.

207. In recognition of the changes in the profession and concerns on the part of teachers, the EDK/CDIP has launched work on the professional profile of teachers and teaching, looking into the position and work of teachers as it has evolved over the 1990s. The inquiry aimed to explore the role of the teacher in the light of changing expectations for schools. That work produced eight theses, as a basis for wider reflection and discussion, among which: (i) the teacher is not the only professional in the school, so they must conceive their work in partnership with others and yet assume primary responsibility for teaching; (ii) initial preparation should include developing some depth of competence in a particular domain, along with acquisition of practical skills through apprentice teaching; (iii) like any other profession, teachers should be able to pursue, and anticipate, a range of career paths through as well as into and out of teaching; (iv) the concept of teaching should move from one teacher per class, to a view where every teacher is a teacher in another class, to give two reference points for teaching and a professional colleague; (v) the teacher is an actor in the activity, and so should be given margin in the ways to implement new aims agreed for the school, cycle or subject area; and (vi) teachers must have skills to work with children and adults, the latter in the form of colleagues and parents (CBR and Bucher and Nicolet, 2003a and 2003b). Although the theses fall short of a job description, they do begin to lay out broader dimensions of the nature of a teacher's preparation, work and career paths. This initiative has also served to launch a public discussion throughout the country (as of May 2003) on the teaching profession (EDK/CDIP, 2003a).

208. The definition of the profile of the teaching profession will help to sharpen and clarify the purposes of initial teacher education, teachers' on-going professional development, and their daily work.

41. In this connection, schools have some experience with engaging retired teachers on a voluntary basis to work as classroom assistants or co-teachers. Successful features of that experience could be shared, and measures developed to encourage more wide-spread use of retired teachers.

Given the needed alignment with standards for teacher education, the elaboration of the profile should capitalise on the current establishment of the PH/HEP, which might play a key role in its elaboration.

209. Due to the federal system and the different levels responsibilities, there is quite a broad and diverse range of policies to organise teaching and learning at schools. Such policies could envisage new ways to organise the work as appropriate to particular student and community needs and circumstances. They could allow for compensation, or a re-balancing of work assignments, to encourage and support teachers taking on new tasks. Policy development should include further consideration of ways to allow for and support new options for the deployment of other school staff, in ways that support teachers and teaching. Roles for and profiles of teacher aides and partnerships with community-based entities might be strengthened both through allowance for greater flexibility at school level and with resources provided in ways to enable and encourage such arrangements. The aim of new flexibility in organisation and staffing would be, in the first instance, to open up more locally appropriate options for student learning. Enabling and supporting policies would also allow for teachers to be freed up from tasks that could be handled by other staff and supported by those staff in their primary responsibility of teaching. Experiences of the French *zones d'éducation prioritaire* (ZEP) policy and the Dutch education priority programme (EPP) – both broadly-based approaches applied to targeted low performing schools in disadvantaged areas – could provide a limited comparative basis on which to explore ways to open up options in a system-wide perspective, including staff development. In addition, PH/HEP could be given the task to develop appropriate training modules for other school personnel and for those in community-based entities that engage in ongoing partnership with the schools.

4.7 Improving School Leadership and Strengthening Accountability

210. School committees or commissions retain formal responsibilities on personnel and resource allocation matters, but we recommend that the school principal (and possibly a designated senior management/leadership team), within a long range plan for school development, be fully relied on, and given clear responsibilities for: (i) developing a school profile; (ii) managing staff recruitment, deployment, development and evaluation; and (iii) resource allocation. The committee or commission could supervise the broad proposals developed by the school principal, but should leave to the school leadership full scope to implement. This translates into a situation where the school principal has considerable more capacity for decision-making but is accountable to the school committee for implementation and effective day-to-day running of the school. Along the same lines, the school committee (or the canton where appropriate), should be held accountable for providing the means and conditions needed to enable schools, under effective leadership, to achieve the aims.

211. As new public management takes hold in the education system, canton authorities should give priority to the elaboration of the job profile and career path of the school principal (and senior management at the school level). We suggest that the profile encompass the overarching concept of school leadership, bringing together responsibilities and expertise in pedagogy, technical aspects concerning the day-to-day administration of the school, organisational management and change, and political economy (community relations). Such a profile should set out more clearly the responsibilities of the school principal (senior managers). The EDK/CDIP could serve as the focal point for information and discussion on the job profile, and the PH/HEP should be invited to contribute to the research base. The work, similar to the ongoing inquiry into the professional profile of the teacher, should consider the scope for wider recruitment into the post of school principal (and senior managers), including those with experience outside schools. The profile for the school principal should be devised in the framework of canton requirements and expectations, in response to local interests and circumstances and in consultation with school staff.

212. In the framework of the work of the EDK/CDIP accreditation committee established to identify organisations qualified to offer training for school leaders, the PH/HEP and faculties in universities and

HESs with expertise in relevant fields should develop coherent programmes that would prepare teachers and others for the roles, responsibilities and tasks of leadership and management in schools. Such programmes could envisage different points and timing of entry and re-entry, for aspiring individuals with different experience and at different career stages who demonstrate potential for school leadership.

213. The current trend of linking increased school autonomy with a growing stress on accountability and quality assurance deserves strong support. Building on initiatives already underway, canton authorities, with the assistance of the EDK/CDIP and with the involvement of relevant Confederation-level agencies, should develop a systematic framework for school evaluation, the common elements of which align with common school standards. The developmental process should engage those at the level of the school, in order to embed the gathering of information in routine school activities, to ensure the relevance of the information gathered and the validity and acceptance of the results presented, and to build capacities and orientations for evaluation at school level. Lines of accountability need to be clarified, and the actions taken as a result of weak performance on agreed standards made clear.

214. One possible strategy for providing a quality improvement framework for schools and teachers is to set performance objectives and targets which can be monitored as an ongoing part of schools' annual planning processes. The inclusion of personal objectives for teachers in school development plans would help ensure a closer connection between individual teacher and whole-school needs. Evaluation should engage all parties, clarify what is to be evaluated and by whom, set out the specific ways that the evaluations will be followed up, and build motivation for continuous reflection on and improvement of practice. The introduction of regular staff appraisal that reviews performance against objectives and identifies areas for development should help to reinforce the message that teaching is an important job, to recognise and celebrate good performance, and to ensure that less successful teachers receive the support, coaching or training they need. School principals or appropriate members of the management team should be provided with needed training (in PH/HEP, at other tertiary-level institutions or by private entities with expertise in the field). Staff evaluation, at school level, should be linked to career development as well as school-wide needs. For their part, teachers should engage in self-evaluation and be supported in less formal consultations with peers on their own practice (via peer-review, mutual classroom visits), as part of the school's overall evaluation effort. Opportunities to visit teachers and classrooms in other schools (and vice versa) should be explored.

215. These developments could be assisted by the identification or creation of centres of expertise for quality improvement and performance management in schools (e.g. Research Centre for Evaluation and Development of Schools at the University of Zürich). Such centres could draw from the existing expertise of school evaluation in some cantons, develop approaches and training materials, and validate good practices. Teachers' professional associations are also key players in this regard.

216. One of the conditions for these processes to be successful is the development of a new profession profile for educational evaluation and quality improvement experts. Evaluation as a new professional task should be separated from legal and administrative inspection. Experts in evaluation and quality or performance management need a professional preparation and profile that is different from administrators.

5: CONCLUDING REMARKS

217. If Swiss schooling has been successful in educating past generations to embark on productive and satisfying adult lives, economic and societal changes now suggest that past performance may not be good enough. Restructuring in the Swiss economy and widening diversity of cultural and linguistic minorities in schools and communities challenge schools and teachers to strengthen, align, and adapt teaching and learning. As important, there is recognition that growing international competitiveness and a larger role for Switzerland on the European and world stage mean that Swiss schooling now will be judged – and need to judge itself – in relation to schooling in other countries. All parties – canton and Confederation officials, teachers and school administrators, professional organisations, parents, and employers – have contributed to an ongoing public and policy discussion on the nature of these challenges for schooling and for teachers, and possible responses.

218. On our observation, that discussion in its many dimensions and venues is serious, deliberate and rich. If details and evaluations of new reforms and initiatives feature unevenly in these discussions, we encountered general agreement that new, creative policies already launched or still in development provide needed direction for the schools and for those who teach and learn in them.

219. Policy discussion and initiative, appropriately, is broadly based. Concerns about an erosion in the position of teachers are understood as arising as much from demands on teaching of a school population that is more diverse in background and more ambitious in educational and career aims as from new, alternative career opportunities for those who may consider teaching as a profession. The public discussion on the future of teaching and of the profession, under EDK/CDIP auspices and drawing on a thoughtful vision (“Profession enseignante – Lignes directrices”), has been broadly based and, on what we have heard and learned, productive.

220. Concerns about recruitment and professional development of teachers arise in a context that, in some respects, is uniquely Swiss. On the one hand, the school system is relatively well-resourced, with competitive salaries, particularly at entry. On the other hand, projected high rates of replacement demand, as teachers recruited in earlier years retire, will surface at a time when the number of prospective teachers may well decline in line with a decrease in the size of young adult cohorts and a widening of job opportunities for those with tertiary-level qualifications (and the associated paths to those qualifications). It is too early to judge whether and how the upgrading of initial teacher education, through the new *hautes écoles pédagogiques*, and changes in the employment status of teachers will influence the attractiveness of the profession and the evolution of teacher supply. However, as recent developments in Switzerland show, teacher recruitment problems can change quite quickly, which reinforces the need for constant monitoring of the teacher labour market, and a flexible policy environment.

221. In common with policy priorities in other countries, policy dialogue and development have looked to possible means to improve the attractiveness of teaching and the effective deployment of the teaching force. New options for career mobility within teaching (enabled and encouraged through clear job profiles, offering greater flexibility through generic and broader job tasks) warrant further development, as do a wider range of employment contract terms now opened up by a change in the employment status of teachers (and other public workers) from civil servant to salaried employee. New incentives for job - and performance-related aspects of a teacher’s work hold potential for raising the attractiveness of teaching to those who might opt for careers elsewhere and for encouraging effort in priority areas. In this respect, performance-based pay schemes in two different cantons are innovative in design, and worth careful evaluation. It is noteworthy, as well, that a recognised need to ensure that Swiss schooling achieves learning benchmarks of its European and global economic partners and competitors has

advanced efforts to realise greater harmonisation in schooling across the country -- including in the preparation of teachers and recognition of teacher qualifications. This policy direction has the further advantage of opening up, through mobility across canton boundaries, new means to meet geographic shortages of teachers.

222. Reforms in the preparation of teachers -- both initial and continuing professional development -- stand as the most powerful force for change in support of teaching, teachers and schools. The consolidation and upgrading of the former seminaries and *écoles normales* in the new *Pädagogische Hochschulen/Hautes écoles pédagogiques* constitute a major Swiss policy reform. It warrants monitoring, evaluation and further scope as much for what these changes may foster in support of continuous learning through any means by teachers as for the upgrading of the incorporated initial teacher training programmes. In this perspective, the conception within PH/HEP of teacher preparation and professional development over the career, in ways that span the boundaries of the university, the PH/HEP, the third-party professional development provider and the school, struck us as a forward-looking and quite promising direction for PH/HEP programme planning and development. Pedagogical training for new upper secondary teachers, particularly but not only for part-time teachers in the vocational streams, calls for sustained policy attention, potentially through means that locate such training at the school site to both better situate and improve access to the training. However, key questions about implementation remain to be addressed. On this, the CDIP/EDK can draw usefully on the experience with implementation of the recent *Fachhochschulen/Hautes écoles spécialisées* reform, through which universities of applied sciences have been consolidated into seven, regionally-based institutions and strengthened.

223. Prospects and policies for developing and retaining effective teachers emerge in the perspective of new public management, taking hold in individual schools as elsewhere in the public sector. Sustained efforts are needed to strengthen capacities of school heads and those on the school leadership team in site management and to identify clear and appropriate roles, respectively, for school management and for local and regional boards that hold oversight responsibilities. In this way, the full scope now afforded for strategic and responsive initiative at school level on matters concerning the recruitment, employment terms, deployment and professional development of teachers can be exploited effectively.

224. The challenges for Swiss schooling, teaching and teachers have opened up opportunities for creative policy approaches, and in many respects the ongoing policy dialogue and new teacher policy initiatives represent significant – and creative – departures from prior policies and thinking. In our view, the policy directions set down hold promise for success in attracting to and retaining in Swiss schools effective teachers. Close monitoring, careful evaluation and wide dissemination of policy experiences at canton, commune and establishment levels, through the EDK/CDIP and its associated regional cantonal conferences, will be vital. The new options and initiatives represent specific growth points for teacher policy development, experimentation and, where successful with appropriate adaptation, wider implementation.

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APPENDIX 1: THE OECD REVIEW TEAM

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APPENDIX 2: NATIONAL CO-ORDINATORS, NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE, AND AUTHORS OF THE COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT

National Co-ordinators for Switzerland

Stefan Wolter, Director, Swiss Co-ordination Centre for Research in Education (SCCRE) and
Stefan Denzler, Research Fellow, SCCRE.

National Advisory Committee (NAC)

Ambühl, Hans (Chairman), General Secretary of the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP);

Maradan, Olivier, Deputy General Secretary of the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP);

Schneider-Wyssmann, Monika (Secretary), Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP);

Baumer, Felix, Director of the Office for Compulsory Education (Primary and Secondary I) in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton St. Gallen;

Brosy, Daniel, Head of the department General Management in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Jura;

Goldschmid, Claude, Deputy General Secretary of the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Geneva;

Hofstetter, Margot, Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Bern;

Kuratle, Regina, Head of the Department Development and Quality in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Aargau;

Rhyn, Heinz, Head of the Department Quality Development of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP);

Schneebeli, Alberto, Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Basel-Land;

Vanetta, Francesco, Director of the Office for Secondary School in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Tessin;

Vincent, Charles, Director of the Office for Primary and Secondary Education in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Lucerne;

Wendelspiess, Martin, Director of the Office for Compulsory Education (Primary and Secondary I) in the Cantonal Ministry of Education, Canton Zurich;

Tabin, Marie-Claire, President of the Teacher Union of the French speaking part of Switzerland (SER);

Zemp, Beat, President of the Swiss Teacher Union (LCH).

Authors of the Country Background Report

Karin Müller Kucera, Researcher, Service de la Recherche en éducation (SRED), Geneva;

Martin Stauffer, Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP).

APPENDIX 3: PROGRAMME OF THE REVIEW VISIT

Monday 10 March: Bern

- 9:00 Stefan Wolter and Stefan Denzler, National Co-ordinators;
- 9:45 Karin Müller Kucera and Martin Stauffer, authors, Country Background Report;
- 11:00 Welcome by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK/CDIP): Head Department Quality Development, EDK/CDIP;
- 12:00 Lunch with Hans Ambühl, Secretary General EDK, Olivier Maradan, Deputy Secretary General EDK and Heinz Rhy (NAC).
- 14:00 Regional conferences of education authorities (issues of co-ordination at regional and intercantonal level): CIIP – *Conférence intercantonale de l’instruction publique de la Suisse romande et du Tessin* – and EDK-Ost - *Erziehungsdirektorenkonferenz der Ostschweizer Kantone und Liechtenstein*.
- 15:45 Senior officials of the EDK (issues of co-ordination at confederation level): Head of Compulsory Education Department; Head of Vocational and Adult Education Department; Head of Department of “Hautes Ecoles”; and Head of International Co-operation Department and Culture and Society Department.

Tuesday 11 March: Bern

- 9.00 Primary and Secondary School, Schule Schwabgut, Bern.
Tour of school, Class visit (mathematics, secondary II), roundtable with head of school, teachers, local school board, and representative of parents.
- 14:00 Swiss Institute of Pedagogy for Vocational Training (SIBP), Zollikofen.
Tour of institution, meeting with Director, roundtable with teachers, meeting with students.

Wednesday 12 March: Lucerne

- 9:15 Primary School Erlen at Emmenbrücke
Welcome by the director of the cantonal office for compulsory education, representative of Education Department of the Canton of Lucerne and the principal of the schools of the community of Emmen.
Tour of school including visit to classes, introduction to school development in the Canton of Lucerne, discussion with heads of school, head of local school board, and teachers.
- 12:30 Lunch with local school authorities
- 14:30 Cantonal Administration
Minister of Education of the Canton Lucerne (Vorsteher Bildungdepartement des Kantons Luzern) and the Director of the cantonal office for compulsory education.
- 15:15 Pedagogic Training Centre Musegg (teachers’ seminar), teacher training institute at upper secondary level.
Discussion with Director, teacher educators and students.
- 16:00 Universities of Applied Sciences in Education of Lucerne (*Pädagogische Hochschule Zentralschweiz /Haute Ecole Pédagogique de la Suisse Centrale*), teacher training institute at tertiary non-university level to open in September 2003.
Discussion with Director.

Thursday 13 March: Bern

- 9.00 Delegation from the Swiss Teacher Union (LCH/ECH) – umbrella organisation – with representatives from different cantons and educational levels.
Deputy-Secretary General of LCH/ECH and Representatives of Bern, Fribourg, St. Gallen, Continuing Education, *Hautes Ecoles Spécialisées/Fachhochschulen*, Primary and Secondary Education.
- 11.15 Teacher Education Institute of the University of Bern (LLB)
Director of the Social and educational department and Vice-president of the Cantonal Conference of Teacher Education (KKLL)
Tour of school and discussion with teacher educators.
- 12:15 Lunch with key persons of teacher education in the Canton of Bern.
Director social & education Department and vice-president of KKLL; Head continuing teacher education; Prof. of French at LLB and Head Dept. teacher education in cantonal education administration.
- 15:00 Presentation of work commissioned by EDK on the image of the teaching profession
- 16:00 Meeting with representative of the Federal administration (Federal Office of Education and Science) and delegate to OECD's Education Committee.

Friday 14 March: Lausanne

- 10.30 Minister of Education of the Canton of Vaud (Conseillère d'Etat, Département de la formation et de la jeunesse).
Head of *Service de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur et de la formation (SESSFO) du Département de la formation et de la jeunesse du Canton de Vaud*.
- 11:30 Haute Ecole Pédagogique du Canton de Vaud (HEP VD), teacher training institute at tertiary non-university level.
Visit of institution, discussion with institution's management including Director, several teacher educators and meeting with teacher trainees.
- 14:00 Gymnase Auguste-Picard, Secondary School, Lausanne.
Roundtable with school management and teachers.
- 16:30 Meeting with representatives of teacher unions and parents' organisations
SER: Syndicat des Enseignants Romands;
SPV: Société Pédagogique Vaudoise;
APE VD: Association Vaudoise des parents d'élèves;
FAPERT: Fédération des Associations de Parents des Ecoles Romandes et Tessinoises.
- 18:15 Discussion with:
Head of *Service de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur et de la formation (SESSFO) du Département de la formation et de la jeunesse du Canton de Vaud*;
Director of Haute Ecole Pédagogique du Canton de Vaud;
Vice-Recteur, Université de Lausanne.

Sunday 16 March: Bern

- 9:30 Review team meetings

Monday 17 March: Bern

- 10:00 "Avenir Suisse", Think Tank for Social and Economic Development: presentation of project "Best Practices";
- 11:00 Seminar with educational researchers: Hans Joss, Continuous Teacher Training, Canton of Bern (ZSLLFB); Judith Hollenweger, Yuka Nakamura and Stefan Albisser, Teacher Education Institution Zürich (Pädagogische Hochschule Zürich, Département Forschung und Entwicklung, PHZH); Stefan Wolter and Stefan Denzler (Swiss Co-ordination Centre for Research in Education, SCCRE).

- 14:15 Councillor of the City of Bern (Member of the Government and Head of the Department of Education of the city of Bern).
- 15:30 Parents' organisations
 "Schule und Elternhaus Schweiz", umbrella organisation of Swiss Parental organisations;
 "Elternlobby Schweiz", parental organisation defending free school choice.
- 17:30 Review team meetings

Tuesday 18 March: Bern

- 9:30 National Advisory Committee – Initial impressions by review team and feedback by Swiss authorities.
- 11:30 Farewell drink and lunch.
- 13:00 Visit conclusion.

APPENDIX 4: COMPARATIVE INDICATORS ON TEACHERS

	Switzerland	OECD country mean	Switzerland's rank ¹
SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURE			
Expenditure – total (2000)			
Expenditure on all educational institutions as a % of GDP	5.7	5.5	=11/29
Expenditure on schools and post-secondary non-tertiary educ. institutions as a % of GDP	4.3	3.6	=5/29
Total education expenditure from public sources (%)	91.8	88.4	12/27
Expenditure per student (public institutions only) (2000)²			
Primary (US\$)	6 631	4 381	3/26
Lower secondary (US\$)	8 012	5 575	3/20
Upper Secondary (US\$)	11 622	6 063	1/21
All secondary (US\$)	9 780	5 957	1/26
Current expenditure – composition (public institutions only) (2000)³			
Compensation of teachers (%)	71.9	63.0	5/17
Compensation of other staff (%)	12.8	14.9	12/17
Compensation of all staff (%)	84.7	80.3	8/27
Non-staff expenditure (%)	15.3	19.7	20/27
SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION			
Expected changes in the school-age population by 2010 relative to 2000 (2000=100), Source: OECD (2001a)			
Ages 5-14	91	91	=14/30
Ages 15-19	109	98	=5/30
SCHOOL STAFF NUMBERS			
Average class size (public institutions, 2001)⁵			
Primary	19.9	22.0	15/23
Lower secondary	18.8	23.8	20/22
Distribution of school staff by personnel category (upper sec., 2001)^{6,7}			
Source: OECD (2004a)			
Management personnel (%)	4	5	=7/14
Teachers (%)	81	73	3/14
Teacher aides (%)	2	2	=3/11
Professional support personnel (%)	2	4	=9/14
Other support personnel (%)	11	17	=12/14
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHER WORKFORCE			
Part-time teachers as a percentage of total teachers (upper sec., 2001)⁶			
	62.4	24.6	2/12
Temporary teachers (upper secondary, 2001)⁶			
Full-time temporary teachers as a % of all FT teachers	10.8	12.4	8/12
Part-time temporary teachers as a % of all PT teachers	32.1	40.7	7/12
Teachers who are not fully qualified (upper secondary, 2001)⁶			
Full-time teachers who are not fully qualified as a % of FT teachers	10.2	14.3	8/10
Part-time teachers who are not fully qualified as a % of PT teachers	30.3	31.3	6/10

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GRADUATES FROM INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Tertiary graduates with qualifications in education (2001)⁸

Tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes (%)	11.9	13.1	=13/25
Tertiary-type B programmes (%)	13.9	13.0	7/17

TEACHER EMPLOYMENT

School responsibility for the hiring of teachers (upper secondary, 2001)⁶

% students attending schools which are responsible for hiring teachers	62.7	67.4	9/13
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TEACHER VACANCIES and ABSENTEEISM

Teaching vacancies (upper secondary, 2001)⁶

% students attending schools where there are no vacancies to be filled	10.4	6.3	2/13
% of FTE teaching posts needed to be filled ⁹	13.9	12.3	5/13

Perceived difficulty in hiring fully qualified teachers (upper sec., 2001)^{6, 10}

Language of instruction	13.5	12.7	7/14
Mathematics	60.5	33.4	2/14
Foreign languages	32.6	31.7	6/14
Social studies	6.1	7.8	=7/14
Sciences	50.4	30.4	3/14
Computer sciences/information technology	76.0	48.7	2/14

Methods used to cover teaching vacancies (upper secondary, 2001)^{6, 11}

Hire a fully qualified teacher	85.5	90.1	11/13
Hire a teacher with less than a full qualification	61.1	35.3	3/13
Cancel a planned course	1.0	3.4	11/12
Expand the size of some of the classes	9.1	9.3	=5/13
Add sections (courses) to other teachers' normal teaching hours	56.1	35.8	3/13

Teacher absenteeism (upper secondary, 2001)⁶

% of class periods cancelled due to absence of assigned teacher	3.3	3.5	10/14
% of class periods covered by another teacher due to absence	10.1	6.6	3/12

STUDENT VIEWS

PISA index of teacher support for 15-year olds (2000) ¹² , Source: OECD(2002b)	0.01	0.02	16/27
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PISA index of disciplinary climate for 15-year-olds (2000) ¹³ , Source: OECD(2002b)	0.30	0.00	3/27
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TEACHER SALARIES

Annual teacher salaries, public schools (with minimum training, 2001)²

Primary - starting salary (US\$)	35 059	21 982	2/29
Primary - 15 years experience (US\$)	46 048	30 047	2/29
Primary - top of scale (US\$)	54 900	36 455	3/29
Primary - ratio of salary after 15 years experience to GDP per capita	1.52	1.31	8/29
Lower secondary - starting salary (US\$)	41 358	23 283	1/28
Lower secondary - 15 years experience (US\$)	54 852	31 968	1/28
Lower secondary - top of scale (US\$)	64 707	38 787	2/28
Lower sec. - ratio of salary after 15 years experience to GDP per capita	1.81	1.34	4/28
Upper secondary, general - starting salary (US\$)	49 484	24 350	1/28
Upper secondary, general - 15 years experience (US\$)	63 893	34 250	1/28
Upper secondary, general - top of scale (US\$)	74 949	41 344	1/28
Upper secondary, general - ratio of salary after 15 years to GDP per capita	2.11	1.43	2/28

Ratio of salary after 15 years experience to starting salary (2001)

Primary	1.31	1.37	17/29
Lower secondary	1.33	1.38	15/28
Upper secondary, general programmes	1.29	1.41	18/28

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Number of years from starting to top salary (lower secondary, 2001)	24	25	17/27
Real change in teachers' salaries (between 1996 and 2001) (1996=100)¹⁴			
Primary – starting salary / minimum training	99	110	19/22
Primary – salary after 15 years of experience / minimum training	97	109	21/22
Primary – salary at top of scale / minimum training	100	109	=17/22
Lower secondary – starting salary / minimum training	99	110	=18/21
Lower secondary – salary after 15 years of experience / minimum training	97	109	=20/21
Lower secondary – salary at top of scale / minimum training	101	110	=16/21
Upper secondary – starting salary / minimum training	99	107	=16/21
Upper secondary – salary after 15 years of experience / minimum training	97	106	=19/21
Upper secondary – salary at top of scale / minimum training	102	107	=11/21
Increases to base salary for teachers in public schools (2001)¹⁵			
Holding a higher than the minimum qualification required to enter teaching	∅	15/29	
Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	∅	3/29	
Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	∅	3/29	
Successful completion of professional development activities	∅	9/29	
Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	√	22/29	
Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	∅	13/29	
Outstanding performance in teaching	∅	11/29	
Teaching courses in a particular field (e.g., mathematics or science)	∅	6/29	
Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	√	14/29	
Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	√	21/29	
Special activities (e.g., sports, drama and homework clubs, Summer school)	√	15/29	
Special tasks (e.g., training student teachers, guidance and counselling)	√	16/29	
Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high cost area (location allowance)	∅	18/29	
Family status (e.g., married, number of children)	√	12/29	
Age (independent of years of experience)	∅	6/29	
Other	√	12/29	
TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT			
School provision of professional development (upper secondary, 2001)^{6,16}			
School has a separate budget for teacher professional development (%)	86	61	4/14
School provides time for teacher professional development (%)	91	78	4/14
School organises staff development activities (%)	87	79	=6/14
Teacher participation in professional development (upper sec., 2001)^{6,17}			
<i>All types of professional development</i>			
ICT-related professional development activities (%)	28.3	31.8	10/14
Other than ICT-related professional development activities (%)	56.1	48.1	5/14
<i>Course-type professional development</i>			
Courses on subject matter, methodology and other education-related topics	97.5	94.3	7/14
Conferences where teachers and/or researchers discuss educational problems	76.1	68.8	7/14
A degree programme (e.g., Master's programme, Ph.D.)	54.1	67.9	12/14
<i>Mentoring and peer observation types of professional development</i>			
Observational visits to other schools (%)	48.9	53.4	7/14
Regularly scheduled collaboration among teachers on instruction issues (%)	92.8	81.8	2/14
Mentoring or peer observation and coaching as part of a formal arrangement (%)	79.8	53.9	2/14
Collaborative research and/or development on a topic related to education (%)	70.0	72.9	10/14
Network of teachers (organised by an outside agency or over the Internet (%)	48.9	54.7	8/14
<i>Other types of professional development</i>			
Visited companies/employers (%)	80.6	69.5	5/14
Teacher participation in prof. development (teachers of 15-year olds, 2000), Source: PISA Database, 2001			
% teaching staff who attended a programme of prof. dev. in the last 3 months ¹⁸	53	42	8/27

Sources: All data are from OECD (2003a), unless indicated otherwise in the table.

Notes:

1. "Switzerland's rank" indicates the position of Switzerland when countries are ranked in descending order from the highest to lowest value on the indicator concerned. For example, on the first indicator "Expenditure on all educational institutions as a % of GDP", the rank "11/29" indicates that Switzerland recorded the eleventh highest value of the 29 OECD countries that reported relevant data. The symbol "=" means that at least one other country has the same rank.
2. Expressed in equivalent US\$ converted using purchasing power parities.
3. Expenditure on goods and services consumed within the current year which needs to be made recurrently to sustain the production of educational services. Refers to current expenditure on schools and postsecondary non-tertiary educational institutions.
4. In public and private institutions; calculations based on full-time equivalents. "Teaching staff" refers to professional personnel directly involved in teaching students.
5. Calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled by the number of classes (excluding special needs programmes and teaching in sub-groups outside the regular classroom setting).
6. As reported by school principals. The figure is computed weighting the response for each school sampled by the number of students enrolled in that school.
7. *Management personnel* includes professional personnel who are responsible for school management and administration, i.e., principals, assistant principals, headmasters, and assistant headmasters. *Teacher aides* includes non-professional personnel or students who support teachers in providing instruction to students. *Professional support personnel* includes professional staff who provide student services, e.g., guidance counselors, librarians and psychologists. *Other support personnel* includes maintenance and operations personnel, e.g., receptionists, secretaries, plumbers, drivers, cleaning personnel, etc.
8. Percentage of tertiary graduates who graduated with qualifications in education. "Tertiary-type A" programmes generally involve at least three years full-time study, and typically last four or more years. "Tertiary-type B" programmes are generally shorter, less theory-based, and are designed for direct entry to the labour market.
9. Ratio of vacant posts to the total number of FTE teachers at the beginning of the 2001-02 school year.
10. Percentage of students attending schools where principal reported difficulty.
11. Percentage of students attending schools that use the listed methods to cover teaching vacancies.
12. PISA index based on the percentage of 15-year olds who report that in most or every test language lesson, the teacher: (i) shows an interest in every student's learning; (ii) gives students an opportunity to express opinions; (iii) helps students with their work; (iv) continues teaching until the students understand; (v) does a lot to help students; (vi) helps students with their learning; and (vii) checks students' homework. A positive value on the index indicates that the students responded more favourably than all students on average, in OECD countries; a negative value indicates that they responded less favourably on average.
13. PISA index based on the percentage of 15-year olds who report that in most or every test language lesson: (i) the teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down; (ii) students cannot work well; (iii) students don't listen to what the teacher says; (iv) students don't start working for a long time after the lesson begins; (v) there is noise and disorder; and (vi) at the start of class, more than five minutes are spent doing nothing. A positive value indicates that the students responded more favourably than all students on average in OECD countries; a negative value indicates that they responded less favourably on average.
14. Index of change between 1996 and 2001 in teachers' salaries converting 1996 salaries to 2001 price levels using GDP deflators. The index is calculated as $\text{teacher salary 2001 in national currency} * 100 / \text{Teacher salary 1996 in national currency} * \text{GDP deflator 2001}$.
15. OECD (2003a) gives information about the authority responsible for making the decision regarding the increase. A "√" indicates that the specific system exists to increase the base salary of teachers while "∅" indicates that such system does not exist. The information in the column "OECD country mean" provides the number of countries in which the specific mechanism exists out of the 29 countries for which data are available.
16. Percentage of students whose school principal reported school support for teachers' professional development.
17. Percentage of students attending schools where principals reported that at least one teacher participated in professional development activities during the 2000/2001 school year.
18. In the PISA 2000 questionnaire, principals were asked what percentage of teaching staff in their school has attended a programme of professional development in the last three months. The average country figure is computed weighting each school figure by the number of students enrolled in that school.