ATTRACTING, DEVELOPING AND RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

Country Background Report for The Netherlands - OECD

January 2003

PREFACE

It is my pleasure to present the background report on policy with regard to the recruitment, development and retention of teachers in the Netherlands within the framework of the OECD activity *Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. This project may be viewed as a welcome step forward in our shared effort to provide for an adequate teaching workforce, which is strong in both a quantitative and a qualitative sense. We need sufficient, top-quality teaching staff at all levels to make the education we offer our children equal to the best anywhere in the world.

The report provides a true and accurate description of education policy in relation to the recruitment, development and retention of teachers in our country throughout the past decade. The facts and figures provided illustrate developments during in past years, where this is appropriate and serves to enhance our understanding of where we stand at this moment. I have therefore dedicated part of this preface to recent policy decisions aimed at strengthening the way the labour market in the education sector functions.

It is my view and that of my Ministry that the way to deal with the challenges facing us in relation to the supply of and demand for teachers has to be a collaborative one. The three main parties involved are the schools, the Ministry of Education and the organisations which act as intermediaries. A clearly defined division of their roles and a collaborative approach are prerequisites for a labour market that operates smoothly.

In the coming years, strategic policy in relation to teacher recruitment, development and retention will focus on three points:
a) the implementation by schools of available instruments for institutional personnel policy;
b) an increase in the number of people entering the education professions and guaranteeing the quality of staff;
c) adequate positioning of the main stakeholders on the labour market.

The labour market for primary and secondary education in the Netherlands is very much a regionally oriented and in some cases even a locally structured market. This is due, in part, to the fact that in the Netherlands freedom of education is enshrined in the Constitution, i.e. the freedom to found schools, to determine the principles on which they are based and to organise the teaching and staff structures in schools. In a situation such as this, characterised by a regional labour market, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is not in a position to match the demand for and supply of teachers. Since schools themselves are able to act more effectively in this field, the Ministry has to provide resources to enable schools to do so and adopt a policy aimed at promoting a labour market that functions well. In addition to this, the Ministry has to ensure an appropriate system for guaranteeing the quality of the education professions .

School staffing, the personnel policies of individual schools and the introduction of new categories of teaching staff expose the gaps in the existing qualification structure and in the teacher training system. The qualification structure and the teacher training system have to be tailored to the emerging trend in schools towards diversification of their staff structure. At the same time, the teacher training system also has to be better equipped to accommodate the inflow into schools of people with prior education, training and competencies acquired in a variety of other fields.

If all these plans and proposals are realised successfully, a major change will be achieved in the education infrastructure in the Netherlands. With the assistance of intermediaries, whose task is to match supply and demand, the labour market in the education sector will operate effectively and a balance and alignment between supply and demand can be achieved.
In a situation such as this, central government can limit its role to that of the regulator of the market.

We would be gratified if our country background report were to contribute to an exchange of information on developments in other countries with regard to policy in the area of teacher recruitment, development and retention. We certainly look forward to receiving other background reports and learning from what other countries are doing in this area, to find support for the approaches we have taken and to be inspired by alternative concepts and ideas.

The Minister for Education, Culture and Science,

Maria J.A. van der Hoeven

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GLOSSARY

Career changer: Person entering the teaching profession at a later stage in life, after having had a career in another profession

Competent authority: School board. A school board can govern one or multiple schools

Decentralization: Devolving responsibilities from the level of central government to the level of education organizations

Delegated budgeting: Schools receive an increasing part of their budgets as a lump sum, that is not earmarked for any specific use

Deregulation: Diminishing the number of regulations issued by the Ministry and/or making these regulations more global

Economies of scale: the development towards larger educational institutions, that can work more effectively, for instance with regard to (human) resource management. It has long been seen as a prerequisite for implementing integrated personnel management

Lateral recruitment: Recruitment of teaching staff from other professions, who can often be characterized as career changers. A temporary Act has been issued to facilitate this

Non-state School: A school that has an autonomous school board and generally has additional funding from parents or organizations (like churches), apart from the funding by the state

Plus-teacher: Experienced teacher who is appointed at a school especially to replace sick teachers, combined with other tasks

Professionalization: 1) Term used to describe the process towards the school as a professional learning community 2) Term used to describe the process towards the professional teacher, who is responsible for his/her own performance and development

Standards of competence: Description of the competences (mainly skills) a teacher should have, that will be laid down in the Education (Professions) Act, and will be used to tailor teacher training and for assessment purposes

State School: Originally a school that has the municipal administration as competent authority. This is changing at the moment: these schools can also have an autonomous school board

Subject guilds: Associations of teachers in secondary education, organised by subject and aimed at professional development, enhancement of didactics and promotion of the subject

The autonomous school: The school in the ideal situation of deregulation and decentralization, that has maximum freedom to pursue own school bound policies

The open education labour market: The ideal situation where people can enter the teaching profession at any moment in their career, via various paths and training facilities. Of course, they can also leave the sector at any moment in their career, because their training and experience gives them a broad scope. As opposed to the closed labour market, where admission to the profession can only be achieved in one way, namely traditional teacher training, and teachers have few alternatives elsewhere on the labour market

Trainee teacher: Teacher student in the last year of his/her study, who works on a part-time basis for a limited period and under supervision at a school and performs all the tasks a normal teacher would perform.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADV	Shorter working week
AOb	General Labour Union
AVS	Union of Head Teachers
BAPO	Regulation to stimulate the labour market participation of older staff
Cfi	Autonomous Financial Department of the Ministry of Education
CMHF	Labour Union for Staff in Higher and Intermediate Functions
CNV	Labour Union based on Christian principles
CTL	Committee on the Future of the Teaching Profession
FPU	Regulation for Flexible Retirement
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
Pf	Participation Fund
PPO	Departments in employment agencies for the Education Sector
ROP	Council for Public Sector Personnel Policy
SBL	Association for the Quality of the Teaching Profession
SBO	Sector Management Employment in Education
SCOP	Education Personnel Sector Committee
SER	Social Economic Council
TWAO	Interim Education (Employment Mediation) Act
VBKO	Employer Organisation for Catholic Schools
VBS	Employer Organisation for General Non-state Schools
Vf	Replacement Fund
VOS/ABB	Employer Organisation for State and other Pluralist Schools
VVO	Association for School Management in Secondary Education
VVVO	Association of Subject Guilds in Secondary Education
WEV	Proportional Representation of Women in Educational Management Posts Act

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

During the past decade, surpluses of teachers in primary and secondary education have been replaced by serious shortages. This change was caused mainly by an increase in the number of teachers retiring, an increase in student enrolments, a reduction class sizes in primary education, an insufficient supply of qualified teachers and a low level of teacher retention. In general, the labour market for more highly educated employees became tight in the years of economic boom, which caused fierce competition between the various sectors of the labour market. Dutch people regard teacher shortages as the most important cause for concern with regard to education.

Several measures have been taken to attract, develop and retain competent teachers. These measures all fit into a broader education policy, aimed at enhancing the quality of education, promoting equal opportunities and making education more effective. Schools and their staff play an important role in achieving these goals. Greater emphasis will therefore be placed on the responsibility of individual institutions and the people working in them. The overall tendency has been towards devolving certain responsibilities from the level of central government to the level of education organisations.

Attracting teachers

Several initiatives have been undertaken to make the education sector more attractive. One such initiative was to improve the salaries of teachers to bring them more in line with salaries in the private sector. Another initiative was shortening the career path of teachers from twenty-six to twenty years and eventually to fifteen years. A third initiative was to make differentiation in pay possible. Schools now receive additional budgets to reward teachers who have above average competencies or to take into account other work experience in the form of a higher salary.

Another initiative, aimed at attracting more teachers, is the modernisation of both the conditions of employment and personnel management in schools. Workload, pressure of work and mobility are focal points in this respect. The implementation of integrated personnel management is considered a precondition for the successful implementation of modernised conditions of employment and as an instrument for improving education. Good personnel management contributes to the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Schools have been given budgets to improve the conditions of employment and develop tailor-made solutions in this respect.

An open labour market may contribute to a dramatic increase in the number of potential teachers. This can be achieved by developing different paths to becoming a teacher. These paths are geared to the needs of various target groups, such as career changers, that is, people who switch from a different profession to teaching at a later stage in life. The introduction of dual learning paths is important in this respect. This will give more categories of potential teachers the opportunity to opt for teacher training. Several publicity campaigns to promote the teaching profession were launched by the Ministry of Education to tap new sources of people interested in joining the profession.

Teacher education

It is necessary that the teacher training system is flexible, not only to provide new paths to becoming a teacher, but also to adapt teacher training to the demands of a changing society. One of the results is a shift

from a pure function-based system to a system based on the ongoing development of competencies with a stronger focus on training on the job. In this new system, the schools themselves play an important role. They are considered to be co-trainers of new teachers, in co-operation with the teacher training institutes. The teaching staff itself plays an essential role in providing the intrinsic framework for such innovation, for example by drawing up professional standards. These standards will be set out in legislation. Consequently these developments have both a top-down and a bottom-up character.

Special training facilities have been developed for returners to the profession, career changers and teaching assistants. In addition, projects have been set up for ethnic minorities and newcomers to the profession. An important step was the introduction of trainee teachers. These are students in the final year of their training who are employed by schools on a part-time basis on a training and employment contract for a limited period not exceeding one school year. The trainee teacher can apply the skills he or she has acquired and try them out in a real teaching context. This enables the teacher training institutes to follow current developments in schools more closely. In return the schools benefit because the workload of regular staff can be reduced and new ideas on teaching methods can be introduced smoothly. In general, all stakeholders are of the opinion that the co-operation between teacher training institutes and schools has improved since the introduction of trainee teachers. Furthermore, the training institutes will develop more tailor-made training paths for various target groups. Furthermore, student teachers will be given the opportunity to broaden their scope outside the education sector.

Deploying teachers

School boards recruit, select and appoint their own staff. This has not changed in the past decades. However, schools have to adhere to some general rules and over the years the government has tried to influence recruitment strategies by issuing certain regulations. In the first half of the nineties, surpluses on the education labour market predominated and government intervention was mainly aimed at preventing dismissals and promoting the deployment of unemployed teachers. In the second half of the nineties, these concerns became less pressing and were replaced by shortages of staff. Changes were made to the regulations governing appointments and conditions of service to keep them in line with the modernisation of schools as professional learning communities, as well as to contribute to a more flexible labour market.

Concerns about the diversity of teaching staff and the managements of schools came to the fore. In particular, efforts were made to appoint more teachers from ethnic minorities and more women to management positions in schools. An Act was passed which specifically focussed on women in management positions, while the deployment of teachers from ethnic minorities was specifically stimulated by means of several projects.

The Education Survey 2002 showed that 86% of parents have a positive or very positive view of their children's teachers in primary and secondary education.

Retaining teachers

With the expected teacher shortages in the next five years in mind, retaining staff has become crucial to the quality of education. The focus is mainly on improving personnel management in schools with the aim of preventing premature resignations and illness. Good personnel management within the institutions is needed. An emphasis has been placed on what is referred to as 'integrated personnel management', meaning that the various components of personnel management are interrelated and linked together. Another term that has been used in schools over the past few years is 'age-conscious' personnel

management, in other words, personnel management that takes into account differences in age or various stages in the careers of staff.

To reduce the pressures of work on staff, schools can pursue what is called 'task management'. About three-quarters of schools do this. Most of the time, it means that an inventory is made of all the tasks within the school, apart from classroom teaching, and that these tasks are distributed in a certain way amongst the staff. Teachers and the management of the schools where this has been introduced are of the opinion that this provides better insight into the total range of tasks of the school and that the distribution of these tasks is fairer. Furthermore, this system makes it easier to meet individual preferences for certain tasks. However, in the experience of teachers, the pressures of work often remain the same or increase. According to the researchers, this is due to the fact that in most schools there is no integrated personnel management yet and 'task management' is often unrelated to other components of personnel management.

Over the last decade, the diversification of functions in schools has been stimulated by central government. As a result, the number of different functions within schools has increased. On the whole this has been achieved through task differentiation (separate non-teaching tasks are assigned to individual teachers) and not through differentiation of jobs (new jobs are created with their own job descriptions *et cetera*). This last form is assumed to be too inflexible for schools. To support the development of job differentiation, new salary scales for teachers have been introduced in primary and secondary education and the application of the scales has been made more flexible.

An important step in reducing workload has been the introduction of teaching assistants. These assistants support the teacher in teaching, the core process in education. A special vocational training programme has been developed to prepare these assistants adequately for their job and it has been made financially attractive for schools to employ them. The total number of teaching assistants increased from 750 in 1998 to 3200 in 2002.

School autonomy and teacher policy

Deregulation and decentralisation are part of an ongoing process aimed at devolving responsibilities from the level of central government to the level of the schools as education organisations. However, this process cannot produce the required innovation in management overnight and the intended administrative changes are not always easy to realise. Levels of authority other than central government intervene and interfere with the proclaimed autonomy of schools. For instance, where provincial authorities mainly have supervisory duties, municipal authorities perform a wide variety of tasks and issue local regulations with regard to school buildings, municipal policy in relation to disadvantaged groups in society, school counselling and advisory services. With regard to human resources management, schools also encounter regulations issued by institutions administered by the social partners (organisations representing employers and employees), such as the Replacement and the Participation Fund.

Sometimes, there are conflicting interests at the various levels of authority. This is the case with the decentralisation of financial and managerial responsibilities. Schools are made responsible for their human resources management at the level of the school, but at the same time agreements are entered into at a different level which could have a considerable impact on the room for manoeuvre that schools have. Although schools have their own budgets to tailor conditions of service to their own personnel requirements, this same budget has to be used to pay for individual rights granted to employees by other levels of authority. Paid parental leave is an example of the latter. Another example of conflicting interests at various levels is the case of teacher training institutes. They have to meet the demands of schools and

deliver 'tailor-made' teachers, but at the same time they have to develop a high-quality curriculum based on standards of competence that are applicable to the professional group of teachers as a whole.

It seems that the realisation of the concept of an autonomous school as a professional learning community in an open education labour market, where the demand and supply of teaching staff are balanced, will take more effort and time than expected.

1 NATIONAL CONTEXT

Main education policy objectives

1   Modern society is characterised by increasing diversity and is becoming more and more multicultural. At the same time, knowledge and information increasingly form the backbone of our economy. Education therefore has to meet two major challenges. On the one hand, it has to result in the creation of a more inclusive society and, on the other, to strengthen the knowledge society. The policy developments over the past ten years have reflected these two challenges. The issues central to policy development have been enhancing the quality of education, promoting equal opportunities and trying to make education more effective. Schools and their staff play an important role in achieving these goals. The overall tendency of government policy has been to devolve certain responsibilities from the level of central government to the level of education organisations (such as employer and employee organisations with regard to conditions of employment), local authorities, school boards and the schools themselves. Staffing problems, ranging from rather large surpluses in the early nineties to serious difficulties in filling vacant positions at the beginning of the new decade, were a constant point of concern in education policy.

Important themes of the past decade

2   The main themes in education policy during the nineties can be divided in two clusters, namely, intrinsic education policies, relating to the content and organisation of the primary process in education, and policies relating to conditions of employment, personnel management and financial management. With regard to the first cluster, several education reform programmes have been implemented and policies with regard to children with special educational needs have been revised. With regard to the second cluster, deregulation and decentralisation were important developments, resulting in greater autonomy for schools. In addition, a process aimed at achieving greater economies of scale has been set in motion and the policies relating to conditions of employment have been revised.[1]

Cluster 1: Intrinsic education policy

3   Education reform programmes were implemented along two lines:
➢ An uninterrupted school career, with smooth transitions from one type or level of education to a subsequent type or level. This brought about reforms in all types of education. Although these reforms were aimed at the content of education and the organisation of the primary process, these developments were not without consequences for teachers. A new way of teaching was expected (focussing more on coaching than instruction) and the organisation of subjects in secondary education was changed, sometimes forcing teachers to teach in areas (slightly) outside of their disciplines.
➢ Handling diversity in education. This issue brought about far-reaching co-operation between primary and special schools, reduced group size in primary education, further utilisation of ICT and a new financing system for students who need special care. This also had its consequences for teachers. Teachers in mainstream education had to work more intensively than they had been used to with children who demanded a lot of attention, while teachers in special education had to cope with classes that were generally more difficult to handle than was previously the case, since students with 'mild or moderate' problems remained in mainstream education.

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[1] Education Council, 2000, *Onderwijsbeleid sinds de jaren zeventig*.

4   Education reform policies did not encompass drastic deregulation. The targets to be achieved by the several types of education were set quite strictly. However, new regulations were drawn up with a different mind frame: they set global rules and schools do have a fair amount of freedom in the way they organise the education process. The policy regarding students from deprived families, such as low educated families and families of ethnic minorities, has been devolved to the municipalities, while at the same time schools receive more money for certain categories of educationally disadvantaged students. This means that schools can dedicate more resources (and personnel) to educating and coaching these children. Various regulations relating to handicapped children and children with learning difficulties have changed. With regard to the content and organisation of the primary process in education, an overall enhancement of the quality of education was sought. Measures were taken aimed at modernising and diversifying the education provided by schools.

Cluster 2: Financing, personnel management and conditions of service

5   This cluster of policies includes a large component of deregulation and devolution of responsibilities. The overall development can be characterised as an ongoing process aimed at devolving responsibilities and problem solving capacities to a lower level, from central government to the organisations of employers and employees, to local authorities and to school boards. While central government retained its responsibility for providing direction within the education system (what public tasks must be fulfilled, the conditions for doing so, the funds), schools were given greater financial, managerial and educational freedom. In this process, the introduction of the Staff Establishment Budget System for secondary education, in 1992, was an important milestone. This development continued during the nineties, with delegated budgeting for secondary education and further devolvement of some responsibilities for both primary and secondary education.

6   To balance the increased power of schools, for instance in the area of personnel management, a repositioning of the actors in the field was necessary. Several Acts were passed to achieve this repositioning. Firstly, the Education (Participation) Act[2] was amended to strengthen the position of staff, students and parents within schools. Secondly, the Education (Professions) Act[3] was introduced, which defined the quality criteria for teachers (see chapter 4). Thirdly, the Education (Supervision) Act[4] was passed which gave the Education Inspectorate a mandate to evaluate the education process within schools on the basis of quality criteria. Fourthly, the Education Number Act[5] was introduced, enabling the Ministry to monitor the actual movements of students within the system and opening the possibility of intervening in the operation of the system.

7   These Acts are the foundation on which the new system is based, in which schools have greater freedom to pursue their own policies and at the same time are accountable for their performance. Schools are responsible for the quality of the education they provide. They have to make use of self-evaluation systems and show that they meet the quality criteria in all respects. If they fail to do so, other parties (the Inspectorate, the Ministry, the representative advisory council) may intervene. For instance, on the one hand, the Inspectorate may only visit schools once every few years, which can show that they meet the quality criteria and, on the other hand, schools that fail to meet the criteria may be visited more frequently. This is referred to as "proportionate inspection". At the moment, however, only a minority of the schools

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[2] *Wet medezeggenschap onderwijs.*

[3] *Wet beroepen in het onderwijs.*

[4] *Wet op het onderwijstoezicht.*

[5] *Wet onderwijsnummer.*

and education institutions carry out some form of self-evaluation, which means there is still some way to go before this system functions properly.[6]

8   To operate adequately within this new managerial environment, schools have to develop the capacity to implement their own performance policies. They need to control the conditions that determine their performance and should be hindered as little as possible by resource constraints. To achieve this objective, changes will also have to be implemented in the schools themselves, i.e. an integrated management system, shared views on the part of management and staff on how to provide quality education, and a realistic and responsive attitude towards students, parents and the community. Although school management, staff and school boards each have their own roles, the school management is the key actor in this respect. At the moment, considerable differences in management competence exist between schools and investment in the professionalism of the school management is a priority.[7]

9   To further the efficiency and accessibility of primary education, a process aimed at achieving increasing economies of scale was started in 1991, which gradually resulted in a reduction in the number of schools. In 1997, an increase in the economies of scale in relation to administrative processes was promoted by introducing a measure with special incentives. Economies of scale of this type could be realised by merging schools or by collaboration or joint ventures between schools. In secondary education, the process of increasing the economies of scale was started in 1992, on the one hand to facilitate delegated budgeting but, on the other hand, to increase the opportunities for students within schools to move from one type of education to another. The latter objective was to be realised by "broad comprehensives", covering all types of secondary education. In addition, larger institutions have more opportunities to pursue a more modern (integrated) form of personnel management. Chapter 2 provides further figures on the economies of scale.

10   The devolvement of responsibility for negotiating the conditions of employment to the education sectors themselves has been under way since the end of the eighties. Furthermore, since 1996 the regulations setting out the legal position of employees in the education sector have in part been determined at a devolved level. The degree to which this is the case depends on the education sector and cluster of conditions. This, combined with delegated financing, gave schools and school boards in secondary education considerable freedom to determine their own personnel policies. Primary education is lagging somewhat behind, as delegated financing does not exist in this sector yet. As of 2005, delegated budgeting will gradually be introduced into primary education.

11   During the nineties, a transition took place on the labour market for teachers, which had a considerable impact on personnel management in education. In the early nineties, there were vast reserves of unemployed teachers on reduced pay. The government's personnel policies were aimed at reducing these surpluses, for instance, by forcing schools to hire unemployed teachers. This policy was pursued until 1996. By then, shortages gradually replaced the surpluses and now many schools have difficulty finding enough teachers to fill vacancies. Government policies now focus on attracting new personnel to the education sector and retaining the staff already working there.

Themes for the future

12   The government recognises that the knowledge society requires modern education. In the policy document 'Education in Place: Power and Creativity for the Knowledge Society' (2000), the Minister and the Secretary of State outlined the direction to be taken in realising the changes that were needed. In the

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[6] Education Inspectorate, 2002, *Onderwijsverslag 2001.*
[7] Education Council, 2002, *Wat scholen vermogen.*

view presented in this document, the government plays both a proactive and a back-seat role. Schools need to be given room to create modern forms of education. "Quality for all" means that individual differences have to be taken into account. Granting equal opportunities in education requires customisation. Institutions have to be offered more opportunities to take control of their own destiny.[8]

13　　In a foresight study on education in the year 2010, the Ministry rethought education policies, in an exploratory manner, in the light of this general view. This resulted in the policy document 'Learning without Constraint'. This document states that education has two main objectives, namely, to strengthen the knowledge economy and to promote social cohesion. To achieve these objectives, every person should have the opportunity to develop his or her talents to the full. There are three important criteria that education must meet in order to perform this task, namely, 'quality', 'accessibility' and 'effectiveness'.[9]

14　　As a result, the following actions are thought to be important for the near future:
- Promotion of tailor-made solutions and diversity in education programmes. To achieve this, the compulsory curriculum should be more limited than the present one. The crucial question is how far society wishes to take this.
- Designing a more transparent and measurable education policy with regard to disadvantaged pupils. Integrated budgets with final responsibility in the hands of just one party could make a difference. Whether this party should be the schools themselves or the municipalities is the question that still has to be answered.
- Improving the state of school buildings and equipment by giving schools the means to increase investment. This should take the form of delegated budgeting, along with a more professional school management.
- Solving shortages in the supply of teaching staff. A large part of the teaching staff will retire in the coming years. This means that the investment in personnel and in making the profession more appealing should continue. More favourable terms of employment, more room for differentiated pay, "team teaching", professional development and task differentiation could be part of this policy.
- Continuing deregulation. Fewer rules and more autonomy for schools can provide the room needed for innovation.
- Stimulating ICT as a tool for improving and modernising education. Up-to-date equipment and (technical as well as didactic) skills of teachers are important preconditions for making ICT a lever for innovation in educational practice.[10]

15　　The use of ICT in education has different aspects with regard to school staff. The findings of the foresight study were, firstly, that teachers would have to acquire new technical and didactic skills in order to make effective use of ICT, which would require further professional development. Secondly, a new category of education personnel would emerge, namely, technical computer and network experts. Thirdly, the nature of learning and teaching would change with the use of ICT with a shift to more independent learning by students and more coaching by teachers. Fourthly, ICT could eventually diminish the workload for teachers because routine tasks could be automated.[11]

16　　The shortages on the education labour market threaten the quality of education. Not only those directly involved in education (teachers, students and parents) experience the problems resulting from these shortages, but the Education Inspectorate in its most recent report also concluded that the quality of

[8] Ministry of Education, 2000, *Education in Place*.
[9] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Learning without Constraint.*
[10] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Learning without Constraint.*
[11] Volman, M. & Janssen, J., 2001, *ICT in het onderwijs en de arbeidsmarkt voor leraren*; Education Inspectorate, 2002, *Onderwijsverslag 2001*.

education is visibly affected by the staffing problems.[12] This is all the more reason to give high priority to solving these problems.

17   An expert group on the future of secondary education concluded that schools have major problems in trying to keep up with social changes. A fundamental, broad and integrated approach seems inevitable. The group came up with a number of policy options, which in part are in line with the government's view and in part go much further. One of the proposals made by the group is a licensing system with clear criteria for schools. This is one of the ways in which central government can control quality and accessibility, but also gives local authorities (municipalities) a role. Regarding the process of increasing economies of scale, the expert group concluded that there should be a balance between large-scale institutions, which have economic advantages, and small-scale teaching units, which are preferable from a pedagogic and didactic point of view. This opinion was recently adopted by the new government. Other recommendations of the expert group relates to quality inspection and the self evaluation of schools, the promotion of experimental schools, the setting up a branch organisation and the modernisation of personnel management in schools.[13]

18   One of the top priorities of the government is the integration of ethnic minorities into Dutch society. The education sector has a very important role in this area. Many children from ethnic minorities start their primary school career with at a considerable disadvantage. Preschool programmes are therefore being developed and implemented, which prepare these children for primary school and give them a better start. Lessons in the languages of ethnic minorities in primary schools, which are often seen as a precondition for learning Dutch as a second language, are under fire. With regard to education personnel, the recruitment of teachers from ethnic minorities has been of particular interest for some time. More recently, the recruitment of members of school boards from these ethnic minorities has been taken up.

19   The SBO (Sector Management Employment in Education), an expertise centre for education employment managed by the social partners (employers and employees), has drawn up a policy agenda for the coming years, mainly to combat the anticipated shortages of teaching staff. The main topics on this agenda are the professionalism of teachers and school management, competitive terms of employment and interaction with other sectors of the labour market.[14]

20   More so than in the past, the government has to provide education institutions with room to manoeuvre. Schools should develop into professional organisations and central government should have a facilitating and stimulating role by formulating the public tasks that must be fulfilled, the conditions for doing so, the funds available and the results that are expected. In this way, the professionals in the schools are given more freedom to organise education. The schools and institutions will have to be publicly accountable for their performance. If the results are below par, the government should not hesitate to step in. This will enable education to get closer to society, its clients and its employees, and it is expected that more flexible and effective solutions will be found to many of the persistent problems.

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[12] Education Inspectorate, 2002, *Onderwijsverslag 2001.*

[13] KPC Groep, 2001, *Kwaliteit door lerende scholen.*

[14] SBO, 2002, *Agenda 2006, Commitment of the social partners in education.*

Demographic trends in the Netherlands

Population by age groups

21   The Dutch population has grown in the past decade from 15 million in 1991 to more than 16 million people in 2002, according to current projections. The Dutch population has aged considerably in recent years. The number of people older than 45 has increased, while the age category of 15-24 years has decreased quite sharply.[15] Looking more closely at the youngest age category (figure 1.1), although there have been some fluctuations, there is an observable and steady increase in the number of young children. This will no doubt have an effect on the demand for education in later years.

Figure 1.1 Development of the age category 0-4 years (x 1000), 1991 - 2002
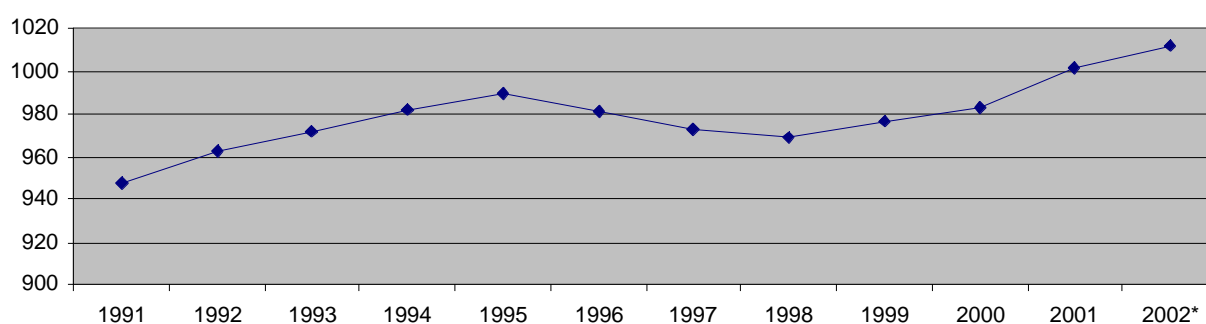
Source: CBS Statline, *2002 is projected.

Population by cultural diversity

22   In this section, some developments are discussed in relation to the immigrant population. In Dutch population statistics, a distinction is made between immigrants from western countries and immigrants from non-western countries. We will consider immigrants from non-western countries, both of the first and second generations, as people with a different cultural background to that of the autochthonous Dutch population.

Between 1995 and 2001 the number of non-western immigrants has increased from 1.1 million to 1.5 million, which is 9% of the total population. The most important categories within this group are people whose origins lie in Turkey, Surinam, Morocco and the Netherlands Antilles/Aruba. Smaller categories with a relatively high growth rate in recent years are people from Iraq, Afghanistan, China and Somalia. Recently, the number of non-western immigrants has begun to decrease. By 2010 the number of non-western immigrants will probably be around 2 million. This increase of 0.5 million accounts for about two-thirds of total population growth.

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[15] Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), Statline. Figure 1.1 in the annex shows this information.

The Dutch economy and labour market, trends and developments

23   While retrenchment policies predominated until the first half of the nineties, from the mid-nineties until the early 2000's the Dutch economy has prospered. This was partly due to the government's policy of reducing the government's budget deficit and partly due to the worldwide economic boom. The balance of payments for the public sector in the Netherlands changed from a deficit of 2.6% in 1995 to a projected surplus of 1.8% in 2002. The national debt decreased in the same period from 60% to 39.1%.

During this period, unemployment fell dramatically, leaving practically only unskilled workers and other less employable groups in the card trays of the job centres. The proportion of the inactive population[16] shrunk from 78.1% in 1995 to 65.5% in 2001 and the rate of unemployment fell from 7.8% to 3.25% in 2001. At the same time, more and more people entered the labour market. The degree of participation rose from 81% to 85% for men aged 20-64 and from 55% to 61% for women of the same age. The labour force grew by 11%.[17]

24   A specific feature of the labour market is the ageing of the labour force. Older people (55+) have a lower rate of participation than younger people. So while the labour force is increasing in size, the ageing process is putting pressure on the overall rate of participation. Government policies have therefore been aimed at promoting labour market participation among older people. A fairly strong rise in labour market participation, especially among people aged 55-59 (men as well as women), was observed in the period 1995-2001. This was not only due to government policies, but also to the growing economy and a cohort effect in relation to women (younger age categories have paid work more often than older age categories).[18] In the education sector, the issue of ageing demands special attention, because the average age here is even higher than in many other sectors, that is, well above 45 years.

25   Labour market participation is highest among higher educated people and lowest among people with no other education than primary school. The rate of participation is especially low for unskilled women. The decrease in unemployment since 1994 was strongest for those with a low level of education, but still the rate of unemployment of people with no more than primary education is 6%, while the rate of unemployment of people with higher professional education or a university degree is 2%.[19] Unemployment amongst non-western immigrants is much higher than that of other categories. In 2000 the rate of unemployment of the former category of immigrants was 11%. Favourable economic conditions pushed this percentage down to 9% in 2001.

26   In several economic sectors there are shortages of higher educated personnel. Healthcare and education are two of these sectors. Since 2001, as elsewhere in the world, economic growth has fallen and unemployment has increased slightly (to a projected 3.75% in 2002). This will no doubt have an effect on the labour market. However, due to several demographic trends, the shortage of higher educated staff will persist and even increase in the coming period.

Trends in resources for schooling

27   The Ministry of Education is the main source of funding for primary and secondary education. Funds are channelled from the Ministry to the education institutions both directly and indirectly. The main

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[16] The inactive population is the population that is not active in any way on the labour market (either working or as an unemployed person).

[17] Central Planning Bureau (CPB), 2001, *Macro-economische Verkenningen 2002*.

[18] Central Planning Bureau (CPB), 2002, *Macro-economische Verkenningen 2003*.

[19] CBS webmagazine, June 17th, 2002.

flows of funds are channelled through the municipalities (for example, funding of school buildings since 1997). Institutions are also free to generate additional income, for example by requesting voluntary parental contributions, by participating in local government projects or by earning interest on savings. Exact data on the extent of this income are not available.

Table 1.1 Actual real expenditure of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science
(x € 1 million)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Total expenditure by the Ministry	17,049.9	18,243.8	19,403.0	21,347.3	23,022.7
Primary education	4,405.2	4,820.7	5,095.5	5,643.8	6,290,1
Secondary education	3,193.6	3,400.8	3,696.0	4,250.7	4,661.3

Source: Facts and figures 2003

28   A comparison of the expenditure on education with the growth in the national economy, as expressed in the gross domestic product (GDP), shows that in recent years expenditure in the education sector has more or less kept pace with economic growth.

Table 1.2 Real expenditure of the Ministry of Education on the education sector
as a % of GDP

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Education*	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.9

* All educational sectors, but student finance, research and culture not included
Source: Facts and figures 2002, 2003

Resources available at the institutional level

29   In primary and secondary education, the financing of school buildings is channelled through the municipalities. In addition, local authorities have their own grants for schools. These amount to approximately € 770 for each student in primary education and approximately € 590 for each student in secondary education. As yet, no data have been included on private contributions, such as voluntary parental contributions, contributions from sponsors and the like. Information on this is not available or is not sufficiently reliable.

Table 1.3 Estimated institutional resources per participant (in current € prices)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Primary education	3,000	3,200	3,400	3,900	4,300
Secondary education	3,900	4,300	4,700	5,300	5,800

Source: Facts and figures 2003

Public views on education and teachers

Public views on the role of schools

30   According to the general public and parents, schools should teach basic skills (such as language and arithmetic), social skills, as well as transferring social values and behavioural standards. The general public, more than parents, believes that the school should pay more attention to the teaching of these skills, especially social skills, and the transfer of social values and behavioural standards. Over the years, however, the number of people who think that the school should do more in the field of basic skills is

growing, while the number of people who think that the school should do more in the field of social skills is decreasing.[20]

Public perception of the quality of education

31   When parents and the general public are asked to evaluate Dutch primary and secondary education on a scale of 0 to 10, the scores lie invariably between 6 and 7. Interestingly, parents give the school their own child attends a significantly higher mark than they give education in general. The conclusion is justified that parents, as well as the general public, consider the quality of education to be at least adequate. Parents, as well as the general public, think that the shortage of teachers is the biggest problem facing education at the moment. An increasing number of parents worry about the behavioural problems of pupils in schools, which can be considered to be the second largest problem confronting parents.[21]

The status of teachers

32   In the Netherlands, from the fifties to the eighties, the status of the teacher remained unchanged: teachers belonged to the higher categories in the social status hierarchy and that seemed to be a stable situation. Since 1983, there has not been any major research into the status of professions, but there is no evidence that the position of teachers in the status hierarchy has changed significantly. More recent research shows, however, that teachers think their status has dropped considerably, while the value they attach to their own profession is fairly high. It is believed that this feeling of being undervalued is the cause of the negative publicity about the status of the teacher. That teachers propagate this feeling to the general public is illustrated by the fact that people personally express considerable appreciation for teachers, but they think that teachers, in general, are not appreciated. These results can be summarised as follows: everybody thinks that the status of teachers has decreased, but in fact this is not the case.[22]

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[20] G. Vrieze et al, 2001, *Onderwijsmeter 2001*.

[21] *Ibid.*.

[22] R. Sikkes, 2000, *Het sprookje van de statusdaling*.

2 THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND TEACHING WORKFORCE

The school system in the Netherlands

The system itself

33   The Dutch Constitution states that all inhabitants of the Netherlands shall receive free education. This implies that all schools (state and non-state schools) will receive equal funding, provided they comply with the Education Acts. Full-time education is compulsory in the Netherlands for all children aged five to fifteen. Children begin their school careers at the age of four in primary education. In 1992 the operation 'Together to School' (*'Weer Samen Naar School'* or *'WSNS'*) was started. The main objective of this operation was to stabilise the growth of a special form of primary education in which handicapped pupils and children with learning and behavioural difficulties received their education.[23] Forms of co-operation between special primary education and mainstream primary education had to create more possibilities to accommodate pupils with moderate problems in mainstream primary education. In 2002 primary education consists of a mainstream and a special form of primary education. Special primary education is meant for children with a serious visual, mental or physical handicap and deaf children, as well as severely maladjusted or chronically sick children.

34   Experiments are being conducted with a special scheme relating to pre-school education for children who lag behind (mainly children from ethnic minorities). The programmes are aimed at the age group from 2 to 5 years. The school system itself has not yet been affected as these programs make use of existing play schools and primary schools. The inclusion of day-care centres is also under consideration.

35   At the age of twelve, most of the pupils move on to secondary education, which branches into pre-vocational secondary, senior secondary and pre-university education. At the secondary level, there is also a form of special education which is based on the same principle as in primary education. In addition, there are more practical learning routes for children with less of an aptitude for theory. At a certain point in secondary education, all pupils are required to meet the standards of the *'basisvorming'*, a basic level in several subjects that pupils can reach in two to four years.

36   After the first stage of secondary education, at around the age of fifteen or sixteen, pupils can move on to vocational education or the second stage of senior secondary or pre-university education. This second stage of senior secondary and pre-university education has recently undergone far-reaching innovation. This innovation means that pupils can now choose between four 'profiles' and that more practical assignments are given. The introduction of the latter was aimed at promoting 'learning to learn' strategies and the structure created for this is referred to as the 'study house'. This entire innovation is intended to facilitate the transition from secondary to higher education.

37   Vocational education consists of two variants at four levels. The first variant is the 'learning-trainee' variant in which pupils spend most of their time at school, alternated by periods of traineeship. The second variant is the 'working-learning' path, in which students have an apprenticeship for four days a week and attend school on the fifth day. It is compulsory for young people aged sixteen and seventeen to receive education at least on a part-time basis.

38   Some pupils continue into university education or higher professional education. There are also several forms of adult education. The figure below shows the structure of the education system in

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[23] Education Council, 2000, *Onderwijsbeleid sinds de jaren zeventig*.

diagrammatic form. The size of each block represents the number of pupils or students in that type of education.

Figure 2.1 The Dutch School System
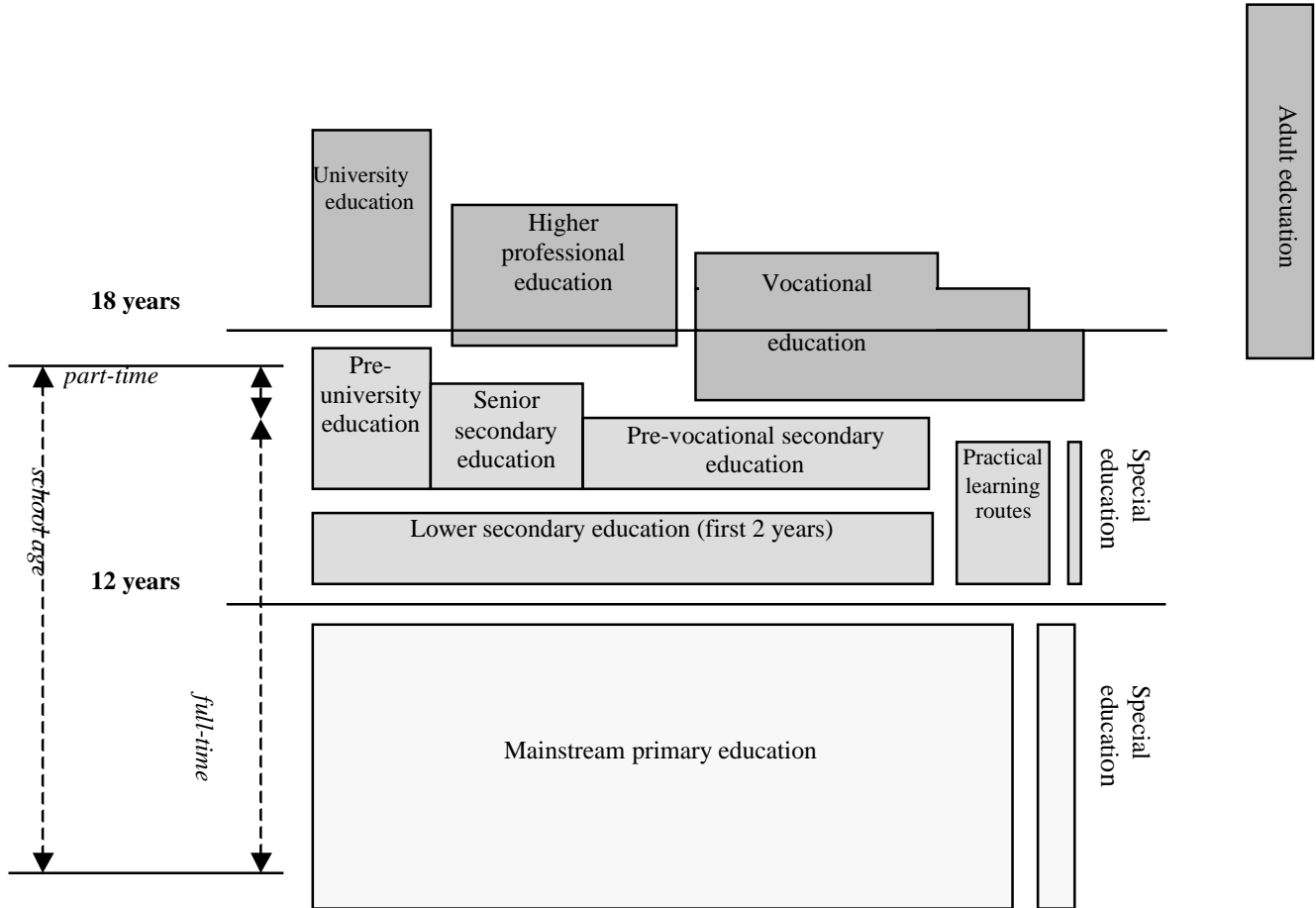
Note: The size of the block represents the number of students or pupils.

Number of schools

39   This report relates only to primary and secondary education, roughly covering the age category of 4 to 16-18. Vocational, higher professional and university education are excluded. Privately financed schools are quite rare in the Netherlands and are also excluded. Figure 2.2 shows the number of schools in primary and secondary education for the years 1996 - 2001. These figures clearly show the results of increasing the economies of scale. The number of schools has decreased steadily, especially in secondary education. More detailed figures can be found in the annex (table A2.1).

Figure 2.2 Number of schools in primary and secondary education, 1996 - 2001
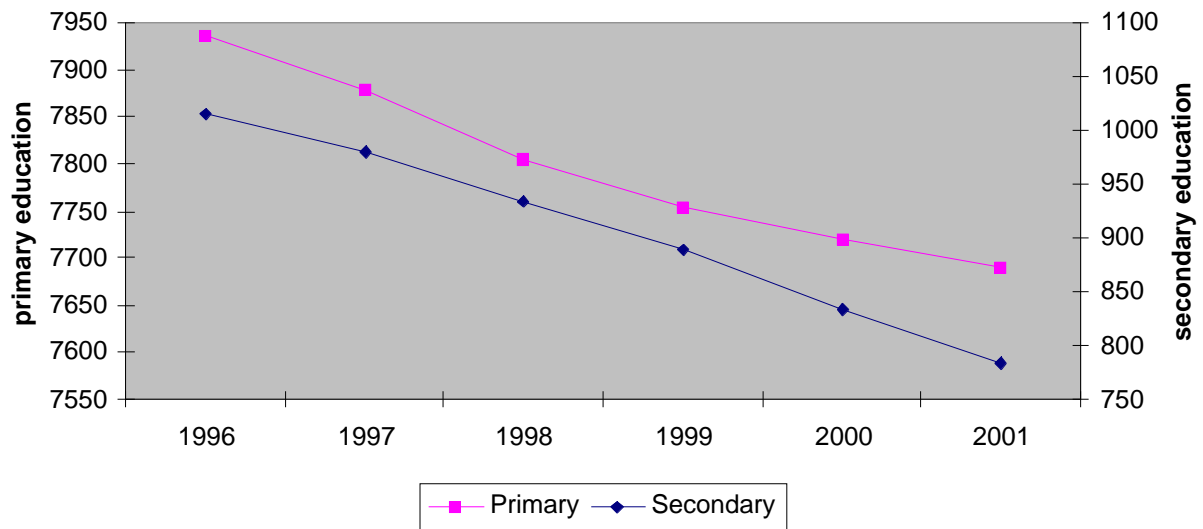
40   A typical feature of the Dutch situation is the existence of state schools, on the one hand, and denominational and other non-state schools, on the other hand. Non-state schools are for a large part denominational schools, such as Protestant and Roman Catholic schools, but nowadays also include Islamic schools. The non-state schools are not private, but are also publicly financed. Their special position means that they are governed in a different way (they have their own school boards, as opposed to the municipal administrations which govern state schools) and have more ways of obtaining additional funding. During the last decade, however, deregulation has also given state schools the possibility of forming autonomous school boards. Moreover, co-operation between denominational and state schools has resulted in mixed school administrations.

41   The trend is that more and more schools have relatively autonomous (non-state) school boards and that municipalities are increasingly withdrawing from governing schools directly. In recent years, municipalities have obtained more responsibility for education in general (in relation to both state and non-state schools), such as student transport, school pupil retention, school accommodation and school advisory services. These responsibilities do not always combine well with being the school board of some of the schools in the municipality. This is the reason that some municipalities have decided to separate these tasks.

The number of pupils

42   While the number of schools has decreased, the number of pupils in primary education has increased steadily. In secondary education, however, a decline occurred in the mid-nineties, followed by a slight increase in the past few years.

Figure 2.3 Development of the number of pupils in primary and secondary education (x 1000), 1995/96 - 2001/02
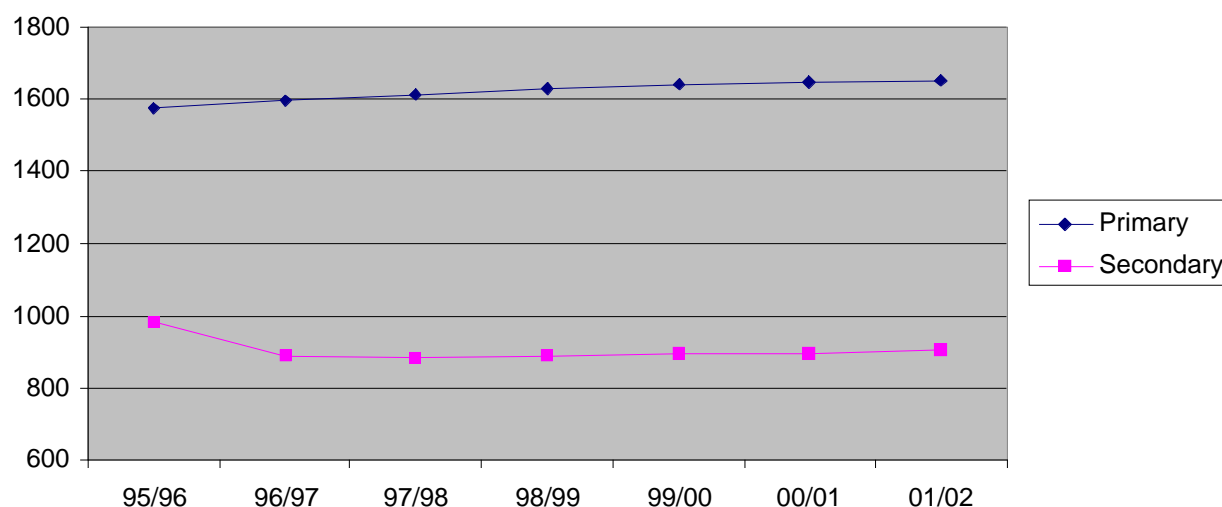
Source: Facts and figures 2002, 2003

Responsible bodies

43   The overall responsibility for Dutch education lies with the Ministry of Education. There is one (independent) advisory body at national level - the Education Council - that advises the government on the main outline of policy and legislation. The Education Council covers a broad field of education, ranging from preschool to postgraduate university education, including education and training provided by companies. Furthermore, all new legislation must be presented to the Council of State before it is presented to Parliament. The Education Council publishes recommendations and reports and initiates seminars and web discussions on relevant subjects.

44   At the level of the education institutions, the school administrations are the competent authorities. They are responsible for implementing legislation and regulations and for policy-making in educational institutions. In recent years, there has been a trend towards greater autonomy and decentralisation. Many central government powers have been transferred to the level of the individual school or local authority (municipality). Central government control is increasingly confined to the area of broad policy-making and to creating the right conditions for the provision of good quality education. Institutions are being given greater freedom in the way they allocate their resources and manage their own affairs, although they are still answerable to government for their performance and policies.

45   At this point it is important to note that the Netherlands does not have a national curriculum, but a standards-based curriculum with performance targets defined in terms of educational outcomes. The safeguarding of the quality of education, with these targets as a point of departure, is carried out by the National Education Inspectorate.

It is also important to note that the Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for agricultural education and has a role which is comparable to that of the Ministry of Education. For the purpose of this report, another important fact is that personnel management and the appointment of staff are responsibilities of the school administrations.

Trends in relation to teaching and non-teaching staff

Primary education

46   Overall employment in primary education has been growing steadily since the beginning of the nineties. This is partly due to the growing number of pupils and partly due to the smaller class size which was introduced in 1997. The last step in the process of diminishing class size will take place in 2002. The introduction of the shorter working week (ADV) in 1998 also plays a role. Several developments can be seen within this total employment picture. While employment has increased by about 35% since 1994, the number of people employed in primary education has increased by almost 38%. This reflects the growing proportion of people working part-time in primary education. Simultaneously, the number of females employed in primary education has increased, as has the number of non-teaching staff. [24]

Figure 2.4 Development of employment in primary education, in full-time equivalents and persons, 1993 - 2000
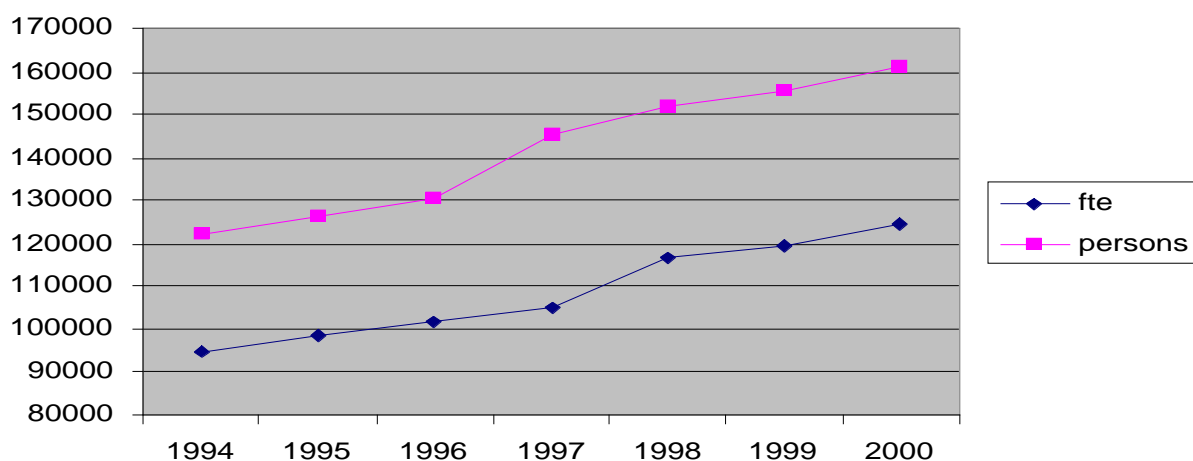
Source: WIO 2003

Secondary education

47   In secondary education, job opportunities have also grown steadily since 1994 at about 18%. The growth in the number of persons employed is about the same as in primary education. This means that average job size has not changed. As in primary education, the number of female staff and the number of non-teaching staff are growing.[25]

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[24] See Annex 1 for figures.
[25] See Annex 1 for figures.

Figure 2.5 Development of employment in secondary education, in full-time equivalents and number of persons employed, 1993 - 2000
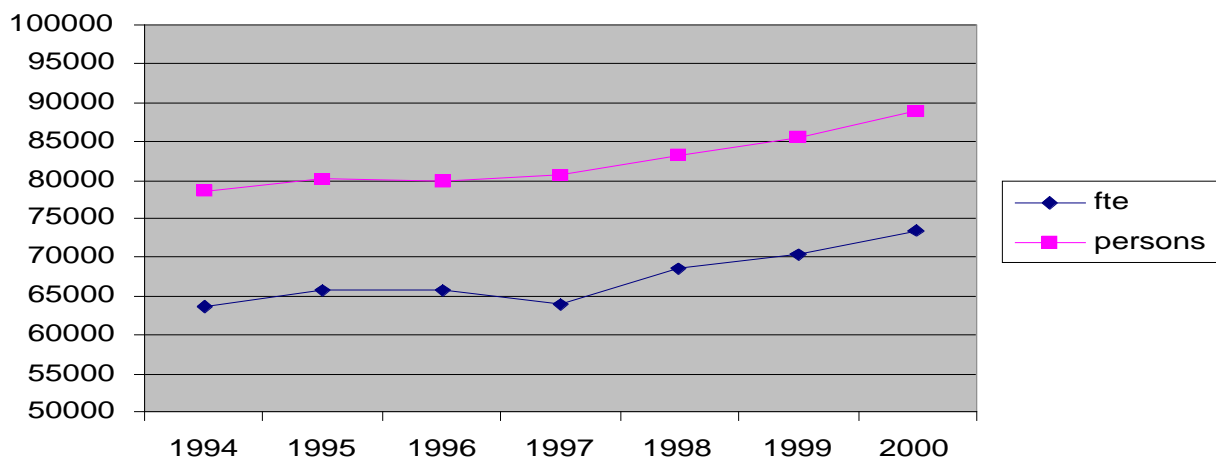
Source: WIO 2003

Female teachers and part-time work

As was mentioned above, the proportion of female teachers is growing in both sectors of education. It is expected that this trend will continue in the coming years. The number of female staff will be especially high in primary education, where 86% of the new students studying at teacher training institutes are female.[26] Many women in the education sector prefer part-time work and the feminisation of the sector has resulted in an increase in part-time work, although it must be said that among men part-time work is also an increasingly common phenomenon. Over time, more teachers will have to be recruited to fill vacancies, which means an extra burden on the management of schools. However, the fact that part-time work can be realised more easily in education than elsewhere makes this sector attractive for many women (and men).[27]

Future scenario

48   The number of full-time teachers needed in primary education will rise from 97,000 in 2003 to 99,500 in 2006. In the same period, the number of teachers leaving the profession will rise from 6,400 to 7,000 full-time equivalents a year and the number of new teachers needed each year will rise from 6,600 to 7,000 full-time equivalents. This will continue in subsequent years. If labour market behaviour does not change, the new inflow will be insufficient to fill the vacancies and the shortage will eventually reach 3,600 full-time equivalents in 2011.[28]

49   In secondary education, the demand for new teachers will be about 4,200 full-time equivalents in 2003. In this sector, the inflow from the teacher training institutes is dramatically low and the number of returners and career changers is equally insufficient to meet annual demand. If nothing changes, the

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[26] H.F. Vaatstra et al, 2002, *Na(ar) de lerarenopleiding, Onderwijsmonitor 2001*.

[27] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

[28] *Ibid.*

unfilled vacancies will rise from 2,800 full-time equivalents in 2003 to 6,000 full-time equivalents in 2006,and even further to 10,000 full-time equivalents in 2011.[29]

The labour market for teachers, trends and developments

50   At the moment, shortages are especially pressing. An important indicator of these shortages is the number of unfilled vacancies. In recent years, the number of vacancies in primary education has been rising sharply. Just before the school year 2000/2001, vacancies in primary education amounted to 6.7% of total employment in this sector and about 10% of these vacancies were not filled by the start of the school year. Vacancies in the higher classes, in special education, in schools with many disadvantaged students, in the western regions of the country and in large cities are especially difficult to fill. Vacancies for school managers (head teachers) are also difficult to fill. Vacancies due to illness of teachers are difficult to fill as well.[30] Unemployment in this sector is very low and amounts to less than 2%.[31]

51   In secondary education, the number of vacancies is also growing. Just before the start of the school year 2000/2001, vacancies amounted to about 6% of total employment and 14% of these vacancies had not been filled by the beginning of the school year. Vacancies at junior secondary level (grade two teaching qualification) and vacancies in special secondary education are especially difficult to fill. The number of unqualified and underqualified teachers appointed to fill normal vacancies has risen from 22% in 1999/2000 to 28% in 2000/2001. Schools for junior vocational education and schools with many disadvantaged pupils appoint more unqualified or underqualified teachers than other schools. The subject for which it is most difficult to recruit teachers is Economics: 17% of the vacancies for Economics teachers were not filled at the start of the school year. A growing number of vacancies can be observed in the cultural and creative subjects. Unemployment in secondary education is also low at about 3%.[32]

52   The four largest cities, namely Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht, have considerable problems filling vacancies: about a quarter of the vacancies are not filled at the start of the school year. Moreover, about half of the teaching staff is unqualified or underqualified.[33] Information on regional differences can be found in the annex. Table 2.1 gives the average number of vacancies during the school year for primary and secondary education, as well as the intensity (percentage of total employment).

Table 2.1 Average number of vacancies in primary and secondary education in the school year 2001-2002 (full-time equivalents)

	Year figure	Intensity
Primary education		
Teachers	1306	1.3%
Management	253	2.2%
Support staff	388	2.4%
Secondary education		
Teachers	500	1.0%
Management	59	1.6%
Support staff	125	1.2%

Source: Regioplan, (to be issued) Arbeidsmarktbarometers primair en voortgezet onderwijs,

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[29] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

[30] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.

[31] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

[32] *Ibid.*

[33] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.

The role of the social partners

53   The social partners (the bodies representing employers and employees) have gained substantial influence during the past ten years, although some find this role still too limited. The Dutch *'poldermodel'* (also referred to as the 'Rhineland model'), however, means that all important socio-economic decisions are discussed with the social partners, i.e. trade unions and employer organisations. At the national level, the Social and Economic Council (SER) is an important body with regard to broad socio-economic issues. In the education sector, the role of the social partners is equally important. This section describes the way the social partners are involved in education policy.

An overview of the social partners

54   Various labour unions participate in negotiations on the conditions of employment in education. One of these unions is based on religious principles (Christian Teachers' Union CNV), one is a union originally for staff in higher and intermediate functions (CMHF), and one union is pluralist (General Education Union AOb). There is also the union of head teachers (AVS) in primary education.

55   The level of union membership in the education sector is relatively high. Although no exact figures are known, an estimate can be given by dividing the number of organised workers by the total number of people who work in the sector, compared to the labour force as a whole. Statistics on the labour force, however, do not include people who work less than 12 hours a week. In education, in particular, working a small number of hours a week is quite common. This means that the figure for the education sector is somewhat overrated. Nevertheless, given the large difference, it can be assumed that the level of union membership in education is much higher than in other sectors.

Table 2.1 Degree of union membership

Percentage of labour union members in the education sector	38.9%*
Overall percentage of labour union members	22.3%

Source: CBS, Statistiek van de vakbeweging 2001, Structuurenquête and Statistiek werkzame beroepsbevolking 2001.
[Statistics of the Union Movement, 2001: Structure Survey and Statistics of the Active Working Population, 2001]
* Due to definitions, this figure is probably overrated.

56   Teachers in secondary education can also join Subject Guilds. A guild exists for each subject taught at schools. These guilds are more concerned with intrinsic education policies and innovation, rather than with conditions of employment.

57   All education sectors have employer organisations. In primary and secondary education, the membership of employer organisations is made up of school boards. The employer organisations are organised according to whether they have a religious or non-religious background. The main organisations are the VBS (for general non-state schools), VBKO (for Catholic schools) and the *'Besturenraad'* (for Protestant schools). State (and other pluralist) schools have their own organisation representing employers, namely, VOS/ABB. These organisations take part in the negotiations on the conditions of employment (see next section).

58   Recently, three of these four organisations representing employers and the organisation for school management in secondary education VVO presented a common framework for the creation of an

"association of employers in secondary education". The aim of this initiative is to create "strong and united" partnership of employers, with the conditions of employment as one of its main areas of concern.

59   In the past ten years, three important institutions, which are administrated by the social partners, were founded at the instigation of the Ministry of Education.
- The Replacement Fund (*Vervangingsfonds, Vf*) was founded in 1992. The main task of this organisation is to attend to the funding of the replacement of ill employees and to control the total amount that is spent on replacement staff. All schools in primary and secondary education have to affiliate to the Replacement Fund.
- The Participation Fund (*Participatiefonds, Pf*) was founded in 1995 and has goals comparable to those of the Replacement Fund, but concentrates on the unemployment benefits of employees. All schools in primary and secondary education have to affiliate to this fund.[34]
- The Sector Management Employment in Education (*Sectorbestuur Onderwijsarbeidsmarkt, SBO*) has existed since 1996. The objective of SBO is to improve the way the labour market functions in the education sector. The organisations of employers and employees participate in SBO and all the subsectors are represented in SBO. Until 2000 the Minister of Education was also a member of SBO. Since then, as in the case of any other labour market sector, employers and employees have responsibility for the labour market policy in the education sector . The Ministry provides the funds, which are allocated in each instance for a period of two years. SBO has the following tasks:
  - disseminating information about the education labour market, identifying bottlenecks, advising the Minister and the parties involved in negotiations on collective labour agreements about labour market policies;
  - directing major labour market projects, carrying out smaller projects;
  - gathering and making available data on the education labour market.

60   One of the outcomes of the discussion about the role and identity of the teacher is the founding in 1998 of the Association for the Quality of the Teaching Profession (*Samenwerkingsorgaan Beroepskwaliteit Leraren, SBL*). The Executive Committee of the Association consists of representatives of labour unions of teaching staff, the Association of Subject Guilds in Secondary Education (*Vakinhoudelijke Verenigingen Voortgezet Onderwijs, Platfom VVVO*) and an independent chairperson appointed by the Ministry of Education. SBL aims to promote and safeguard the professional quality of teachers. To do this, SBL guides, stimulates and encourages the profession to draw up practice-oriented standards of competence for starting teachers. Based on these standards, concrete instruments are designed for teachers to determine, enhance and consolidate their individual qualities. On the basis of these aims, SBL is concerned with both clusters of educational policies, in other words, intrinsic educational policies and policies relating to the conditions of employment. SBL is funded by the Ministry.

The role of the social partners in collective labour agreements

61   Delegated budgeting is a precondition that has to be met if the Ministry of Education wishes to devolve responsibility for any area of policy to the various sectors of education. In August 1996, when the first steps were taken in the direction of delegated budgeting, the responsibility for negotiating the conditions of employment in secondary education was therefore devolved to a limited degree. At that time, this related mainly to fringe benefits (such as various forms of leave), which are part of a collective labour agreement between unions and employer organisations. The main conditions of employment, such as the important issue of wages, are still the subject of negotiation between the social partners and the Ministry of Education. In primary education, delegated budgeting exists in a more restricted form. This sector has had a formal collective labour agreement since August 2001. Prior to this, conditions of employment were

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[34] Education Council, 2000, *Onderwijs in de jaren zeventig*.

governed by the so-called Framework Agreement (*raamovereenkomst*), which was also the outcome of negotiations between the labour unions en the organisations of employers. The difference between this and the collective labour agreement was that schools could choose whether they wished to work according to the Framework Agreement or the rules laid down by the Ministry of Education.[35]

62   Some issues are negotiated at the level of central government, some at the level of the education sector, and some are governed by the devolved collective labour agreements. In secondary education, these can also be negotiated at the institutional level. The following table shows the levels and subjects:

Table 2.2 Negotiations on pay and conditions

level	location	issues
All public sector	Council for public sector personnel policy (ROP)	• pensions • social security
Education sector	Education personnel sector committee (SCOP)	• salary • working hours • social security (enhanced) • yardsticks for job evaluation
Devolved	Collective Labour Agreement	other conditions of service
Board/Institution*		fleshing out of the collective labour agreement

Source: Information Dossier on the Dutch Education System 2001, Dutch Eurydice Unit, 2002
* Some institutions in secondary education have their own Collective Labour Agreement

63   The main issue raised in the most recent negotiations was the improvement of the position of teachers on the labour market. The tension on the labour market, especially in relation to the more highly educated, makes it necessary to make improvement in order to attract and retain sufficient teachers. A special commission advised the government in February 2001 on how to improve the competitive position of the public sector in relation to the private sector (Van Rijn Commission). The Commission recommended an improvement in the career prospects of teachers by shortening the time it takes for teachers to reach the top of a salary scale, by creating more positions at different salary levels and by increasing the possibilities for salary differentiation. The Commission also recommended improving the opportunities for combining work outside the home with the work at home,[36] reducing absenteeism due to illness, improving working conditions (so that teachers can work until retirement age), improving the quality of recruitment procedures and improving communication about the teaching profession.

64   This advice had repercussions on the negotiations between the Ministry and the social partners in 2001. The results of these negotiations included a pay rise in addition to earlier agreements, a rise in the recently agreed annual allowance in December, a shortening of the time it takes teachers to reach the top of a salary scale, more possibilities for salary differentiation (which have to be related to differences in the tasks a teacher performs), the first step towards paid parental leave, more room for schools to introduce job differentiation and additional earmarked budgets for personnel management.

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[35] Education Council, 2000, *Onderwijsbeleid sinds de jaren zeventig*.
[36] Compared to other countries, the Netherlands has a rather low percentage of women in the labour force. This is mainly due to the fact that many women care for their children at home and are engaged in household work.

3 ATTRACTING COMPETENT PEOPLE INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Main policy concerns

65   The past decade has been characterised by a switch from a surplus of teachers on the labour market to a shortage of teachers. Regardless of the labour market situation, the status and image of the teaching profession has been a matter of concern throughout these years, not least for the professional group itself. As shortages became apparent on the education labour market, these concerns about status and image became more pressing. The competitiveness of the teaching profession, compared to other occupations, decreased. For this reason, the Ministry has started intensive media campaigns to promote the teaching profession.

66   One of the reasons that it is difficult to combat shortages is that the education labour market is a rather closed market, especially for primary and secondary education. Although switching from teaching to another profession took place, it seemed difficult to switch from another occupation to teaching. Attempts to open up the education labour market have been made, creating opportunities for other professionals to become teachers at a later stage in life and creating opportunities at other job levels. People with a teaching qualification, who were not actually working as teachers, were encouraged to return to the profession. Opening up the education labour market also raises the issue of quality. The quality of teaching has become another important policy concern.

Data, trends and factors

Main paths into the teaching profession and reasons for becoming a teacher

67   The reasons for becoming a teacher are generally related to the content of the profession. Young people who wish to become primary school teachers, enjoy working with children and enjoy teaching them. These are the main reasons for entering initial teacher training. Young people entering a teacher training programme for secondary school teachers, however, mainly enjoy the subject they will be teaching. The enjoyment that comes from teaching and the enjoyment of working with children or young people take second or third place.[37] For people who become teachers at a later age, the enjoyment of working with young people or children and the enjoyment of teaching are important reasons for becoming teachers. This group, however, is also looking for a new challenge, a change in their professional lives.[38] In general, it can be concluded that intrinsic reasons play an important role in opting to become a teacher, and career aspects are less important.

68   The reasons that people opt not to become teachers, however, are slightly different. Young people who do not opt for teacher training give several reasons, which can be grouped according to three dimensions: the profession just does not appeal to them, material reasons (salary, career), and other forms of education are considered more attractive. It is obvious that young people for whom career aspects are important are not attracted to the teaching profession and, inversely, young people who are attracted to the teaching profession care relatively little for career aspects.[39] This does not mean, of course, that material aspects can be neglected. The attractiveness of the profession as a whole can be enhanced by improving the

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[37] A. Oudejans et al, 1998, *De leraar van de toekomst: wie heeft interesse?;* S. Farag et al, 2001, *Na(ar) de lerarenopleiding, Onderwijsmonitor 2000.*
[38] A. Oudejans, et al, 2002, *Leraarschap als nieuwe kans.*
[39] M.J. Meesters et al, 1998, *Een mooi vak, een moeilijk vak.*

material conditions. Young people, however, who are not attracted at all to the teaching profession, cannot be induced to opt for teaching by improving salaries or career opportunities. It is the group of doubters, those considering becoming teachers, but who have not yet decided, that can perhaps be reached by specific campaigns. The emphasis should then be on intrinsic aspects of the profession, although it must be made clear that the material criteria have been met.

69   People can opt for teaching at a young age when they leave secondary education and at a later age after a career in another occupation. The main career path has always been to enter teacher training at a young age, directly or not too long after leaving secondary education. Since the projected number of graduates from teacher training will only be sufficient to meet about 20-25% of projected demand, however, other paths will become more important. Alternative possibilities are to pursue a part-time course, while working in another profession or in one's own household, or to follow a shortened course (if preliminary training and/or experience is at a required level). The government has also introduced an Interim Act to promote 'lateral recruitment' of people from other occupations. This Act will be described in more detail in the section 'new paths to becoming a teacher' later in this chapter.

70   The vast majority of those working in primary and secondary education have followed one of the teacher training courses given at special institutes (see chapter 4). In the Netherlands, this is officially required in these education sectors. Under certain conditions, however, it has been possible for a long time in secondary education to obtain a (temporary) exemption from this obligation for the period that a person is not yet qualified. Exactly how many uncertified teachers have been appointed over the years is not known, but research into the education labour market has shown that this figure stood at 9% in 1993[40], 10% in 1997[41] and 10% again in 2001.[42]

71   In teacher training, there are the standard full-time and part-time training courses, consisting mainly of lecture courses that have to be taken and a limited amount of time spent as a trainee in schools. This is still the most common path to becoming a teacher. At the moment, however, several other possibilities exist. Recently,[43] the 'teacher-in-training' position was introduced, whereby a student teacher can be appointed by a school during the last year of his or her training, if certain requirements are met. In 2000, it was made legally possible for more highly educated people with relevant work experience to work as teachers, even through they are not qualified. Their ability to work as a teacher is tested through assessments. This category of people entering the teaching profession are referred to 'lateral inflow' and are, in fact, career changers. (For more detail, see the section 'new paths to becoming a teacher'.) They are obliged to take a teacher training course while working as teachers. In the case of primary education, 'shortened' training courses exist for more highly educated students. The four years of the study can be taken in two years. Chapter four will describe these training paths in more detail.

72   After a number of years with a low level of enrolment in teacher training courses for primary education, the number of new students for this sector grew by 60% between 1995 and 2000. The enrolment of students in teacher training courses for secondary education decreased from 1995 to 1997, then stabilised and increased again slightly in 2000. The same applies to the academic teacher training courses.[44] In 2001, a decline could be observed in enrolment in teacher training courses. However, this could partly be ascribed to the decrease in the number of students graduating from senior secondary education. Registrations for the academic year 2002-2003 have once again shown an increase. About one

[40] A. Blees-Booij et al, 1994, *Arbeidsmarktbarometer Voortgezet onderwijs*.
[41] Vrielink et al, 1998, *Arbeidsmarktbarometer Voortgezet Onderwijs 1997*.
[42] Berndsen et al, 2002, *Arbeidsmarktbarometer Voortgezet Onderwijs 2001-2002*.
[43] An experiment was started in 1994, the scheme was introduced permanently in 2001.
[44] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.

third of the students opted for a part-time rather than a full-time training course. This number has increased steadily over the past few years.

Figure 3.1 Enrolment in teacher training 1996 - 2001
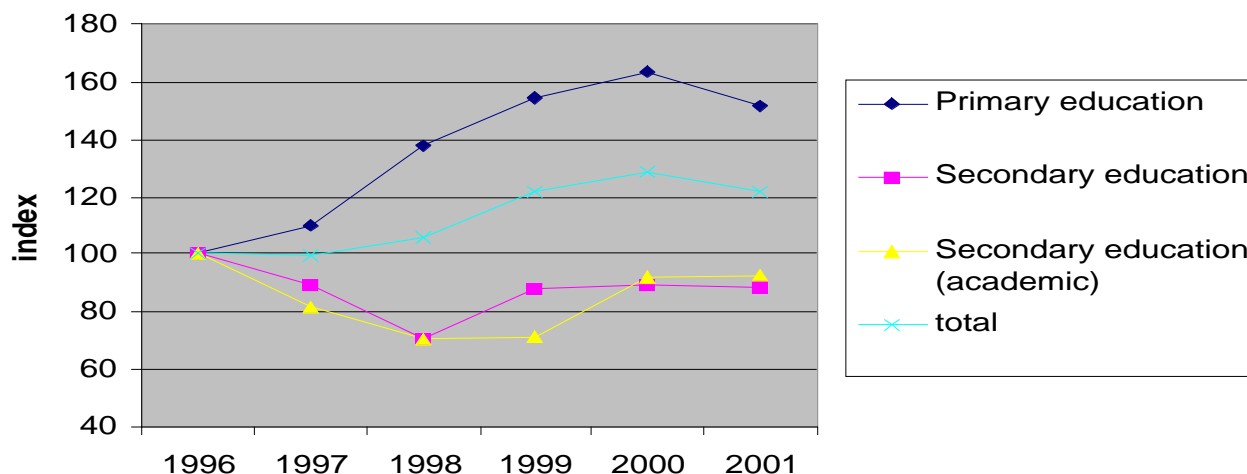
Source: CRIHO

73   Some students do not finish their teacher training. After 1.5 years, about 19% of the students on teacher training courses for primary education have stopped studying, while 12% of the secondary school teacher students have stopped by this stage. The overall dropout rate in higher professional education is 16%, so it can be concluded that the dropout rate in the case students studying to be primary school teachers is relatively high. While the teacher training courses in higher professional education take four years, the academic teacher training course is only one year (after graduating from a university with a Master's degree). The dropout rate in the case of this type of training is 14%.[45]

74   Table 3.1 shows the percentage of students that have graduated as primary or secondary school teachers within five years. The success rate of teacher training for primary education is relatively high, taking into account that the overall success rate for higher professional education is 55%. At the same time, the success rate for secondary school teaching courses is low, although it is improving strongly.

Table 3.1 Percentage of students on teacher training courses who qualify after 5 years

	Start 1994	Start 1995	Start 1996
Primary education	65.5	64.9	62.8
Secondary education	41.3	44.7	49.5

Source: www.hbo-raad.nl key figures

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[45] S. Farag et al, 2001, *Na(ar) de lerarenopleiding, Onderwijsmonitor 2000.*

75   Figure 3.2 shows that the number of newly qualified primary school teachers has increased fairly strongly since 1995, while the number of newly qualified secondary school teachers has decreased. The latter development is due mainly to a fall in enrolment figures, but there is some compensation due to the fall in dropout rates.[46]

Figure 3.2 Numbers of students on the teacher training courses who receive their qualifications
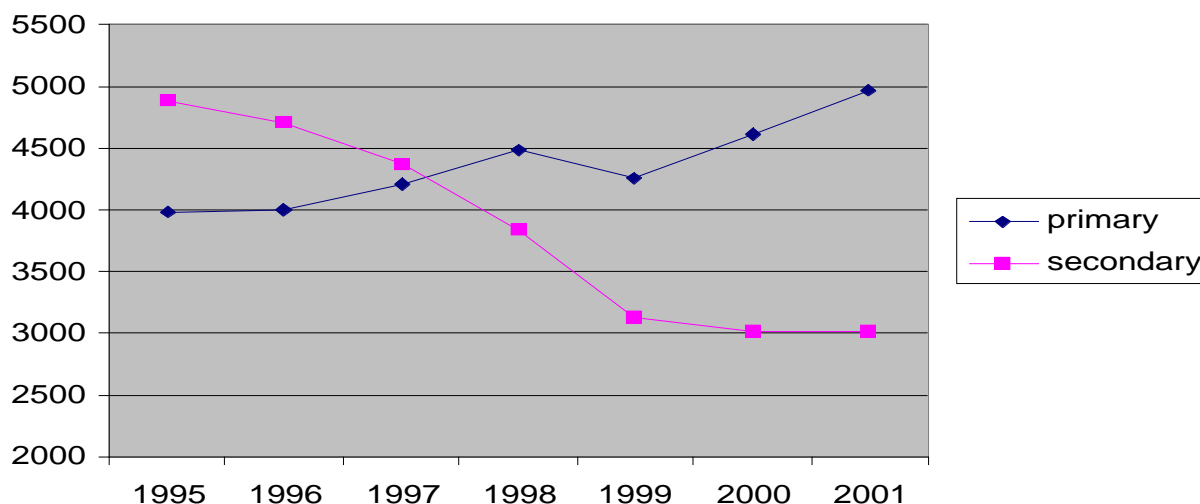
Source: OCenW, 2001, Zoetermeer (WIO, 2001)

76   Of those students who graduate as primary school teachers, 95% actually enter the profession. Of those graduating as secondary school teachers, only 58% start work as teachers.[47] These figures have not changed significantly in recent years. The relatively low figure for secondary education reflects the fact that this type of training also gives access to other positions on the labour market.

77   Research has been done into the possible effect of bonuses as an incentive to students to actually enter and stay in the profession for a certain period of time (5 years). The level of the bonus was set at roughly the amount students pay in tuition fees during their studies (€ 4000). The conclusion of this *ex ante* analysis was that bonuses could have a small effect on the education sector resulting in about 3% more teachers staying in the profession for some time, but the costs are comparatively high. This is partly due to the fact that there is some 'deadweight loss' of bonuses being paid to students who would have entered and stayed in the profession anyway.[48]

Salaries, benefits and working conditions

78   In the education sector, two problems relating to salaries existed at the start of the last decade:
    •   the starting salaries were too low compared to the private sector;

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[46] Exact figures can be found in the annex.
[47] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.
[48] P. van Winden et al, 2002, *Wervings- en bindingspremies in Onderwijs, Zorg en Welzijn*.

- the career lines were too long.

During the period 1990-1997 the starting salary in the main salary category for teachers in primary education (scale 9) was raised in three steps from € 1480 to € 2006. This brought the starting salary more in line with the private sector. In 1990, the career line for teachers in primary education was 26 years. In other words, it took 26 years to reach the top of one's salary scale. This line was shortened in recent years (from 1997 onwards) to 20 years. In 2002 the career line will again be shortened to 18 years. The objective is to eventually reach a career line of 15 years. There is a special budget available for this operation.[49]

Table 3.2 Budget for the shortening of career lines (x € million)

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Primary education	38.3	83.9	105.5	104.6	104.6	104.6
Secondary education	25.5	49.4	61.0	62.0	62.7	62.7

Source: WIO 2001

79   In secondary education, and since 2001 also in primary education, differentiation in pay has been possible. Schools receive additional budgets to reward teachers who have above average competences or to take into account other (paid or unpaid) work experience by means of extra salary.[50]

80   An analysis comparing the salaries of people working in state and non-state jobs in 1999 showed that, in general, people who graduated from university can earn substantially more in the private sector than in the public sector (about 2.5%). For those with higher professional education, this is not the case (about 0.5%, which is not statistically significant). If the education sector is compared to the private sector, the pattern is about the same. However, compared to the healthcare and social services sector, wages in the education sector are relatively high.[51] Since a large number of teachers have completed higher professional education, the private sector does not appear to be a considerable pull factor. For those teachers who have an academic degree, the private sector may certainly be attractive from the point of view of salary.

Policy initiatives and their impact

81   The transition from an ample labour market to a tight labour market during the nineties induced the government to draw up the policy paper 'Tailor-made for Tomorrow: The Perspective of an Open Education Labour Market'.[52] This policy paper focused on two aspects, namely the quality of the teaching profession, which will be discussed in chapter 4, and the open labour market for the education sector, which will be discussed in this chapter.

82   The open labour market should, according to this policy paper, be created by developing different paths to becoming a teacher. These paths are geared to the needs of various target groups, such as career changers, that is, people who switch from a different profession to teaching at a later stage in life. By doing so, more categories of potential teachers will be given the opportunity to opt for teacher training. This means that the training offered by the teacher training institutes should also be geared to the needs of different groups of students.

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[49] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.

[50] *Ibid.*

[51] R. Alessie et al, 2000, *Een vergelijking van de lonen bij de overheid met de lonen in de markts*ector; Ministry of Home Affairs, 2000, *Arbeidsmarktrapportage Overheid 2000*.

[52] Ministry of Education, 1999, *Maatwerk voor morgen, het perspectief van een open onderwijsarbeidsmarkt*.

83   Since there are substantial shortages of head teachers in primary education, primary schools are allowed to appoint head teachers without education qualifications. This relaxation of the law was specifically requested by a majority of the Lower House in the spring of 2002. Non-teachers can now be appointed as head teachers, as long as they are not assigned teaching tasks.[53]

84   Another policy initiative to attract more teachers presented in this policy paper is the modernisation of the terms of employment and personnel management in schools. There should be room for diversity among teachers with regard to their conditions of employment. The work load, the pressure of work and mobility are focal points in this respect. The implementation of integrated personnel management is considered a precondition for the successful implementation of modernised terms of employment and as a tool for improving education. Good personnel management contributes to the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Furthermore, the minister carried out several publicity campaigns to promote teaching as a profession. In 1998 a start was made with a campaign which focussed on primary school teaching as an occupation. This campaign was followed by a campaign which focussed on the occupation of secondary school teaching. Now, a broad campaign to promote teaching in general is in progress. The policy papers 'Tailor-made 2' and 'Tailor-made 3'[54] report on the progress made and present additional measures. A policy initiative was also aimed at a more traditional target group, namely, ethnic minorities. Attracting potential teachers from ethnic minorites is particularly important as a means of ensuring that the teaching staff reflects social diversity. The activities will be described later in this chapter.

New paths to becoming a teacher

85   In the policy paper 'Tailor-made for tomorrow'[55], the development of flexible and dual learning routes is an important issue. The idea is that tailor-made solutions may make it more attractive for certain categories of people to enter teacher training courses. This policy line has major consequences for the teacher training institutes, which have to develop these learning routes themselves. The government wants to follow the basic principle of setting out the main outline of the policy, while supporting initiatives of the institutes and removing possible obstacles.

86   The teacher training institutes for primary education have experimented since 1997/98 with the concept of 'trainee teachers', student teachers working as teachers at primary schools under an apprenticeship contract. Now the scheme is a permanent one and also applies to secondary education.[56] During the fourth year of their studies, students may already hold a paid job as a teacher. They have to meet certain requirements and schools have to offer coaching on the job. In March 2002 there were about 1200 trainee teachers (expressed as full-time equivalents).[57] In March 2001, this number had not yet reached 500. Trainee teachers thus contribute to reducing the shortage of teachers.

87   In the summer of 2000, the Interim Act, permitting people from other occupations to work as unqualified teachers, while completing their teacher training at the same time (lateral recruitment, also referred to as 'side entrance') came into effect.[58] This Act applies to people with a higher level of education (at least higher professional education) and relevant work experience, who can become teachers in primary or secondary education through tailor-made dual learning paths. Assessments are carried out by special agencies within the teacher training institutes. If a school wishes to appoint a career changer, an initial

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[53] *Ibid.*

[54] *Ibid.*; Ministry of Education, 2001, *Maatwerk 2; vervolgnota over een open onderwijsarbeidmarkt.*

[55] Ministry of Education, 1999, *Maatwerk voor morgen, het perspectief van een open onderwijsarbeidsmarkt.*

[56] Can be found in 'Maatwerk voor morgen'.

[57] CASO.

[58] Interim Lateral Recruitment Act, *Bulletin of Acts and Decrees,*, 6 July 2000.

interview with one of the aforementioned agencies is used to determine whether a candidate has the competences required to take the assessment. The next step is the assessment itself, on the basis of which it is decided whether the candidate can enter the dual learning path and, if so, which competences have to be acquired by the candidate during the training. A specific, tailor-made learning path is then offered. Evaluation of the Act showed that only some of the requests for assessment were accepted by the agencies and that subsequently some of the candidates did not pass the assessment (table 3.3). The figures in the table reflect the situation during the first year. By August 2002, 1167 people had been admitted after taking an assessment.

Table 3.3 Number of career changers in the first school year after the effectuation of the Interim Lateral Recruitment Act (*Interimwet Zij-instroom*)

	Primary education	Secondary education
Requests for assessment	655, not granted 27%	132, not granted 45%
Assessments taken	479 (100%)	59 (100%)
Admitted	384 (80%)	51 (86%)
Not admitted	85 (20%)	8 (14%)

Source: Zij-instroom in het beroep, 2002 [Lateral Inflow into the Profession, 2002]

88   The evaluation shows several bottlenecks. Schools only start the process of appointing a career changer once they have a long-term vacancy. Training aimed at specific competences, which is needed for the tailor-made learning paths for career changers, has not been implemented yet by all teacher training institutes. The coordination between the school which appoints the career changer and the teacher training institutes is open to improvement, as is the supervision by the teacher training institute. The remuneration the schools receive for the assessment is also considered to be too low. Apart from these points of criticism, the career changers, their colleagues and their school principals are satisfied with the quality of the training courses, the supervision within the school and the information about lateral recruitment.[59] In 'Tailor-made 3' the amount that is subsidised was raised to redress the fact that the remuneration of schools was too low. In addition, an assessment instrument will be developed especially geared to the specific needs of special education.

89   A comparable initiative is to recruit teachers amongst people who are actively employed in their occupations for the more practical learning paths in junior secondary education. An experiment took place in Rotterdam in 2000, in which experienced craftspeople from the metal industry were appointed to a school for two days a week, while participating in a teacher training course at the same time. The requirement of a high level of education (at least higher professional education) does not apply to this specific category. Other regions and branches have started comparable experiments. In addition, experiments are being held to recruit unemployed people for the teaching profession.[60] A relatively new idea is to develop postgraduate courses for people from other studies, which enable them to obtain a teaching qualification within a short period. The aim of this is to make the transition to teaching as a second career easier.[61]Special courses are also being developed to allow teaching assistants to become fully qualified teachers. See chapter 4 for more details.

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[59]J. Lubberman et al, 2002, *Zij-instroom in het beroep*.

[60] Ministry of Education, 1999, *Maatwerk voor morgen, het perspectief van een open onderwijsarbeidsmarkt*.

[61] Website of the Ministry of Education.

Modernising conditions of employment

90   The most important way for the government to stimulate the modernisation of the conditions of employment in the education sector is to make a special additional budget available to the schools. With this budget, the 'school budget', schools can set their own priorities and take appropriate measures, such as improving the career prospects of their existing staff, appointing extra support staff, coaching young teachers, training on the job for career changers or trainee teachers, parental leave, and so on.[62]

91   This 'school budget' is a combination of several different budgets, namely budgets for in-service training of teachers, for quality enhancement, innovation and personnel management, for solving labour market bottlenecks specific to the school, for differentiated salaries, and for improving the school as a work organisation. In the school year 2000/2001, the total budget amounted to € 212 million for primary education and € 221 million for secondary education.[63]

92   The way this budget is spent by the schools will be monitored on a regular basis. The initial monitoring took place in 2002. It seems that some of the schools need more time to decide what to do with the money. In January, about one tenth of all schools did not have a final use for the budget received in August of the previous year. Other schools decided to save it for later. In primary education this applies to 40% of schools, mostly because they wish to create a buffer for future costs. In secondary education, 70% of the schools saved (part of) the amount, in most cases because the outcome of the collective bargaining was still uncertain.[64] The background to this is that many (state) schools did not have the opportunity to create reserves until recently and several entitlements resulting from collective bargaining, such as paid parental leave, also have to be paid from this budget. Schools are therefore sometimes unsure what part of the budget can be targeted towards their own policies aimed at addressing labour market or personnel issues. This illustrates the problems that have arisen during the process of devolution. In this case, responsibility for allocating the budget is devolved to the school board, but the collective bargaining on some of the items of expenditure is not.

When schools do spend the budget, in primary education the budget is spent mainly on paid parental leave and in-service training, while in secondary education the budget is used mainly to finance paid parental leave, measures to decrease work load, extra support staff and innovation in education.

93   Paid parental leave is quite often (25%) seen as a bottleneck. It is considered expensive and does not leave much budget to spend on other items. It is also difficult to find replacements for teachers on leave.
Another bottleneck is differentiation in pay. There are no clear criteria, many school administrations have not yet formulated a policy, and methods of appraising earlier (work) experience have not yet been developed properly. In addition, staff experience a feeling of injustice when differentiation in pay is actually implemented. Furthermore, there are some complaints about the late decision-making by the Ministry with regard to the budget, about the fact that the budget is paid out to the school administrations and not to the individual schools, and about the fact that the budget is simply too low to make a real difference.[65]

Publicity and recruitment campaigns

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[62] Ministry of Education, 1999, *Maatwerk voor morgen, het perspectief van een open onderwijsarbeidsmarkt.*
[63] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs.*
[64] H.S. Dekker, 2002, *Monitor decentrale budgetten 2001-2002.*
[65] *Ibid.*

94   During the last few years, several publicity campaigns have been held to promote the teaching profession. In 1998, a campaign was held to promote primary school teaching as a profession, in which well-known people were portrayed with the text: 'who taught [name well-known person] to read (or to write) or arithmetic'. In 1999, a campaign for the secondary school teacher was started, with the slogan 'Teacher, every day is different'.

95   In 2001, both campaigns were followed up by a general campaign aimed at promoting the teaching profession in a broad sense. An integrated communication strategy has been developed for this new campaign and the target group has been broadened to draw more prospective returners and career changers into the profession. The latter aspect is important because there are simply not enough young people who can be recruited by the teacher training institutes, especially as far as secondary school teaching is concerned. Since adults seem to have a more positive view of the teaching profession than young people,[66] it is only logical to include them in the target group that is the focus of the labour market communication. The communication is channelled through radio, television, newspapers, magazines and brochures, but also via the Internet, with a special website which provides information on how to become a teacher.

96   The effectiveness of the two earliest campaigns has been evaluated. The general appreciation by the public of the campaign for secondary education was relatively high and the effect of the campaign on the general public's view of the teaching profession has been positive, both amongst the youth and adults. Since the campaign, people more frequently consider teachers to be people who enjoy their work, who get satisfaction from their work and who have work that is not too onerous. Moreover, they more frequently consider the work itself to be enjoyable, varied and challenging.

97   In 1998, a recruitment campaign was also started to attract returners to primary school teaching. The Secretary of State sent a letter to 150,000 people who were qualified primary school teachers, but no longer worked in primary education. By September 2002, more than 5400 candidates were appointed by schools. The project was completed in September 2002.

98   People wanting information about the teaching profession and the possibilities for becoming a teacher or entering teacher training can find information on the website 'become a teacher' (www.wordleraar.nl). To accommodate those who are not familiar with the Internet and/or wish to receive information directly, SBO is starting a telephone information service, where individuals can get information about training and the profession. This is organised via the national public information service 'PO Box 51'.[67]

Teachers from minority groups

99   Dutch society is rapidly becoming multi-ethnic, but people from ethnic minorities are still at a disadvantage on the labour market. To improve this situation, the Employment of Minorities (Promotion) Act[68] was introduced to promote the labour market participation of ethnic minorities. The education sector has specific reasons for implementing this policy. Although definitions vary, the Ministry of Education estimates that the proportion of children from ethnic minorities in primary education is 12%, while only 4% of the teachers are from an ethnic minority background. Not only is it considered important that teachers reflect the ethnic composition of the Dutch school population, it is stressed that teachers from an ethnic minority background are important role models for children from ethnic minorities. Since 1999,

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[66] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Maatwerk 2*; RVD/DTC, 2000, *'Lerarencampagne' tracking*.

[67] This service disseminates information to the public not only by mail, as its name suggests, but also by telephone and via the Internet.

[68] *Wet Stimulering Arbeidsdeelname Etnische Minderheden (Wet SAMEN)*

teams of students from ethnic minorities have visited schools for secondary education to raise the interest of pupils from ethnic minorities in becoming a teachers or teaching assistants. As part of the general publicity campaign for the primary school teachers (see above) special attention was paid to attracting students from ethnic minorities. SBO also initiated the project "Full Colour". One of the aims of this project is to stimulate teacher training institutes to train more students from ethnic minorities. The project supports and provides the institutes with funds to attract and retain these students. The project is also described in chapter 5.

100   However, there are major bottlenecks in teacher training in relation to students from ethnic minority backgrounds. Teacher training institutes expect the same basic (cultural) knowledge and skills that they expect from autochthonous students and often 'blame the victim' if this does not work out. The cultural change needed to be successful in training teachers from ethnic minorities has not taken place yet.[69]

Perceptions of the future

101   In future policies, the Minister wishes to continue along the lines set out in the last few years. In the policy paper "Learning without Constraints (2001)", several ways of improving the attractiveness of the profession are presented. Some of the options mentioned are the further shortening of career lines and giving schools more room for differentiated pay and team pay. Furthermore, it is proposed that the combination of work and care (at home) should be facilitated and made easier. This will make education a more attractive sector in which to work. Greater job differentiation may result in more career prospects for teachers and for others. New working practices, such as team teaching, working in partnerships, abandoning the strict division between classes and working with groups of varying composition will give the education sector new zest and make it more attractive to more people.

102   "Agenda 2006", a policy plan developed by the social partners, outlines various paths for combating personnel shortages and revitalising the sector. With a focus on attracting teachers, this policy plan emphasises teaching as a profession and aims to strengthen the position of the teacher. The following points of view are presented.
- Professional school management is a precondition for bringing about an attractive working environment. This can be achieved by developing the management skills of the current teaching staff and giving them authority and rewards which are competitive with other sectors (public and private). Competitive conditions of employment will help to attract more personnel into the education sector. Compared to other sectors and the national civil service, the education sector is lagging behind in this respect.
- Years of underfunding of education have had an impact on the entire sector in the form of a backlog in the maintenance of school buildings. In addition, the teaching staff require facilities that are suited to new forms of education and organisation. Expenditure in the Netherlands on building should at least be equal the amount other OECD countries reserve for this purpose.

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[69] J. Mars, 2002, *Een onbetreden gebied*; Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs.*

4 EDUCATING, DEVELOPING AND CERTIFYING TEACHERS

Main policy concerns

103   In the last decade fundamental questions about teaching were raised. A national advisory committee, the CTL[70], was set up in 1991 to give an answer to the question "what is the state of teaching today and what should teaching look like tomorrow?" This resulted in recommendations by the committee and subsequent policy papers from the government.[71] The picture of the future of the teaching profession sketched by the advisory committee in 1993 was one in which the teacher is a highly educated, competent professional both as a member of the teaching staff of a school and as a member of a professional learning community.

104   Two main issues concerning teacher training came to the fore, namely, the quality and the flexibility of teacher training. The quality issue reflects the necessity for teacher training to adapt continuously to the changing demands of modern society. It was generally acknowledged that a gap exists between the knowledge and skills acquired at the teacher training institutes and the knowledge and skills needed in the teaching practice in schools. This gap needed to be bridged. Moreover, there was no generally accepted image of the teaching profession and no single model for educating teachers. Teacher training needed more coherence. The issue of flexibility reflected the need to offer alternative training paths for target groups other than the traditional group of secondary school graduates, as well as the need to adapt more to a changing society. The wish and need to create a more open education labour market reinforced the importance of these two policy concerns.

105   One of the results is a shift from a qualification-based system to a system based on the ongoing development of competences with a stronger focus on training on the job. To improve flexibility, measures were taken to provide easier access to teacher training for new target groups. In addition, more flexible training paths are being developed., An important role is reserved for the schools in these developments. Schools are considered to be co-trainers of new teachers, in co-operation with the teacher training institutes. The profession itself plays an essential role in providing the intrinsic framework for such innovation, such as professional standards. Hence these developments have both a top-down and a bottom-up character.

Data, trends and factors

Initial teacher training

106   Teacher training is part of the higher education system, which consists of two parts, namely, higher professional education and university education. In most cases, teacher training institutes are departments of broader colleges and universities. Higher professional education caters for full-time, part-time and dual teacher training courses which lead to qualifications as a primary school teacher, a secondary school teacher grade two (for lower secondary education), a teacher for vocational education, a secondary school teacher grade one (for upper secondary education), and as a special education teacher (postgraduate course). Universities provide full-time, part-time and dual training courses leading to qualifications as a secondary school teacher grade one (upper secondary education).

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[70] Commissie Toekomst Leraarschap, [Committee on the Future of the Teaching Profession].
[71] Vitaal leraarschap (1993), Vitale lerarenopleidingen (1995), Verder met vitaal leraarschap (1998).

107   Primary school teachers are qualified to teach all subjects at the primary level and in special and adult education. Most teachers working at special schools have also completed the postgraduate course, although this is not compulsory. Almost all secondary school teachers have specialised in one subject taught at secondary schools. Courses are available in general subjects, arts subjects, technical subjects and agricultural subjects. The subjects on offer vary from one institute to the next. Courses in technical and agricultural subjects only lead to a grade two qualification. The training courses for physical education and fine arts teachers lead to a grade one qualification.

108   Grade one secondary teachers are qualified to teach at all levels of secondary education. Physical education and fine arts teachers can also work as specialist teachers in primary education. Grade two secondary teachers are qualified to teach the first three years of senior secondary and pre-university education and all four years of junior secondary education. Unlike grade two teachers, grade one teachers can teach at pre-higher education level, i.e. the last two or three years of senior secondary and pre-university education).

109   Admission to a primary teacher training course or a grade two teacher training course[72] is only possible if the candidate possesses a certificate of senior general secondary or pre-university education or the highest level of vocational education. Applicants aged 21 or over, who do not possess the required qualifications, may be admitted after passing a *viva voce* entrance examination. Applicants for grade one teaching courses at universities of higher professional education must have a grade two qualification in the subject to be studied. Postgraduate university teacher training courses are open to all those who have obtained their first degree, provided that their degree course included a two-month introduction to teaching. The subject of their first degree must also provide an adequate preparation for the subject they wish to teach.

Responsibilities

110   The government is responsible for the teacher training system as a whole, the quality of teacher training, the accessibility of teacher training and the efficient spending of the budgets. Teacher training courses are provided by institutions for higher professional education, run by the executive board of an association or foundation for private education, and by universities, which are funded by central government. Another source of income is tuition fees.

111   The teacher training institutes have considerable autonomy to determine their own policies and develop their own curricula and programmes. The management of the institution is responsible for personnel policy, including recruitment, selection and the appointment of teaching staff, and for awarding degrees and certificates.

112   Besides the government and the teacher training institutes, schools and teachers now have their own responsibilities. Schools are responsible for the provision of training places and supervision of teacher trainees and should create the right conditions for the professional development of their personnel. The teachers themselves are ultimately responsible for their own professional development. This redistribution of responsibilities is in line with the emancipation and professionalisation of the sector. It is laid down in the Education (Professions) Bill and supported by the social partners.

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[72] By exception, this also applies to the grade one training courses in physical education and fine arts.

Curriculum

113   The organisation of teacher training courses is regulated in the tuition and examination regulations drawn up by the institutions in question. There are no statutory regulations relating to the curriculum. Only the principles, structure and procedures underlying the tuition and examination regulations of the institutions are prescribed by law. Despite this relative autonomy of the institutions, there are several requirements that they have to meet. Practical training is always a compulsory part of teacher training and the courses should educate teachers to the standards of competence which they are expected to have at the start of their careers.

114   In the case of primary school teacher training, the relevant institutions have drawn up a common curriculum covering about 70% of the total programme. More or less the same applies to institutions that educate students for the teaching qualification for lower secondary education, the requirements for which were drawn up in 1998 by a process management group set up by the institutions themselves. In addition, professional profiles have been drawn up which describe the skills a teacher should possess at the start of his or her career. Based on these profiles, initial standards of competence have been developed for starting teachers. These standards of competence will be laid down by law in due course.[73]

Supervision

115   The teacher training institutes are supervised by the Inspectorate of Education. Use is made of external quality assessment by visiting committees. The results of these assessments are available to the public. Serious shortcomings could result in a public warning by the Minister and eventually lead to the withdrawal of financial support. It is generally believed that this system of assessment has had a positive influence on the quality of teacher training. In the future, an accreditation system will be introduced (2003). From that time on, any institution can decide to offer teacher training. Accreditation by the new National Accreditation Body, within the framework laid down by the Minister, will be necessary and needs to be renewed every six years. Existing teacher training institutes are deemed to be accredited for a certain transitional period.[74]

Funding

116   The macro budget for colleges and universities is fixed by the Minister, regardless of performance indicators. The budget is only corrected in line with wage and price rises, except where adjustments have to be made in the light of policy decisions (e.g. on the basis of estimated student numbers). It is then distributed among the institutions according to an allocation formula based on the numbers of registered students and various performance indicators, such as the number of degree certificates awarded per academic year. Under this performance-based funding system, nearly 50% of the teaching component of the central government grant is allocated on the basis of these awarded degrees. In this system of output financing, institutes are more or less penalised if students leave without receiving their degrees. Since 1994 benefit payments for staff and expenditure on buildings have been covered by the central government grant. Almost 90% of the grant is allocated directly to the institutions in the form of a lump-sum or block grant. They are then free to decide on the most efficient way of using this money to meet their personnel, equipment and accommodation costs. Tuition fees and income from commercial activities form an additional source of income for the higher education institutions. The draft of a new system of funding

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[73] Wetsvoorstel Beroepen in het Onderwijs (2001, Education (Professions) Bill).
[74] Green Paper *De school centraal* (2002).

promises greater flexibility, giving students the opportunity to shop at other institutes for parts of their training.

117   Institutions have to comply with the legal regulations in order to qualify for government funding. Institutions that are not funded by the government are generally not allowed to issue legally recognised diplomas or certificates and students cannot obtain state student grants. Exceptions are made for "approved" institutes, a status for which institutes have to apply to the Minister. These institutes have to meet certain quality requirements and can then issue legally recognised diplomas and certificates.

Training facilities for other groups

Returners

118   Special courses to refresh and update knowledge and skills have been developed for people returning to the teaching profession. The most important target group are women who left teaching and stayed at home for some years to look after their young children. The Sector Management Employment in Education (SBO) has coordinated a project especially directed at people who had actually not used their primary school teaching qualification and wished to return to teaching (see chapter 3, paragraph 97). A special course was part of the project and in 2000 about 1000 people participated in this course.

Lateral inflow

119   Under an Interim Act of July 2000, subject to certain conditions schools may offer temporary teacher appointments to people who have not yet qualified as teachers. The prospective teacher who, in principle, must be a university or higher education graduate, must take an aptitude test and is required to undergo additional tailor-made training, leading to a full teaching qualification within two years. This training path is described in more detail in chapter 3.

Teaching assistants

120   Teaching assistants can enter a teacher training programme in higher professional education and on graduating become fully qualified teachers. However, in general, there is a difference in the level of skills and knowledge of teaching assistants and the level of skills and knowledge required to participate in the teacher training courses. Only a few teaching assistants successfully switch to a teaching post. At the moment special courses are being developed at several locations for teaching assistants who wish to become fully qualified teachers.[75]

Ethnic minorities and newcomers

121   The Sector Management Employment in Education (SBO) has facilitated a pilot project to train newcomers with a higher level of education to become teachers in vocational education. This is a dual training programme involving both work and study. Whether this project will be extended to teacher training for secondary education is not yet clear. In addition, a project budget has been made available by SBO to give extra lessons in Dutch language and culture to people from ethnic minorities who are training

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[75] Green Paper *De school centraal* (2002).

to become teachers at a later age (teacher as a second career). In quantitative terms, these are small projects, but if they turn out to be successful, the activities may be expanded.

Starting teachers

122   There are no specific training programmes for starting teachers. However, more and more schools are aware of the necessity to support starting teachers in the first phase of their careers. The Inspectorate of Education recently stated that in the year 2000 primary schools offered more support to starting teachers than they did in 1993 and that they did this in a more methodical way. About 80% of starting primary school teachers received support in one way or another. Nonetheless, only 30% of the schools had a written plan or programme for the support of young teachers.[76] The SBO project Full Colour is momentarily developing a course for mentoring starting teachers from ethnic minorities. SBO is also researching the possibilities for using teachers on early retirement (FPU) as coaches for starting teachers.

Professional development

123   All activities aimed at deepening and expanding the knowledge, understanding, skills and professionalism of members of staff are summed up as in-service training or professional development. At least ten percent of the teachers' actual working hours are available for professional development. The supply of in-service training courses is determined in most cases by demand from schools. The courses are geared to a particular goal, which may vary from an individual teacher to a small group of teachers to all teachers in one or more types of school. Participation in training is decided on a voluntary basis by the teachers themselves and the competent authority (school board). Schools have a budget to enrol teachers in these courses (see below). Courses can be taken at any moment during the teacher's professional career, on the initiative of the school or on the initiative of the teacher. Courses are offered by institutions for professional development, including the teacher training institutes. A wide range of professional development courses for teachers is available annually.

124   Schools have to pay for professional development of their staff from the school budget. In fact, they are to some degree free to decide on the distribution of this budget. Research has been carried out into the spending of this budget. This research also provides information on the proportion of the total budget spent on professional development. In 2001-2002, primary schools spent about 30% of the total school budget on professional development (10% on management, 16% on teachers and the remainder on other categories of personnel). In the same year, secondary schools spent only 8% of the school budget on professional development (2% for teachers).[77]

125   In recent years, the Education Council has observed that primary and secondary schools have developed to the extent that they should be allowed to exert more influence over the use of support services for professional development. In order to achieve this, schools should be given greater budgetary freedom, and a stronger position as customers. The transparency of the services provided should also be increased. The government has to act as a market regulator by balancing supply and demand of the various stakeholders in the education infrastructure.[78]

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[76] Education Inspectorate, 2000, *Beginnende en herintredende leraren.*
[77] H.S. Dekker et. al., *Monitor decentrale budgetten 2001-2002*.
[78] Education Council, 2001, *Serving the school's needs*, Advice report.

Impact of policy initiatives

126   During the past decade, several initiatives have been taken in relation to teacher training. To create unity and coherence in teacher training, professional teacher profiles have been developed and standards of competence formulated. Co-operation between teacher training institutes and other organisations involved has been promoted to boost coherence in the training programmes on offer. The applicable regulations and the funding of professional development have been restructured. To bridge the gap between teacher training and teaching practice, the 'trainee teacher' was introduced. New teacher training paths have been developed and divisions between existing routes have been removed to increase the flexibility of the training structure. The initial teacher training courses have been revised and adapted to the requirements of today's and tomorrow's schools. The entire training structure, which is geared towards the teaching profession, has been made more competitive, with demand-based financing and free access for teacher training providers in the near future.

Standards of competence

127   In the early nineties the government, following the advice of the CTL committee, decided to take responsibility for the quality standards applicable to teachers. This responsibility was to be translated into a new, dynamic system of professional profiles, standards of competence and the testing of these standards. The professional group itself was to be given an important role in developing and maintaining these profiles and standards. In the first half of the nineties, descriptions of what the profession of a teacher in primary and in secondary education encompasses were drawn up, the so-called professional teacher profiles. At the same time, the predecessor of the Association for the Professional Quality of Teaching (SBL, see chapter 2) was founded. This steering group presented its recommendations in a document entitled 'Signing for Quality' in 1997.[79]

128   The professional teacher profiles for primary and secondary education[80] were developed by employer and employee organisations. These profiles were reformulated by SBL in 1997 and 1999 as standards of competence for the starting teacher in primary and secondary education respectively. These competences relate to content in particular subject and learning areas and to competences in relation to dealing with pupils and other tasks. They are mainly described as the skills a teacher should have. Teacher training institutes now have clear guidelines for tailoring their training courses. The standards of competence can also be used for assessment purposes, such as for assessing prospective teachers entering the profession through lateral inflow. In due course, these standards of competence will be laid down by law. An Education (Professions) Bill was recently presented to Parliament. The Act will regulate the general outline of the standards of competence. During 2002, the draft standards will be discussed within the profession and a definitive set of standards will be presented to the Minister in 2003.[81]

Professional development

129   In 1993 the structure for funding professional development was changed: since that date schools have had their own budgets for this purpose. This new structure was meant to improve the quality of professional development by making the system more demand-driven. An evaluation of this system confirmed this expectation: schools are more goal-oriented in relation to their personnel policy and the

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[79] SBL, 1997, *Tekenen voor kwaliteit.*
[80] FORUM Vitaal Leraarschap, 1995, *Beroep in beweging, beroepsprofiel leraar primair onderwijs*; VSLPC, 1996, *Beroepsprofiel leraar secundair onderwijs.*
[81] SBL, 2001, *Leraar: beelden van bekwaamheid*, CD-ROM.

institutions offering professional development courses are more customer oriented. In general, schools are satisfied with the new system of funding.[82]

130   Most schools now have a plan for the professional development of their staff, although many of these plans are still based on the individual needs of teachers rather than on the needs of the school as a learning community. Most of the institutions for professional development consult (networks of) schools on a regular basis to match supply and demand for training courses and activities.[83] As the Education Council pointed out, the fragmentation of and segregation within the school support structure is an obstacle to the increasingly professionalised schools. A combination of market coordination and supportive central intervention could lead to a more fruitful deployment of support services.

131   The Education (Professions) Bill [*Wetsvoorstel Beroepen in het Onderwijs*] urges schools to pay attention to the continuous professional development of teachers. This ensures that the teaching staff will meet the competence requirements permanently.[84] The central government supports pilot projects aimed at giving schools greater responsibility for the training of teachers and education or teaching assistants as part of their personnel policy. If these pilots are successful, training on the job will become more prominent and schools will be able to function as a place for training new teachers. The emergence of lateral inflow and trainee teachers makes special demands on schools as qualified instructors/coaches are needed for these prospective teachers. Also, young teachers just starting their teaching careers require special attention. Special courses have therefore been developed to support instructors/teacher-coaches in schools.[85]

Trainee Teacher

132   To ease the transition from being a student to being a teacher, the category of trainee teachers was introduced. These are students in the final year of their training who are employed on a part-time basis under a training and employment contract for a limited period not exceeding one school year. The trainee teacher does everything a regular member of staff would do, including speaking at parent evenings and discussing reports. The level of supervision is minimal. The trainee teacher can apply the skills he or she has acquired and try them out in a real teaching context. The teacher training institutes are better able to keep abreast of current developments in schools. In return the schools benefit because the workload of regular staff can be reduced and new ideas of teaching methods can be introduced smoothly. An evaluation showed that the introduction of trainee teachers has been successful in reducing the so-called 'practice shock' for starting teachers. The more the trainee teacher can work as a regular teacher, the smaller the practice shock. It is important to note that coaching trainee teachers appeared to be crucial. In general, all stakeholders are of the opinion the cooperation between teacher training institutions and schools has improved since the introduction of trainee teachers.[86]

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[82] N. Raaijmakers, 1997, *Op weg naar vraaggestuurde nascholing* [*En Route* to Demand-Driven Professional Development]; W. Louwes et al, 1999, *Vraaggestuurde nascholing krijgt vorm: een evaluatieonderzoek naar de nieuwe financieringssytematiek nascholing*. Sectorrapportage voortgezet onderwijs.

[83] Ministry of Education, 1998, *Verder met vitaal leraarschap* [Moving Ahead with Teaching as a Vital Profession].

[84] Green Paper *De school centraal* [The School at the Centre]

[85] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Maatwerk 3*.

[86] H. Vossensteyn et al, 2001, *Attractiveness, Profile and Occupational Content of the Teaching Profession*.

Cooperation

133   Cooperation between schools and other organisations aimed at innovation is an important issue in current education policies. In the agenda for the future, as formulated by the teacher training institutes in higher professional education, cooperation occupies an important place. The training institutes wish to present themselves as 'Partners in Education', cooperating with schools in the area of training new teachers, training on the job and in-service training for working teachers.[87] This is in line with 'Serving the School's Needs' as recommended by the Education Council.

134   Specific examples of cooperation in secondary education can be found in the innovation programme, Educational Partnership (EPS). EPS is aimed at innovation in teacher training courses at both qualification levels (for the first phase and for the second phase of secondary education). It should lead to modernised teacher training and better qualified teachers. Networks of teacher training institutes and other organisations have been set up. A common website is in use (www.educatiefpartnerschap.nl), where teachers and others can visit and participate in several innovation domains:
·   competence-oriented training
·   dual training and training schools
·   professional development
·   policy making.
This Community Site will develop into a Community of Practice for the innovation of teacher training. Evaluation of EPS shows that the development of partnerships is getting off the ground. Teacher training institutes often consider the formation of partnerships as 'work in progress' and an actual intertwining of the institutes and the schools, and consequently of theory and practice, is taking place. This is not happening fast enough, however, and extra effort will be needed.[88]

135   In primary education the *Action Plan for Teacher Training Institutes in Primary Education* (in short *Action Plan Pabo*) has existed since 1999. The aim of this is similar to that of EPS in relation to secondary education, namely, the modernisation of teacher training. Its most important aims are developing broader, flexible and dual learning routes, working in a more demand-driven way, strengthening ICT and enlarging the number of students from ethnic minorities in teacher training. A list of action points has been drawn up and a website has been launched: www.paboweb.nl.

Innovation in relation to teacher training courses

136   Over the years, innovation in relation to teacher training courses has occurred and these courses have been adapted in several ways. Teacher training courses for secondary education have been merged into broader subject areas. ICT has been given a prominent place in teacher training and five regional innovation centres have been set up to serve as pioneers in this field. More attention is paid to learner-oriented teaching methods. Teachers and managers in the teacher training institutes are stimulated to work more professionally according to the principle of "teach what you preach". Shortened courses have been introduced to accommodate people with more experience or valuable previous education. Special courses for career changers have been developed. Dual courses have been introduced (teacher-in-training) to improve the relationship between schools and teacher training institutes. In general, it is acknowledged that schools should play a major part in the training of new teachers.

137   Innovation has take place in relation to the teacher training system as a whole in many ways. Theoretically, it is possible to create tailor-made solutions for everybody who wants to become a teacher.

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[87] HBO-raad, 2002, Partners in educatie.
[88] Education Inspectorate, 2002, *Professioneel onderwijspersoneel, opleiden met de school.*

An assessment can show quite easily which competences a person already has and which still have to be acquired. A tailor-made training package could then be assembled. However, in practice this is not yet a reality. Research shows that career changers still receive a standard training package despite the fact that they have been assessed.[89] It could be said that the structure is in place, but it is not used to its full potential yet.

138   In their agenda for the future, the teacher training institutes therefore formulated the aim that the bachelor's phase of the teacher training courses will be broader than they are now. Bachelor's programmes will offer a broad range of employment opportunities. After this phase, a master's phase will provide students with an opportunity to develop further or to specialise. Furthermore, the training institutes will develop tailor-made training routes for several target groups, namely, young people just leaving secondary education, people who wish to become teachers at a later age, students currently pursuing other studies who wish to switch, teaching assistants who wish to upgrade. Also, teacher students will be given the opportunity to broaden their scope outside the education sector.[90] This is in line, of course, with the aim of opening up the education labour market.

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[89] A. Oudejans, 2002, *Het leraarschap als nieuwe kans.*
[90] HBO-raad, 2002, Partners in educatie.

5 RECRUITING, SELECTING AND DEPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS

Main policy concerns

139   In the Netherlands, school boards recruit, select and appoint their own staff. This has not changed over the past decades. However, schools have to adhere to some general rules and over the years the government has tried to influence recruitment strategies by issuing certain regulations. In the first half of the nineties, surpluses on the education labour market predominated and government intervention was mainly aimed at preventing dismissals and promoting the deployment of unemployed teachers. In the second half of the nineties, these concerns became less pressing and were replaced by shortages of staff. By then, the decentralisation and deregulation of personnel management were well under way and schools increasingly developed their own personnel policies. Concerns about diversity within the teaching staff and within management of schools came to the fore. In particular, efforts were made to appoint more teachers from ethnic minorities and more women to management positions in school. It is also important to note that in this period changes were made to the regulations governing appointments and conditions of service to keep them in line with the modernisation of schools as professional learning communities, as well as to contribute to a more flexible labour market. In this area, a balance had to be found repeatedly between giving school boards a fairly free hand and the accountability of the government.

Data, trends and factors

General regulations

140   Schools or school boards implement their own procedures with regard to the recruitment of staff. Any person who has a teaching qualification may be appointed as a teacher at the level of his or her qualification and can teach in the school types and subjects for which he or she is qualified. Temporary dispensation can be granted by the Inspectorate of Education. The school or school board determines the vacancies and the way they should be filled. However, appointments by the schools are subject to generally applicable legislation.

141   Since 1996 the main legislation governing the legal status of staff became more general and schools and institutions were given more scope to determine their own policies. In the past, all employees in publicly managed education institutions were subject to the same provisions, laid down in the Decree in Relation to the Legal Status of Education Personnel (RPBO). However, since the 1990s, the responsibility for negotiating conditions of employment has been devolved – in part – to each separate education sector. The primary conditions of service (such as the different functions and salary scales) are regulated at the central level. The secondary and tertiary conditions of service (fringe benefits), such as career patterns, in-service training, the starting level in the salary scales for particular functions and additional rewards) are regulated at the decentralised level (see also chapter 2).[91]

142   Formally staff in state schools and institutions are civil servants in terms of the Central and Local Government Personnel Act. Staff in private schools enter into a contract with the school board (which is governed by civil law). As such they fall under the provisions of civil law in so far as the relevant education legislation and regulations based on this do not deviate from these provisions. Private sector staff

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[91] H. Vossensteyn et al. (2001). *The Conditions of Service and Salaries of Teachers in Lower Secondary Education in the Netherlands*.

can be assumed to share the status of public-sector personnel with regard to the conditions of service determined by the government.[92]

143   When a teacher is appointed at a school, he or she receives a letter of appointment. This letter of appointment contains the details of the agreement, such as the date on which the appointment commences, the position and salary scale, whether the appointment is permanent or temporary, the number of hours to be worked, the place of work and the actual salary. A temporary appointment can only be agreed when an employee enters the employment of the school and may last for a maximum of 12 months. In specific cases, the temporary appointment can be extended (once) by a maximum of 12 months. Before 1998, temporary contracts could be given for a total period of five years. Temporary appointments can also be agreed in cases of temporary replacement, temporary positions, specific projects or if the candidate does not hold an official teaching qualification. The salary of a teacher is determined at the moment of appointment on the basis of the salary scale corresponding to the position.[93]

144   Since 1995, all staff in primary and secondary schools have been employed directly by the competent authority (the school board) rather than being employed by a particular school. This implies that all staff who move to another school governed by the same school board are not dismissed and re-appointed, but simply transferred. This arrangement is a direct result of redundancy allowance policies, which will be discussed later in this chapter.[94] On average a school board in primary education governs 3.5 schools; in secondary education this is 1.6 schools.[95]

145   There is no government scheme aimed at distributing teachers fairly among schools. Teachers are appointed and dismissed by the competent authority of a school (school board). There is an open selection procedure and no placement system exists. Teachers are free to apply for any job they like and change jobs if they so wish.[96]

Determining and filling vacancies by schools

146   Schools or school boards decide themselves whether they have staff vacancies. They can form new vacancies out of several portions of vacant teaching hours, or split large vacancies up into smaller jobs, if this is necessary. They are also autonomous in their choice of recruitment strategies. Schools will generally try to fill a vacancy with someone from a school within their own school board. If this is not successful, external candidates are considered.

Primary education

147   Regular vacancies (about 70% of all vacancies) for teachers are mostly the result of the voluntary departure of staff and/or a growing number of pupils. Replacement vacancies (about 30%) are mostly caused by long term illness or maternity leave. About 60% of the vacancies are filled by external candidates. Replacement vacancies exceed the number of regular vacancies filled by internal candidates (48%, mostly other staff taking on more hours). When external candidates are recruited for teaching jobs, advertisements in newspapers are the most common channel to use. There is a trend towards increased use

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[92] *Ibid.*

[93] *Ibid.*

[94] *Ibid.*

[95] SBO, 2000, *De onderwijsarbeidsmarkt in beeld*. Figures are for 1998.

[96] Eurydice Eenheid Nederland, 2002, *Information Dossier on the Dutch Education System 2001*.

of national newspapers for this purpose, rather than regional newspapers or free local newspapers. Another channel which is used increasingly is internet advertising.[97]

Secondary education

148   More than half of the vacancies in secondary education are the result of the voluntary departure of personnel. Illness, retirement and an increase in student numbers are other causes. About 80% of the vacancies are filled by external candidates, the majority of them being teachers from other schools. Other categories of candidates are newly graduated teachers, teachers-in-training and career changers. No information is published about recruitment channels, but generally speaking journal or newspaper advertisements are the most common methods.[98]

How do teachers find their first job?

149   Graduates from teacher training for secondary education mostly find their first jobs by responding to personnel advertisements or by unsolicited applications. In the case of recent graduates from teacher training institutes for primary education, these channels are also important, but for them the school where they did their traineeship or work placement is the most important channel.[99] Table 5.1 shows the most common channels through which jobs are found.

Table 5.1 Channels through which graduates from teacher training courses find their first jobs, 2001

Teacher training course for:	Primary education	Secondary education	Secondary education (academic course)
Channel:	%	%	%
Personnel advertisement	18	28	48
Unsolicited application	21	16	12
Private temping agency	1	8	5
Traineeship, work placement	24	11	6
Family, friends	11	11	7
Other	25	26	22
Total	100	100	100

Source: Na(ar) de lerarenopleiding, 2002

Policy initiatives and their impact

Redundancy policy

150   Redundancy allowances guarantee salary payments to unemployed teachers for a number of years (depending on the duration of employment). Unemployed teachers were considered to be 'waiting' to get back into a teaching job again, hence the name for this allowance: *'wachtgeld'* ('waiting money'). Payment

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[97] M.B.J. Voorpostel, 2002, *Arbeidsmarktbarometer Primair Onderwijs 2001-2002*.

[98] F.E.M. Berndsen et al, 2002, *Arbeidsmarktbarometer Voortgezet Onderwijs 2001-2002*.

[99] H.F. Vaatstra, 2002, *Na(ar) de lerarenopleiding, Onderwijsmonitor 2001*.

of the allowance used to be the responsibility of the state, but in order to reduce the number of redundancies this changed during the nineties. Since the introduction of the Decree in Relation to Unemployed Teaching and Research Personnel (BWOO) [*Besluit Werkloosheid Onderwijs en Onderzoeks-personeel*] in 1994 schools themselves were held responsible for the payment of unemployment benefits to staff that were laid off due to mergers between schools or fluctuations in pupil numbers. This made it much more difficult for schools to fire staff because of the considerable financial consequences.

151   In order to enable schools to cope with these expenses, a couple of initiatives were taken. First of all, it was made obligatory for schools to contribute to the Participation Fund (from which redundancy allowances are paid). In addition, a number of agreements were made during the mid-1990s to reduce the risk of unemployment and to ensure that unemployed staff were reemployed as soon as possible.[100] One of the measures was the introduction of the 'intake test' (*instroomtoets*). This means that every case of redundancy is tested by the Central Financial Department (C*f*i) (later by the Participation Fund) against certain criteria. The dismissal should be 'unavoidable', due to a dccline in the number of pupils, closing down of the school, disability of the person in question, or other important reasons. If a dismissal is considered to be 'avoidable', the school will be fined. Furthermore, the school has to prove it has made an effort to find the person alternative employment. This measure was introduced together with the measure to make all staff employees of the competent authority (the school board) rather than the school itself and the measure to prohibit part-time dismissal.[101]

152   Under the Interim Education (Employment Mediation) Act [*Tijdelijke Wet Arbeidsbemiddeling Onderwijs (TWAO)*], which applied from 1993 to 1995, schools were obliged to report vacancies to the regular employment agencies. At the employment agencies special departments were set up for the education sector (*PPO's*). These departments checked if the vacancy could be filled by a registered unemployed teacher. If this was the case, the unemployed teacher had to be hired. If this was not the case, the school could recruit a teacher in the usual way. After the *TWAO* ceased to apply (at year-end 1995) an existing measure was again put into effect. Schools that hire staff are obliged to employ an unemployed teacher from within their own competent authority if one is available. Another measure was to oblige schools to appoint unemployed teachers for 65% of the hours that became available from the reduction in the working hours of older staff. Since shortages on the education labour market replaced surpluses in the second half of the nineties, the redundancy policy has disappeared from the forefront of personnel policy in the education sector.

Temping agencies and vacancy databanks

153   The Ministry of Education recently (in 2000) asked a number of private organisations to set up special facilities for the education sector. As a result, two intermediary organisations have now (also) specialised in filling vacancies for teachers, e.g. "De-vocare" and "De onderwijs BV". Private temping agencies have also been used to match the supply of and demand for career changers. There are several databanks which reflect the demand and supply for teachers, e.g. the *Docentenbank*, the *Onderwijsvacaturebank* and the *Digischool* (http://www.leraar.nl/). In addition, vacancies for lateral inflow or career changers are advertised through the website 'become a teacher' (www.wordleraar.nl). This website is a joint venture of Kliq Onderwijs Nederland and Manpower Consultancy (a private temping agency) was set up at the request of the Ministry of Education.[102]

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[100] H. Vossensteyn et al, 2001, *The Conditions of Service and Salaries of Teachers in Lower Secondary Education in the Netherlands.*

[101] The years count.

[102] H. Vossensteyn et al, 2001, *The Conditions of Service and Salaries of Teachers in Lower Secondary Education in the Netherlands.*

Working hours

154   Until the early nineties, a full-time working week in the Netherlands consisted of 40 working hours, also in the case of teachers. However, two general reductions in the official number of working hours for civil servants were also implemented in the education sector. From the early 1990s until 1998 the official number of working hours per week was 38.

155   In 1998 the standard number of working hours per annum (the standard working year) was fixed at 1659 hours for all education sectors. The official number of working hours in primary education is either 1710 or 1790, but this includes additional leave in lieu of a shorter working week (*ADV*), which for staff with a full-time position amounts to either 51 or 131 hours. Staff are appointed to a standard full-time position or a part-time position expressed as a "part-time factor" (usually expressed in tenths of a working week or the number of contact hours). The amount of ordinary leave and, in the case of primary education, of leave in lieu of a shorter working week (ADV) is also based on the relative "part-time factor" of the position a teacher holds. Primary school teachers may choose the way they wish to take their leave in lieu of a shorter working week: on an annual basis (additional annual leave) or by saving it up over a number of years (and taking accumulated or sabbatical leave). In secondary schools, teachers are required to spend an average of no more than 868 hours teaching per year (in relation to the official number of working hours of 1659). In primary school this figure is 930.[103] To stimulate older staff to become teachers or to remain active in the teaching profession, the so-called *BAPO* scheme was introduced in 1994. This scheme to reduce the working hours of older staff is described in chapter 6.

Stimulating appointment of special groups

Women

156   An emancipation programme in the education sector was implemented in the period 1998-2002: 'A Crystal of Opportunities' (1998). One of the aims of this programme was to stimulate the equal representation of women in management positions. An Act to this effect had already been introduced in 1997: the Proportional Representation of Women in Educational Management Posts Act [*Wet evenredige vertegenwoordiging van vrouwen in leidinggevende functies in het onderwijs (WEV)*]. This Act obliges schools to set targets and to draw up a concrete plan every four years for realising these targets. In the years between 1998 and 2000, the number of women in school management positions had indeed increased. In primary education, the number of female head teachers rose from 13.2% in 1998 to 14.9% in 2000 and the increase in deputy head teachers from 45.9% in 1998 to 46.2% in 2000.[104] For the record, a percentage of 76% would be proportional, since this is the percentage of women working as teachers in primary education. In secondary education, the proportion of principals has risen from 8.2% in 1998 to 9% in 2000 and the percentage of deputy principals increased from 12.2% in 1998 to 14% in 2000.[105] In this sector 34% would be proportional, since this is the percentage of women working as teachers in secondary education. Evaluation of the *WEV*, however, showed that this increase in the proportion of women in management positions could not be ascribed to the *WEV*, but rather to unrelated developments.[106]

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[103] *Ibid.*; Eurydice Eenheid Nederland, 2002, *Information Dossier on the Dutch Education System 2001.*
[104] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Actuele emancipatie Agenda 2001-2002.*
[105] *Ibid.*
[106] M. Gemmeke et al, 2001, *Evaluatie van de wet evenredige vertegenwoordiging vrouwen in leidinggevende functies.*

Ethnic Minorities

157   There are no obligatory targets with regard to the ethnic origin of education personnel. However, it is considered important that the staff in schools more or less reflects the ethnic diversity of society. The SBO initiated the project Full Color on behalf of the Ministry of Education. One of the aims of this project is to stimulate employers in education to develop intercultural personnel management, of which appointing personnel from minorities is an (important) aspect. Full Color uses a range of instruments to achieve this: seminars, publications, workshops, a website, electronic helpdesk, pilot projects and so on. In addition, a special course on mentoring new teachers from ethnic minority backgrounds is being developed.[107] Another SBO project, Eutonos, aims to stimulate the participation of ethnic minorities in school boards. A databank of potential board members has been set up and an introductory course has been developed, especially for people from ethnic minorities with the ambition to become school board members. Boards with vacancies and potential board members are brought together and the first candidates have already been appointed.

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[107] Full Color also supports teacher training institutes to attract and keep more students from minority backgrounds. See also chapter 3. More information on the website of SBO.

6 RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS IN SCHOOL

Main policy concerns

158   As was stated above, the education labour market has been characterised by a switch from vast surpluses in the early nineties to shortages of staff in the second half of the nineties and into the next century. Consequently, retaining staff has been approached from rather different angles during this period. At first, retaining staff was important to the government and the system as a whole, to avoid an increase in unemployed staff on reduced pay. Schools, however, would prefer to release staff to reduce salary costs. Government policy in the first half of the nineties was aimed at preventing dismissals.

159   As shortages became apparent, the reasons for wishing to retain staff changed. At the moment, every teacher is needed very badly. The measures are now aimed not at preventing dismissals, but at preventing resignations and illness. The focus is mainly on improving personnel management in schools, which raises the topics already mentioned in earlier chapters, namely, making the school organisation more professional, giving schools room for their own personnel policies and making work in education more attractive. At the same time, specific policy measures were taken to keep older staff in active employment longer.

160   Good personnel management helps to keep teachers in employment as teachers and prevents teachers from becoming ill or resigning prematurely. An emphasis has been placed on what is referred to as 'integrated personnel management', meaning that the various components of personnel management are linked together. Another term that has been used in schools over the past few years is 'age-conscious' personnel management, in other words, personnel management that takes into account differences in age or various stages in the careers of staff. After all, young teachers have different needs to those of teachers in mid-career or those who are approaching retirement.

Data, trends and factors

Staff leaving the education sector

161   About 12% of the staff in primary education leave the sector every year. About one fifth of those who leave switch to another education sector, about half change to another job or stop working altogether, and about 15% leave on reaching retirement or pre-pension age. A relatively small proportion leaves the sector because of disability or death. Since employment in primary education is growing, an even larger proportion of the working population in this sector has to be recruited every year. In 2000, more than 16% of staff in primary education was new.[108] During the school year 2001-2002 more than 40% of the vacancies resulted from staff leaving their jobs of their own free will.[109]

162   In secondary education, turnover is somewhat lower, namely, about 9% per year. Of those who leave, approximately 27% switch to another education sector and about one third change to another job or stop working altogether. About 17% reach retirement or pre-pension age. A small proportion becomes disabled or dies. Interestingly, in 2000 6.5% of the people leaving the sector still became unemployed (on reduced pay). To meet the growing demand for staff, a large number of new staff has to be recruited

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[108] SBO, *De onderwijsarbeidsmarkt in beeld 2001*.
[109] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

annually, about 13% of total employment in this sector.[110] During the school year 2001-2002, more than half of the vacancies resulted from staff leaving their jobs of their own free will.[111]

163   A point of concern is the number of people leaving the education sector for another segment of the labour market. About half of these do so (in part) for reasons relating to the education sector itself. Dissatisfaction with the management of the school and high work pressure are important reasons for looking for another job.[112] The risk of disability, as a reason for leaving the education sector, is lower than the average for all sectors. In general, 1.7% of the total working population become disabled, while the figure for the education sector is 1.44%. This percentage is somewhat higher for women and somewhat lower for men. Over the years, the overall percentage rose steadily from 1.22% in 1998 to 1.44% in 2000.[113]

Absenteeism among teachers and school management

164   In general, the level of absenteeism caused by illness in the government sector is more than 2 percentage points higher than in the private sector. This is partly due to the fact that the registration of sick leave is less strict in the private sector. When corrected for the composition of the working population, absenteeism in the education sector is not significantly higher than in the private sector. Nevertheless, absenteeism in the education sector is high, which is alarming considering the tightness of the labour market.[114]

165   The figures for absenteeism in 2001 were 8.35% in mainstream primary education, 9.75% in special education and 7.84% in secondary education. In secondary education, reporting ill occurs most frequently, while in primary education the spells of illness are longest. Absenteeism is highest in special education. This has not changed compared to the previous year. The trend has been rising for some years in all three sectors, but in mainstream primary and secondary education this rising trend seems to have been halted in 2001 (Figure 6.1).[115] In the light of the latest quarterly figures, this seems to have heralded a real turning of the tide.[116]

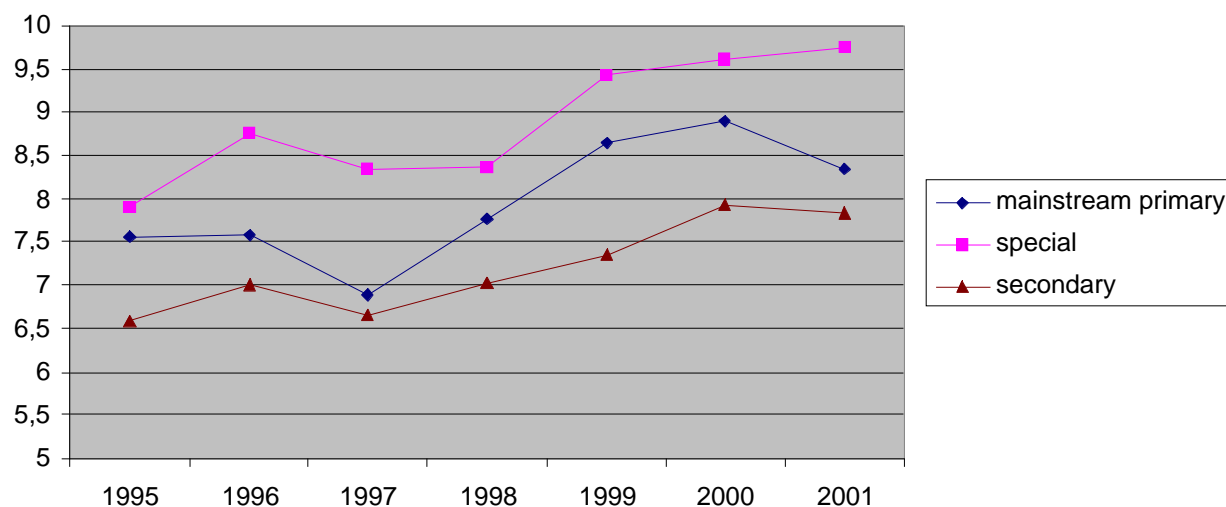---

[110] *ibid.*

[111] *ibid.*

[112] *ibid.*

[113] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.

[114] *ibid.*

[115] Voorpostel et al, 2002, *Verzuim onder personeel in het onderwijs in 2001*.

[116] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

Figure 6.1 Absenteeism amongst education staff, 1995 - 2001

Source: Voorpostel et al, 2002.

166   Absenteeism is linked to several characteristics of the staff. Absenteeism is higher amongst older staff, due to the fact that their spells of illness are longer, and it is higher amongst women, due to the fact that they report ill more frequently. The percentage for teachers is higher than for managers, partly because teachers report ill more often. However, when managers are ill, they are ill for a longer period than teachers. Furthermore, absenteeism is higher in state schools, in urban areas and in schools with many children from deprived backgrounds.[117]

Leave for teachers

167   There are different types of leave for staff in the education sector, which can be divided into two categories, namely, ordinary leave and special leave. Ordinary leave consists of regular holidays, expressed as a percentage of the contractual number of working hours. Someone in full-time employment has 258 hours of ordinary leave. Special leave comprises maternity leave, (paid) parental leave, study leave, sabbatical leave and leave for personal or general reasons (for instance if a relative dies or if a person holds a political office). Additional leave (BAPO, see *Retirement practices and regulations*) is granted to older staff. The competent authority may also grant requests for unpaid leave.

168   Staff in primary education may be granted leave of absence for two months to one year if they save up the reduction in their working hours (ADV) (that is, if they work the total contractual number of hours and defer their entitlement to reduced working hours). The period for which the entitlement to a reduction in working hours is deferred should be at least five years. In the case of staff who use part of this sabbatical leave for training or education, half of the study costs will be reimbursed. Besides saving this leave, staff may use the accumulated entitlement to reduced working hours to take leave during the year. If staff do so, 80 of the 131 hours of leave will be used to reduce teaching time and the remaining hours will be deducted from other tasks.

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[117] M. Voorpostel et al, 2001, *Verzuim onder personeel in het onderwijs in 2000.*

169   Since the school year 2001/2002, paid parental leave was introduced in the education sector. The costs have to be met from the school budget. At the moment, paid parental leave can be taken for children of 0-4 years, but the scheme will be extended to include children of 0-8 years.[118]

Pressure of work

170   Teachers in the Netherlands have a relatively high number of teaching hours, namely, 868 teaching hours compared to the average of 662 teaching hours in the OECD countries.[119] Moreover, class size is relatively large. Teachers do not work substantially more, however, than the normative yearly workload of 1659 working hours per year[120] On average, teachers work 4% more than they are officially required to work. This is entirely due to part-time staff working overtime; full-time staff work 1% less than their official working hours.[121] Nevertheless, in the experience of staff, the work pressure is high. On a scale of 0 to 100, the score for the education sector is 62, while the average score in the private sector is 42. Correction for age, sex and level of education, reduces this difference considerably, but the fact remains that in the experience of employees in the education sector, the workload is heavy.

171   The psychological or mental pressure is an important part of the total work pressure. Compared to other more highly educated employees, teachers are more often emotionally exhausted (one of the symptoms of burnout). Factors that contribute to the work pressure teachers experience are, according to teachers themselves:
·   pupils' lack of concentration;
·   large differences in the abilities of pupils within a single class;
·   large classes;
·   no quiet place to work; and
·   insufficient classrooms.
Furthermore, extracurricular activities, professional development, meetings and administrative work outside school time are experienced as (very) onerous tasks.[122]

172   The pressure of work that teachers experience is caused in part by the relatively short period in which the normative yearly workload has to be realised. A working year in the private sector generally consists of about 47 weeks, while the working year of a teacher consists of no more than 40 weeks. The pressure of work often relates to peak load. The Education Council therefore recommended extending the working year of teachers to 45-47 weeks.[123] As part of a total package of instruments, such as team development. Some school boards have already put this recommendation into effect, but it requires a school of a certain size to do so.

Differentiation in tasks and positions

173   The new methods of teaching that are required for modern education (aimed at individual learning, the application of ICT in the teaching and learning process, and a more independent attitude on the part of pupils) brings about a differentiation in the education process. The teacher not only teaches from the front of the classroom, but also manages groups of pupils and their individual learning processes and cooperates

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[118] Ministry of Education, 2002, Werken in het onderwijs 2003.

[119] OECD, *Education at a glance 2001*.

[120] See chapter 5 for a further description of the workload for teachers.

[121] Frielink e.a., 2001, *Taakbesteding en taakbelasting van leraren*.

[122] *ibid.*

[123] Education Council, 2002, *Toerusten = uitrusten*.

with other professionals. This differentiation of the education process irrevocably leads to more differentiation in tasks and jobs within the school.

Teacher evaluation and career development

174   At the moment only a limited number of schools use instruments such as Personal Development Plans, in which the desired and required development in the careers and competences of teachers are set out. However, the feeling that there should be more than just another training course every once in a while is present. Career development should be linked to a well-developed system of teacher evaluation. Although appraisal interviews, in which the performance of the teacher and of the organisation are discussed in a two-way exchange of views, are held in many schools, they are reported to be held irregularly. Appraisal interviews, in which the teacher's performance is assessed by his or her superior, are generally absent or only held at the beginning of the teacher's career. Systematic teacher evaluation is still in its infancy.[124]

175   Since 1992 it has been possible for schools to create new jobs within their schools in order to offer their staff some career prospects. The salary scales vary from Teacher Scale A to Teacher Scale E. The amounts per month are set out in the annex. In 2001, all teachers in mainstream primary education were classified as Teacher Scale A, all teachers in special education as Teacher Scale B, 80% of the teachers in secondary education as Teacher Scale B and 20% of the teachers in secondary education as Teacher Scale D.[125] To improve the salaries of teachers, not only were the amounts covered by the scales increased, but the career lines were also shortened (see chapter 3).

Retirement practices and regulations

176   The statutory retirement age is 65. However, few teachers work until this age. In the education sector, a flexible retirement scheme exists (*FPU*), which makes it possible for education staff to retire part-time from the age of 62. Since this does not result in a reduction in the employee's pension rights, a temporary scheme is required to repair these rights (up to a maximum of one third of the total number of working hours). The *FPU* scheme replaced the early retirement regulation (*VUT*), which made it possible for teachers to retire altogether at the age of 61. Transitional arrangements are made for older members of staff. However, if those eligible for these arrangements decide not to make use of *FPU* at 61, they will receive the amount of the *FPU* benefit which is not paid out between the age of 61 and 62, at a later stage (in addition to *FPU* after the age of 62 or in addition to their pension).[126]

177   To stimulate older staff to become or to stay active in the teaching profession, the so-called *BAPO* scheme was introduced in 1994. Under the BAPO scheme, staff aged 52 or over can choose to reduce their total number of working hours, subject to a relatively small reduction in their salary. Staff aged 52-55 can reduce their working hours by 10% with a reduction in their salary of 2.5%. For staff aged 56 or over, a 20% reduction in their working hours is possible, in return for a 5% reduction in their salary. Table 6.1 shows the number of people making use of the scheme. However, since people have the opportunity to save BAPO leave for later, the real percentage may be higher. This leave savings scheme may also cause some (financial) problems for schools in later years, when large numbers of older staff take their saved BAPO leave in one go as a form of early retirement.

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[124] Education Inspectorate, 2001, *Integraal personeelsbeleid*.
[125] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*.
[126] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

Table 6.1 Use of the BAPO scheme as % of eligible persons

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Mainstream primary education	42	39	35	40	38	39	41
Special education	30	28	27	35	36	39	39
Secondary education	42	40	39	46	46	47	47

Source: WIO 2003.

178   Many teachers wish to retire early, but are willing to postpone early retirement if a number of conditions are met. Important conditions that determine whether teachers stay on are a reduction in the pressure of work and more autonomy in their work (more opportunities to decide what to do, when to do it and how to do it). For those who wish to keep on working after the official retirement age of 65 there are no further obstacles anymore. Their pension accrual will be continued, which will eventually result in a higher pension.

Secondment and mobility

179   In 1994 a scheme was introduced ('*Wisselwerk*') which gave education staff the opportunity to work temporarily in another organisation, within the education sector or in another part of the labour market. If they participated in the programme, they retained all their accrued rights while working elsewhere. It was assumed that the risk of loosing these rights (for instance salary, schemes granting rights in exchange for reduced pay and pension, and the right to return to their former job) was keeping teachers from changing jobs. Mobility, in turn, was seen as a way of increasing the motivation and flexibility of staff and reducing illness and disability. When the scheme started, about two thirds of the teachers had a certain degree of interest and were willing to enter the programme (under certain conditions). Half of the teachers were willing to enter the programme on a part-time basis. However, when the programme started it actually proved difficult to interest staff in changing jobs.

Policy initiatives and their impact

Integrated personnel management

180   Research has established that the development of personnel management within schools has a positive effect on job satisfaction amongst staff.[127] The more schools invest in personnel management, the more satisfied the staff becomes. In the Collective Labour Agreement for 1999-2000, a specific budget was introduced for the development of integrated personnel management in schools. This budget will amount to € 97 million in 2009. In the case of primary and secondary education, it was agreed that schools would implement integrated personnel management by 2005. Schools are asked to write a policy plan that contains the following elements:
·   an integrated view of personnel management, linked to the pedagogical views of the school;
·   professional development of personnel and competence-based personnel management;
·   a system for the assignment of tasks at a school level, together with evaluation and performance interviews, also based on competences;
·   a specific toolkit for recruitment, selection and career planning;

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[127] M. Vermeulen, 1997, *De school als arbeidsorganisatie; schoolorganisatiekenmerken personeelsbeleid*.

- the preconditions that must be present to implement a competence-based personnel management system, in which the salary of staff is linked to their competences.[128]

181   The most recent Collective Labour Agreement for primary education gave significantly more autonomy to school boards with regard to personnel management. For many decisions consultation with the labour unions is no longer necessary. It has been replaced by consultation with the staff section of the school's representative council for employees and parents. Especially larger school boards benefit as the combination of a certain size, increased autonomy and more flexible regulations give them room to develop and promote differentiation of tasks and jobs, mobility, policies for older staff and other forms of personnel management. It has become easier to actively relocate staff (move staff between schools which fall under the same school board), and thus reduce absenteeism and resignations.

182   An annual monitor has been set up to follow developments in the area of integrated personnel management in schools. The preliminary conclusions of the first round of monitoring[129] are as follows. In relation to the more traditional components of personnel management, such as recruitment and selection, schools are reasonably 'far' in implementing the ideal situation. With regard to the relatively new features, there is still a long way to go. Horizontal integration—that is, the linking together of the various components and assessment on the basis of competences in the various components—is just starting to emerge. In addition, the linking of personnel management to the pedagogical views of the school has occurred in many schools. It seems that this last component is easier to achieve in primary education than in secondary education. In secondary education the complexity of the different forms of education that have to be provided appears to be a bottleneck.[130]

Pressure of work

183   In the experience of teachers, their workload is heavy. Schools can therefore pursue what is called 'task management'. About three quarters of schools do this. Most of the time, it means that an inventory is made of all the tasks within the school, apart from classroom teaching, and that these tasks are distributed in a certain way amongst the staff. Teachers and the management of the schools where this has been introduced think that this provides better insight into the total range of tasks of the school and that the distribution of these tasks is fairer. Furthermore, this system makes it easier to meet individual preferences for certain tasks. However, this does not reduce the pressure of work. In the experience of teachers, the pressure of work often remains the same or increases. According to the researchers, this is due to the fact that in most schools there is no integrated personnel management yet and 'task management' is often unrelated to other components of personnel management. A lot can be achieved if it is embedded further in the organisation.[131]

Differentiation of tasks and jobs

184   Since the introduction of the *'Schoolprofielbudget'*, the differentiation of tasks and jobs has been stimulated by the government. The Inspectorate of Education reported in 2000 on the effects of this policy on schools.[132] The conclusion of this report was that the number of different functions within schools has grown. On the whole this is achieved through task differentiation (separate non-teaching tasks are assigned

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[128] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs.*
[129] Research voor Beleid, *Integraal personeelsbeleid in het primair en voortgezet onderwijs.*
[130] Education Inspectorate, 2001, *Integraal personeelsbeleid.*
[131] M. Vermeulen (red.), 2001, *De praktijk van het taakbeleid.*
[132] Education Inspectorate, 2000, *Taak- en functiedifferentiatie; opnieuw een stand van zaken.*

to individual teachers) and not in the form of differentiation of jobs (new jobs are created with their own job descriptions *et cetera*). This last form is assumed to be too inflexible for schools. To support the development of job differentiation, new salary scales for teachers have been introduced in primary and secondary education and the application of the scales has been made more flexible.[133]

185   As part of the policies for older teaching staff, an experiment was started in 1997 to reduce the workload by adding a new category of staff. As part of the experiment, some of the schools that participated received two extra teachers to reduce the weekly workload of teachers above 52 years of age, while other schools that participated were assigned special staff to support older teachers. This support staff performed tasks such as invigilation, photocopying, marking simple papers and tests. The evaluation of the experiment showed that schools and teachers preferred the extra support staff above the extra teachers. Especially in primary education, the extra support staff increased teachers' job satisfaction. They experienced less stress, were less tired and showed fewer symptoms of burnout. They also had a more positive attitude to their pupils, their colleagues and their school managers.[134]

186   Following this experiment, an action programme was started.[135] One of the components of this programme was a pilot project in primary education which made use of differentiated staff and was based on the concept of 'team teaching'. The pilot will result in the formulation of a number of best practices with regard to how schools can implement this form of task and job differentiation.[136]

187   An important development with regard to job differentiation has been the introduction of the teaching assistant. These assistants differ from the support staff mentioned earlier in that the teaching assistants support the teacher in the primary education process—teaching itself—while the support staff performed tasks which on the whole were not directly related to teaching itself. A special vocational education training programme has been developed and in 2001 about 2800 of these teaching assistants were employed in primary education. This is about 1% of the total number of employees in primary education. Although the number of vacancies was already very high in 2001, many newly graduated teaching assistants experienced problems finding a job. Many schools still seemed to prefer fully qualified teachers, even if they were not available.[137]

188   Several measures were introduced to encourage primary schools to hire teaching assistants. Among others, it has been made financially more attractive in several ways. In addition, an instructional brochure has been sent to all schools, providing information on how to deploy teaching assistants effectively. The training facilities for teaching assistants have also been improved and extended and the development of a dual training programme for those teaching assistants who wish to become fully qualified teachers has been started.[138] The total number of teaching assistants has increased from 750 in 1998 to 3200 in 2002.[139]

189   Secondary schools can also make use of the new teaching assistants, but the way they are deployed differs per school. Some schools use the assistants for the supervision and coaching of pupils, while other schools use them for activities directly related to teaching, such as technical assistants who assist teachers during science lessons. Some schools have assistants at various levels. The larger scale of schools in

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[133] Ministry of Education, 2001, Maatwerk 3.

[134] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Werken in het onderwijs*; Prick et al., 2001, *Assistenten in de school*.

[135] Ministry of Education, 2001, Maatwerk 3.

[136] *ibid.*

[137] *ibid.*

[138] *ibid.*.

[139] Ministry of Education, 2002, *Werken in het onderwijs 2003*.

secondary education makes job differentiation easier, but the complexity of the education process requires an organisation characterised by a high degree of collaboration between staff.[140]

190   SBO started a pilot project aimed at killing two birds with one stone. On the one hand, the aim was to create interesting positions for experienced teachers and, on the other, to solve the difficulties experienced in replacing teachers who fell ill. The project is called 'plus teacher' (*Plusleraar*). An experienced teacher is appointed to a new position within the school and both replaces the teacher who is ill by taking over certain tasks and carries out other tasks, such as coaching new teachers. The idea behind this project is that replacement brings additional problems with it and therefore requires replacement by an experienced teacher, rather than by a teacher who has just started teaching, which has been common practice up until now. It gives the experienced teacher an additional challenge and variation in his or her work. It is also rewarded with a small bonus. This scheme is funded from the Replacement Fund.

Differentiation of salaries

191   In the Collective Labour Agreement for 1999-2000, a first step was taken towards the introduction of differential salaries in education as a component of integrated personnel management. The additional school budgets can be used to reward a limited number of staff, for example by placing them in a higher scale or by allowing them to move faster through the salary scale they are in. Schools can also take into account experience acquired elsewhere or in an earlier stage and pay an appropriate salary to career changers or returners to the profession. This differentiation contributes to greater flexibility on the labour market.

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[140] Ministry of Education, 2001, *Maatwerk 3*.

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Figure A1.1 Population in age categories, 1991 - 2002
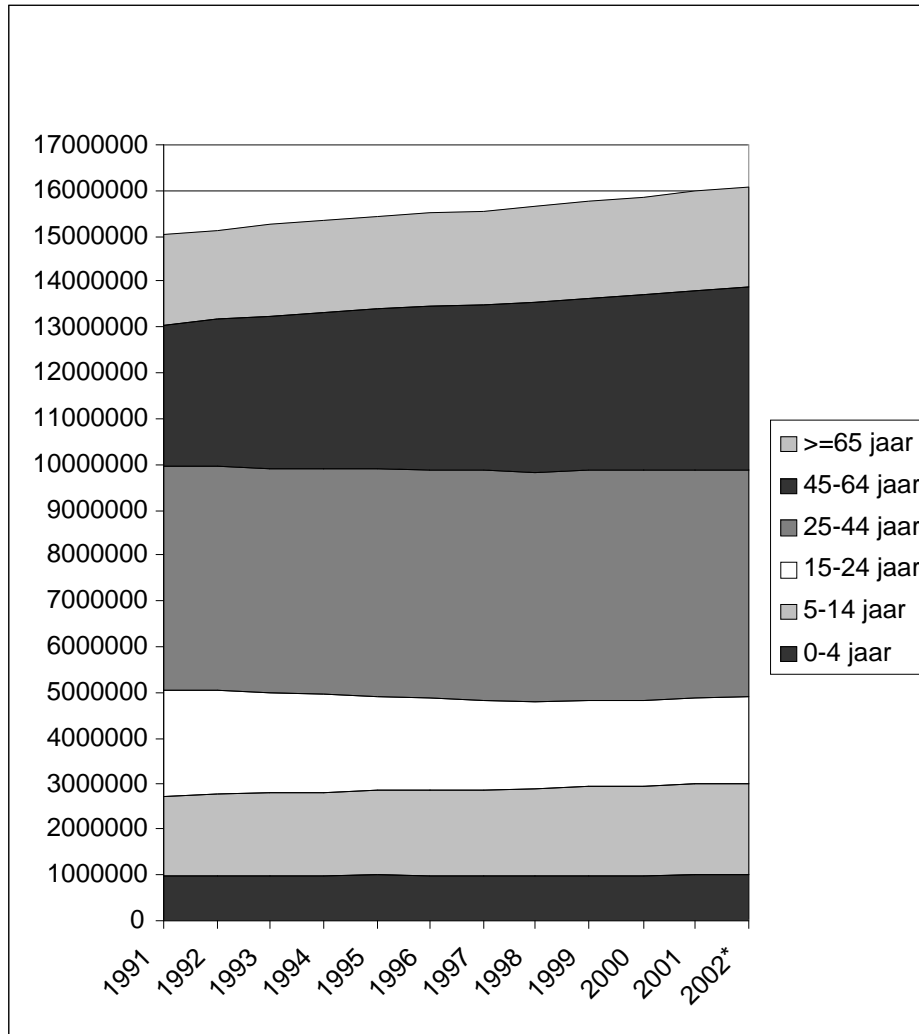
Source: CBS Statline

Table A1.1 Development in number of young children (x1000)

	1991	**1992**	**1993**	**1994**	**1995**	**1996**	**1997**	**1998**	**1999**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002***
0-4 years	947	962	972	982	989	981	973	969	976	983	1001	1012

Source: CBS Statline

Table A2.1 Number of schools in primary and secondary education

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Primary (total)	8,145	7,936	7,878	7,803	7,753	7,720	7,690
mainstream	7,320	7,136	7,099	7,078	7,067	7,042	7,019
special (inc. sec. level)	825	800	779	725	686	678	671
Secondary		1,015	980	934	888	834	784

Source: Facts and figures 2002, 2003

Table A2.2 Number of pupils (x 1000) per school type

	95/96	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/00	00/01	01/02
Primary	1,570.7	1,594.4	1,614.2	1,628.6	1,638.8	1,644.0	1,652.6
Secondary	984.0	884.8	880.5	885.1	891.0	894.9	904.2

Source: Facts and figures 2002, 2003

Table A2.3 Employment in primary education

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
in full-time equivalents	94,961	98,340	101.824	104.865	116.599	119.433	123.941	128.745
by sex (%)								
men	38.1	37.7	37.0	36.9	33.9	32.8	31.1	29.8
women	61.9	62.3	63.0	63.1	66.1	67.2	68.9	70.2
by task (%)								
teaching	93.2	93.1	92.1	90.2	89.6	88.8	87.7	86.4
non-teaching	6.8	6.9	7.9	9.8	10.4	11.2	12.3	13.6
by working hours (%)								
part-time	34.4	34.0	35.2	35.3	38.6	39.6	40.9	42.5
full-time	65.6	66.0	64.8	64.7	61.4	60.4	59.1	57.5
in persons	122,097	126.388	130,621	145.334	151.743	155.450	161.385	168.336
by sex (%)								
men	31.4	31.0	30.4	29.0	28.0	27.0	25.7	24.5
women	68.6	69.0	69.6	71.0	72.0	73.0	74.3	75.5
by task (%)								
teaching	89.2	89.2	88.3	87.3	86.8	86.2	85.2	84.0
non-teaching	10.8	10.8	11.7	12.7	13.2	13.8	14.8	16.0

Source: CASO

Table A2.4 Employment in secondary education

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
in full-time equivalents	63.694	65.681	65,728	63.791	68.592	70.421	73.150	75.670
by sex (%)								
men	71.4	71.2	70.5	69.7	67.7	67.2	65.2	64.1
women	28.6	28.8	29.5	30.3	32.3	32.8	34.8	35.9
by task (%)								
teaching	83.3	83.7	83.3	82.8	83.0	82.5	81.7	81.5
non-teaching	16.7	16.3	16.7	17.8	17.0	17.5	18.3	18.5
by working hours (%)								
part-time	34.4	34.0	34.3	36.1	35.1	35.4	35.9	36.8
full-time	65.6	66.0	65.7	63.9	64.9	64.6	64.1	63.2
in persons	78.502	80.163	79.979	80.660	83.340	85.537	89.023	92.204
by sex (%)								
men	64.0	63.9	63.3	62.4	61.0	59.7	58.5	57.5
women	36.0	36.1	36.7	37.6	39.0	40.3	41.5	42.5
by task (%)								
teaching	81.1	81.6	81.3	81.4	81.0	81.0	80.1	79.8
non-teaching	18.9	18.4	18.7	18.6	19.0	19.0	19.9	20.2

Source: CASO

Figure A2.1 Regional differences in unfilled vacancies 2002.
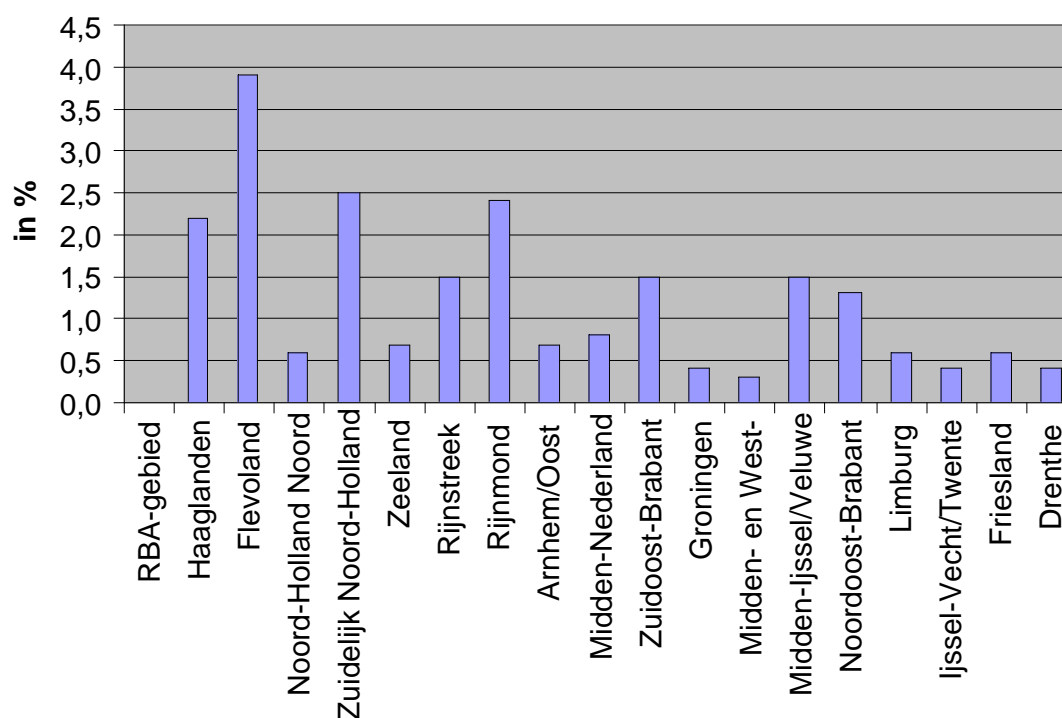
Tabel A3.1 Numbers of certified students of the teacher courses

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
primary education	3990	4008	4204	4537	4276	4563	4923
secondary education	4888	4716	4374	4034	3119	3110	2890

Source: OCenW, 2001, Zoetermeer (WIO, 2001)

Table A6.1 Absenteeism for teaching personnel 1995 - 2001

%	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
mainstream primary education	7.55	7.58	6.88	7.77	8.65	8.90	8.35
special education	7.90	8.76	8.33	8.36	9.43	9.61	9.75
secondary education	6.60	7.01	6.67	7.02	7.36	7.92	7.84

Source: WIO 2003

Table A6.2 Salary scales for teachers 2002, monthly Euro wages.

	minimum	maximum
Teacher A	2073	2991
Teacher B	2150	3285
Teacher C	2162	3834
Teacher D	2171	4361

Source: WIO 2003.

Note: an extra allowance of 210.90 can be granted in special education.

REALISATION OF THIS REPORT

This report is written by Ms. Marion Meesters (BMO, Haarlem, The Netherlands) under supervision of a departmental committee, consisting of the following persons:

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An advisory committee with representatives from the social partners and other relevant educational organisations, commented on the text several times. The advisory committee consisted of the following persons:

- Mr. Peter van den Dool, Education Inspectorate
- Mr. Frank Jansma, Association for the Quality of the Teaching Profession SBL
- Mr. Jaap Nammensma, Christian Teachers' Union CNV
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- Mr. Koos Slagter, Consultative Platform for Teacher Training Institutes for Secondary Education ADEF
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