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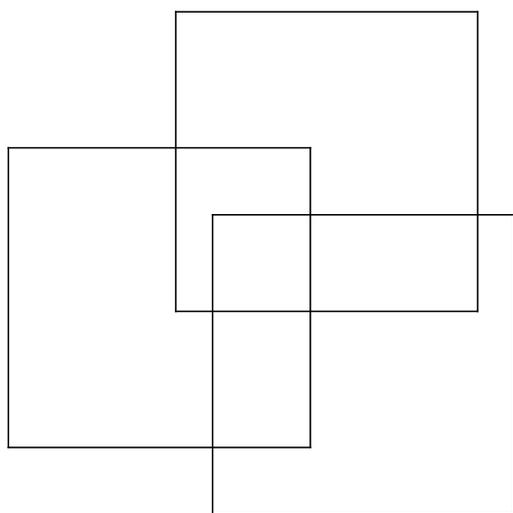
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Employment terms and conditions in tertiary education

**Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum on
Employment Terms and Conditions in Tertiary Education**

(Geneva, 18–20 September 2018)



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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, GENEVA

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Background

At its 329th Session (March 2017) and 332nd Session (March 2018), the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided that a “Global Dialogue Forum on employment terms and conditions in tertiary education” would be held in Geneva from 18 to 20 September 2018. The purpose would be to discuss employment terms and conditions, professional rights and social dialogue mechanisms, including collective bargaining and collegial governance in tertiary education, with the aim of adopting points of consensus, including recommendations for future action by the International Labour Organization and its Members. On the composition of the Meeting, the Governing Body decided to invite all interested governments and that eight Worker participants and eight Employer participants would be appointed on the basis of nominations made by the respective groups of the Governing Body. Selected intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations would be invited as observers.

I. Introduction

1. Sustainable Development Goal 4 on quality education sets out as its target 4.3 “By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.” Quality and accessible tertiary education is widely acknowledged as a key factor in developing a qualified workforce, boosting employability as well as earnings, equality, health and overall human capacities.¹ The increasing demand for tertiary education has provoked major transformations in the sector worldwide over the past two decades, with rapid expansion of tertiary student enrolment. At the same time, there has been a general decline in public funding and increased private provision of tertiary education, decentralization and growing autonomy of educational institutions, a greater emphasis on research and innovation, and more intense competition between higher education institutions (HEIs).
2. The following paper provides an overview of trends in tertiary education and how these developments have affected conditions of work and employment of tertiary education teaching personnel. The paper takes into account teachers, instructors and researchers, including those who are graduate students, who work in tertiary institutions, and, where data are available, tertiary technical and vocational education and training (TVET) institutions. It does not take into account the many education support workers who serve in tertiary education, such as administrators, maintenance and security staff, nor does it cover students who perform work as part of their study programmes. Such workers are essential in tertiary education institutions and have also been impacted by trends in tertiary education, yet the particular dynamics of their working conditions are beyond the scope of this report.

II. General trends in tertiary education

Massification

3. The number of students enrolled in tertiary education has more than doubled in the past two decades, a phenomenon referred to as the “massification” of tertiary education (table 1).² Enrolment in tertiary education increased globally by 82 per cent from 117 million in 2002 to 213 million in 2015, reflecting an average annual increase in enrolment of more than 7.5 million students. China has the largest overall enrolment in the world, followed by India and the United States. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) anticipates that enrolment could exceed 300 million in OECD and non-OECD G20 countries by 2030.³

¹ D.E. Bloom, P.G. Altbach and H. Rosovsky: “Looking back on the lessons of ‘Higher Education and Developing Countries: Peril and Promise’ – Perspectives on China and India”, in *International Journal of African Higher Education*, Vol. 3, No. 1 (2016), pp. 19–42.

² UNESCO: *Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/8* (Paris, 2017), pp. 151–152.

³ OECD: *How is the global talent pool changing (2013, 2030)?* (Paris, 2015); P.G. Altbach: *Global perspectives on higher education* (Baltimore, John Hopkins University Press, 2016).

Table 1. Tertiary education participation indicators

	Enrolment ('000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015
World	99 718	212 670	19	36
Caucasus and Central Asia	1 425	1 895	22	25
Eastern and South-Eastern Asia	24 213	66 813	15	40
Europe and Northern America	39 940	50 702	56	75
Latin America and the Caribbean	11 315	24 894	22	46
Northern Africa and Western Asia	6 836	17 054	20	42
Pacific	1 044	1 750	46	62
Southern Asia	12 162	41 895	9	25
Sub-Saharan Africa	2 559	7 428	4	8

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/8*.

4. In many countries, teaching and research staffing levels have not kept pace with expanding student numbers. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), tertiary education teachers increased from 7.5 million in 2002 to 12.9 million in 2015, reflecting a growth of 72 per cent, lower than the global growth rate of student enrolment.⁴ As enrolment rates continue to increase, the number of academics engaged solely in teaching has risen relative to the numbers engaged in research or both teaching and research. This has led to an increasing differentiation between teaching and research roles within the academic profession.⁵
5. In some Asian countries, the increase in student enrolments has led to new challenges of faculty shortages and deterioration in teaching quality. In India, for example, in 2015–16, there were an estimated 34.6 million students enrolled in higher education, an increase from 27.5 million in 2010–11.^{6 7} A 2017 report, however, revealed that approximately 36 per cent of teaching positions at various central universities remain unfilled, with no anticipated

⁴ UIS: Teachers in tertiary education programmes: <http://data.uis.unesco.org/> [accessed 5 May 2018].

⁵ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice: *Modernisation of Higher Education in Europe: Academic Staff – 2017. Eurydice Report* (Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, 2017).

⁶ P.G. Altbach: “India’s higher education challenges”, in *Asia Pacific Education Review*, Vol. 15, No. 4 (2014), pp. 503–510; N.V. Varghese: “Managing markets and massification of higher education in India”, in *International Higher Education*, No. 86 (2016), pp.13–15.

⁷ Ministry of Human Resource Development: *All India survey on higher education (2015–16)* (New Delhi, Government of India, 2016).

improvements in the near future.⁸ In addition, many teaching posts were filled with candidates holding masters' degrees, with only a few filled by those holding doctorates.⁹

Changing financing models

6. Across the OECD, tertiary education expenditure accounted for 1.5 per cent of GDP on average in 2013, an increase from 1.4 per cent in 2005, outpacing gains in lower levels of education. After the financial crisis of 2008, however, funding declined in a number of OECD countries.¹⁰ Increased enrolments, reduced public financing and a more market-driven approach to public services have prompted countries to seek funding stability through privatization and the requirement that tertiary education institutions generate their own revenue. In South Africa, for example, state subsidies as a proportion of university income decreased from 49 per cent in 2000 to 40 per cent in 2014. The Government has sought to offset this decline by increasing tuition fees for students from certain income levels.¹¹ Many countries in Africa face particularly challenging circumstances, as public and external resources for higher education have steadily declined through the years.¹²
7. In Latin America, Eastern Europe, Central Asia and Eastern Asia, there has been a notable shift from publicly funded systems to systems that are reliant on cost sharing and the private sector. Public universities are increasingly required to cover their own operating costs through research fees, sale of university-related products and industry consultancies.¹³ Private sources of funding account for approximately 30 per cent of tertiary education expenditure, on average, across the OECD.¹⁴
8. Increased demand for tertiary education has also boosted the number of private universities, which operate entirely or with private assets or partially with public funds, on a for-profit or non-profit basis. Private higher education is now the fastest growing segment of post-secondary education; UNESCO reports that nearly 40 per cent of global higher education

⁸ Department-related Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development: *Two hundred eighty eighth report: Demands for grants 2017–18 (Demand No. 58) of the Department of Higher Education (Ministry of Human Resource Development)* (New Delhi, Parliament of India, 2017).

⁹ A. Sudarshan and S. Subramanian: “Private sector’s role in Indian higher education”, in *India Infrastructure Report 2012: Private Sector in Education*, Infrastructure Development Finance Company (IDFC, 2012).

¹⁰ OECD: *State of Higher Education 2015–16* (Paris, 2017).

¹¹ C. Callaghan: “The coming of a perfect storm? ‘Forced privatisation’ and precarious labour in South African academia”, in *Global Labour Journal*, Vol. 9, No. 1 (2018), pp. 82–91.

¹² D. Boccanfuso, A. Larouche and M. Trandafir: “Quality of higher education and the labor market in developing countries: Evidence from an education reform in Senegal”, in Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA) Discussion Papers, No. 9099 (2015).

¹³ B. Jongbloed and H. Vossensteyn: *Access and expansion post-massification: Opportunities and barriers to further growth in higher education participation* (London and New York, Routledge, 2016).

¹⁴ OECD: *State of Higher Education 2015–16*, op. cit.

enrolment is private.¹⁵ In Central and Eastern Europe, there was a significant switch from public to private provision following the 1989 political transition, particularly in Romania, Poland, Georgia and Ukraine.¹⁶ In Central America, private universities have filled unmet demand for higher education in small towns and rural areas, and opened campuses outside major cities.¹⁷ In Africa, Burundi, Congo and Rwanda have seen rapid growth of private tertiary education institutions, covering over two-thirds of students.¹⁸ In India in 2012, private tertiary schools accounted for approximately 59 per cent of total enrolments.¹⁹

Globalization and mobility

9. Tertiary education has become globalized through increased harmonization of qualifications, exchange programmes, cross-border delivery of academic programmes and offshore satellite campuses. Many institutions have pursued internationalization strategies that integrate global dimensions into teaching and research.²⁰ The number of foreign tertiary students enrolled worldwide increased by nearly fivefold from 1980 to 2014, when there were an estimated 5 million international students, and an estimated 13 million cross-border online students, enrolled in tertiary education.²¹
10. There is also an increase in the mobility of teachers, which is supported by the growing number of programmes operating internationally. While elite universities in the United States attract the most academics from abroad, other universities including those in Western Europe, China, Republic of Korea and Saudi Arabia are also recruiting internationally. In Europe, in 2013, the share of foreign citizens among academic staff was 27.3 per cent in the United Kingdom and 43.5 per cent in Switzerland.²² In Saudi Arabia, 40 per cent of academics are recruited from abroad.²³ In East Asia (Hong Kong (China) and Singapore) and the Middle East, another strategy has been to encourage prestigious foreign universities to establish national campuses, serving as higher education “hubs” for their region, many hiring non-local staff.²⁴

¹⁵ UNESCO: *Draft Preliminary Report Concerning the Preparation of a Global Convention on the Recognition of Higher Education Qualifications* (2015).

¹⁶ M. Kwiek: “Changing public–private dynamics in Polish higher education”, in *International Higher Education*, No. 86 (2016), pp. 18–20.

¹⁷ M. Garzaro Scott: “Social dialogue and employment conditions in the public universities in Central America”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

¹⁸ UNESCO: *Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/8*, op. cit.

¹⁹ A. Sudarshan and S. Subramanian, op. cit.

²⁰ J. Knight: “Internationalization: A decade of changes and challenges”, in *International Higher Education*, No. 50 (2005), pp. 6–7.

²¹ OECD: *Education at a glance 2017* (Paris, 2017).

²² European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

²³ P.G. Altbach: *Global perspectives on higher education*, op. cit.

²⁴ W.Y.W. Lo: “Higher Education Industry in Hong Kong and Singapore: Reflections on a Decade of Expansion”, in K.H. Mok (ed.): *Managing International Connectivity, Diversity of Learning and Changing Labour Markets* (Singapore, Springer, 2017), pp. 123–134.

Technology

11. Recent technological trends have become firmly embedded in academic communication, tools for managing universities, and teaching and learning methodologies. The Internet has enabled the development of online courses and degree programmes, virtual academic institutions and, more recently, massive open online courses (MOOCs), which create potential for increased access to and reduced costs for higher education and may help alleviate teacher shortages. The number of students enrolled in online courses is rapidly increasing. In India, in 2015–16, distance learning enrolment accounted for approximately 11 per cent of total enrolment in higher education.²⁵ More broadly, the European Union (EU) projects that e-learning will account for 30 per cent of all higher education provision within ten years.²⁶

III. Employment

Recruitment of teaching personnel

12. Higher education personnel in public universities are generally governed by statutory laws or other special normative framework laws such as a university law, which are administrative rather than labour laws. The extent to which universities are granted autonomy to appoint and determine employment conditions varies considerably. Higher education recruitment processes in public universities are generally a shared responsibility between the central authorities and the HEIs. The recruitment of staff categories with open-ended contracts is often regulated by national authorities, while HEIs maintain greater or full autonomy to recruit junior positions or temporary staff. In many countries, there are no regulations concerning the recruitment of temporary positions. Some countries provide a high level of institutional autonomy in recruitment, such as the Czech Republic, Greece, Netherlands, Slovenia and the United Kingdom. In these countries, the recruitment process is entrusted to the senate or board of governors, or to an ad hoc appointment committee.²⁷

Status of tertiary education teachers

13. In some European countries, as well as most countries in Central and South America, Middle East and North Africa (MENA) and sub-Saharan Africa, higher education personnel in public universities are civil servants or public employees, who are recruited, appointed, promoted, evaluated and paid according to government rules. In such cases, the process of defining salary scales, including criteria for granting bonuses and promotions, is based mainly on legislation and other centrally defined regulations. Salary increases are based on seniority and cost-of-living increases are often issued by ministerial decree. The appointment of HEI academic posts is based on competitive examination. In some countries, there is a probationary period before the granting of permanent status. Legislative reforms allowing for greater flexibility in terms of contracts and professional status have propelled the move away from the civil service model of employment, as illustrated by the 2001 reforms in

²⁵ Ministry of Human Resource Development, op. cit.

²⁶ European Commission: *Report to the European Commission on New modes of learning and teaching in higher education* (Luxembourg, EC, 2014).

²⁷ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

Spain, which introduced a new category of permanent public employee outside the civil service.²⁸

14. In North America, a successful applicant is generally appointed as an assistant professor for a period of up to six years, before undergoing a performance assessment based on teaching evaluations, research publications, grants, internal and external reviews and other indicators. Tenure is usually awarded by senior university officials, at which point the candidate becomes a permanent employee. Over the last decades, tenure-track positions have not grown at the same pace as non-tenure track positions. In the United States, for example, the proportion of full-time, tenure-track positions declined from 45 to 30 per cent between 1975 and 2015, while the share of full-time, non-tenure track and part-time positions increased from 34 to 57 per cent.²⁹
15. In many Central and South American countries, there is no formal tenure or permanent appointment. Appointments are periodically reviewed, typically every six or seven years, with renewal being an accepted practice. In Guatemala, for example, academic staff are appointed through a competitive process for a six-year period, while in Argentina, senior academic appointments (professor, assistant professor and associate professor) are generally for a seven-year period.³⁰
16. In Asia–Pacific, tenure has disappeared for all new university recruits in Australia, New Zealand and Japan.³¹ In Japan, for example, 2004 reforms introduced incentives for academic units at public institutions to move away from tenure-track appointments to fixed-term contracts. Pakistan, in contrast, introduced a tenure-track system in 2007 in order to enhance the performance and efficiency of faculty members. By 2014, 2,750 tenure-track appointments had been made in public universities.³²

New and emerging forms of employment

17. There are a wide variety of positions in tertiary education, ranging from lecturer, visiting professor, assistant professor to ordinary professor, and each of these categories can have specific forms of an employment relationship. New and emerging forms of employment in HEIs are now a common feature in both developing and developed countries, and teaching personnel on such contracts often face job insecurity, poor recognition by tenured peers, and disassociation from institutional governance and academic decision-making.³³ Other

²⁸ Eurydice: *Higher Education Governance in Europe*, European Commission (Education and Culture DG) (Brussels, 2008).

²⁹ C. Atkins et al.: “Organizing the academic precariat in the United States”, in *Global Labour Journal*, Vol. 9, No. 1 (2018), pp. 76–81.

³⁰ Y. Socolovsky, Director of Institute for Research and Training (IEC) of the National Federation of University Teachers (CONADU), interview with Nora Wintour (Accra, Ghana, 14 Nov. 2016).

³¹ S. Batterbury: “Tenure or permanent contracts in North American higher education? A critical assessment”, in *Policy Futures in Education*, Vol. 6, No. 3 (2008), pp. 286–297.

³² M.S. Mirza: “Challenges and opportunities for decent work in tertiary education in Pakistan”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

³³ N.P. Stromquist: “The professoriate: The challenged subject in US higher education”, in *Comparative Education*, Vol. 53, No. 1 (2017), pp. 132–146; S. Vincent-Lancrin: “Cross-border

difficulties faced by casual employees include exclusion from paid leave entitlements, occupational pension plans or health benefits and promotional opportunities, and an inability to apply directly for research funding.³⁴

18. The increasing new and emerging forms of employment in tertiary education are in some cases related to an oversupply of academic labour. In some countries, including the United States and Japan, there are now more PhD holders than academic jobs in certain disciplines. PhD programmes, which are traditionally oriented toward academic careers, often do not equip students with the skills needed to compete for work outside academia. The flexibility introduced into academic labour through contract, sessional and part-time work has allowed universities to be more responsive to student and market demands, fluctuating enrolment levels, and declining public funding.³⁵
19. The proportion of part-time and short-term teaching staff varies between countries and, in some places, its presence is determined through legal regulation. In Europe, the EU Directive on fixed-term employment (1999) limits the use of successive fixed-term contracts by setting a maximum total duration of successive contracts and a permitted number of renewals, and also seeks to ensure that workers on fixed-term contracts receive equal treatment to their permanent counterparts. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia, however, academic employees are specifically excluded from the provisions.³⁶ In Pakistan, the higher education regulatory body limits the proportion of part-time faculty to 20 per cent.³⁷
20. The increasing use of temporary contracts has produced groups of academics appointed on less favourable terms than those on the tenure track. In France, it has been estimated that adjunct faculty constitute nearly 60 per cent of total faculty. Adjunct faculty are not appointed on a competitive basis, and are only required to have a first-level degree or equivalent. They do not receive health coverage or other benefits, and mechanisms for obtaining permanent status do not exist.³⁸ ‘Invited’ or ‘guest assistant’ academics in Portugal experience a similar lack of access to tenure.³⁹ Temporary contracts are present at all types of universities, including elite universities. In the United Kingdom, for example,

Higher Education: Trends and Perspectives”, in *Higher Education to 2030*. Vol. 2: Globalisation (Paris, OECD, 2009).

³⁴ A. Courtois and T. O’Keefe: “Precarity in the ivory cage: Neoliberalism and casualisation of work in the Irish higher education sector”, in *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, Vol. 13, No. 1 (2015), pp. 43–66.

³⁵ D. Cyranoski et al.: “The PhD Factory: The world is producing more PhDs than ever before. Is it time to stop?”, in *Nature*, Vol. 472 (2011), pp. 276–279.

³⁶ M. Sargeant: *Implementation report: Directive 1999/70/EC concerning the Framework Agreement on fixed-term work concluded by UNICE, CEEP and ETUC* (London, Middlesex University, 2007).

³⁷ M.S. Mirza, op. cit.

³⁸ R. Carpenter: “Challenges and opportunities for decent work in tertiary education in France”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

³⁹ Eurydice: *Conditions of Service for Academic Staff Working in Higher Education – Portugal*, [accessed 20 May 2018].

59 per cent of academic staff were on fixed-term or “atypical” contracts at the elite Russell Group of universities.⁴⁰

21. In North America, budget cuts in the public sector have contributed to the substantial increase of non-standard tertiary education work. The Canadian Association of University Teachers (CAUT) estimates that one third of university faculty in Canada are on some form of temporary or part-time contract.⁴¹ Academics on short-term contracts, at times on a per-course basis, often have little advance notice of course assignments.⁴² Similar trends are present in the United States, where 70 per cent of all instructional staff appointments were contingent positions. Employment contracts for contingent faculty are often made in relation to student enrolments, and therefore may be subject to termination on short notice. Most contingent faculty in the United States are in the public sector.⁴³
22. New and emerging forms of employment are also apparent in Central and South America, where it has been estimated that up to 80 per cent of the academic profession is employed part time, with many such “taxicab professors” holding more than one job.⁴⁴ In Guatemala, teachers who are appointed on contracts for a few hours of teaching per week lack benefits and employment protections, including the right to become union members.⁴⁵ In Costa Rica, academic regulations only allow for the appointment of interim teachers to replace a permanent staff member on leave or to fill a temporary vacancy. In practice, however, the last decade has seen a notable increase in the hiring of interim staff, with approximately two-thirds of academics on interim, part-time contracts in public universities.⁴⁶ In Argentina, the 1995 Law on Higher Education establishes that interim contracts cannot constitute more than 25 per cent of academic staff. In practice, the proportion of academic staff on interim contracts is closer to 60 per cent. In many cases, these contracts are renewed for extended periods of time, up to 15 years or more.⁴⁷ In Chile, where the number of academics contracted on an hourly basis has also increased, many part-time academics are employed on consultancy contracts in public universities, and are therefore not covered by labour

⁴⁰ University and College Union (UCU): “Russell Group universities worst offenders when it comes to insecure contracts” (London, 2016).

⁴¹ Canadian Association of University Teachers (CAUT): *Statement regarding the 2017/2018 federal budget* (Ottawa, 2016).

⁴² Ontario Confederation of University Faculty Associations (OCUFA): *OCUFA submission on the Changing Workplaces Review Interim Report* (Toronto, 2016).

⁴³ C. Atkins et al., op. cit.

⁴⁴ P.G. Altbach: “The Pros and Cons of Hiring ‘Taxicab’ Professors”, in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (6 Jan. 1995).

⁴⁵ M. Garzaro Scott, op. cit.

⁴⁶ *ibid.*

⁴⁷ Report presented by Y. Socolovsky, Director of CONADU Institute for Research and Training (IEC), for *Education International* (Buenos Aires, July 2014).

laws.⁴⁸ Cuba is the exception in the region, as more than 90 per cent of the teaching staff are on permanent, full-time contracts.⁴⁹

23. In Asia–Pacific, in such countries as India, more than half of faculty are employed on a temporary basis, with many lacking the formal requirements for teaching. In Japan, where 58 per cent of academic teachers worked part time in 2015, universities won an exemption to a 2013 law that allowed any worker after five consecutive years on temporary contracts to demand permanent status. Instead, teachers and researchers require ten years of consecutive service before becoming permanent employees.⁵⁰ In Australia, new and emerging forms of employment extend beyond teaching activities to include those engaged in research, where personnel employed for research only are predominantly on fixed-term contracts linked to research grants. For those in teaching-only contracts, up to 80 per cent of such personnel are employed on casual employee contracts, which are hourly contracts with separate contracts for marking exams or student counselling. The separate contracts are paid at a lower rate.⁵¹
24. Some institutions are addressing the use of contingency staff through collective bargaining. In Canada, one university’s faculty collective agreement stipulates that no more than 14 per cent of all credit courses offered between the beginning of the spring academic term and the end of the winter academic term can be taught by individuals who are not members of the University Faculty Association. In Argentina, the national collective contract for public universities stipulates that academic personnel employed on casual contracts for more than five years will be given permanent contracts after passing a competitive exam. This opportunity is only open to casual staff. In the United States, the California State University collective agreement provides job security for full-time lecturers by limiting conditional appointments. In Ireland, where one third of teaching staff is employed on a casual basis, tertiary education teachers’ unions campaigned to have fixed-term contracts made indefinite after two years on the basis of the Protection of Employees (Fixed Term Workers) Act 2003. A 2016 government-commissioned report produced a set of recommendations to this end, including establishing a two-year qualification period for the granting of contracts of indefinite duration, and requiring the employer to give preference to staff with existing contracts in recruitment for posts with indefinite contracts.⁵²

⁴⁸ V. Orellana Calderón: “*Desafíos y oportunidades para el trabajo decente en la educación terciaria: el caso chileno*”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

⁴⁹ H. de Wit et al. (eds): *Higher education in Latin America: The international dimension* (Washington, DC, World Bank, 2005).

⁵⁰ D. Brooks: “University teachers in Japan work under the shadow of a falling axe”, in *The Japan Times* (2015).

⁵¹ M. Rothengatter and R. Hil: “A precarious presence: Some realities and challenges of academic casualisation in Australian universities”, in *Australian Universities’ Review*, Vol. 55, No. 2 (2013), pp. 51–59.

⁵² Teachers’ Union of Ireland: *CIDs-Third level* [accessed 5 May 2018].

IV. Terms and conditions of employment

Salaries and other benefits

25. Among most full-time academic staff in North America, Western Europe, Australia and most of Asia, salaries represent the core of total income, allowing for an adequate standard of living. In comparison to similar professions outside academia, however, the salary progression or the difference between junior and senior professors appears modest, with the exception being elite private sector universities in the United States. Using a purchasing power parity (PPP) index to allow comparison across countries, one study found that academic personnel in Canada, the United States, most Western European countries, Brazil, India and Japan are relatively well paid and are among the top 25 per cent of income bands (table 2).⁵³ In Latin America, most of Africa, some countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, full-time academic salaries are relatively low, leading teaching personnel to look for supplementary sources of income.⁵⁴
26. In certain countries, academic staff supplement their basic salary with overtime or by working in multiple institutions, taking on additional contract research or consultancy work or performing administrative services or other non-related academic work. In Poland, faculty salaries in public universities are largely uncompetitive and some academics supplement their income with additional work in the private sector. Similarly, academic personnel in some Asian and African countries have taken on assignments in the private sector to earn additional income. Universities in China, Viet Nam, Kenya, Mali and Uganda have been reported as employing part-time teachers who have full-time jobs elsewhere.⁵⁵
27. Low salaries appear to be more prevalent among temporary and part-time academic personnel. In India, in some cases, the remuneration of contract, part-time and ad hoc lecturers is less than one third of the rate set by the regulatory body that oversees higher education. Due to low levels of pay, many contract faculty hold multiple appointments across a number of institutions. These working conditions have contributed to the departure of skilled personnel from the academic teaching profession.⁵⁶ In the United States, unlike salaries for tenure-track faculty, salaries for contingent faculty are less likely to increase with experience or credential upgrading. The tendency of academics on fixed-term contracts to make themselves available at all times compels them to accept fragmented timetables that impact their life–work balance, and undertake informal and unpaid tasks not covered by their contracts.⁵⁷

⁵³ P.G. Altbach, L. Reisberg and I.F. Pacheco: “[Academic salaries and contracts: Global trends and American realities](#)”, in *NEA 2013 Almanac of Higher Education* (2013) pp. 89–99.

⁵⁴ P.G. Altbach: “[The intricacies of academic remuneration](#)”, in *International Higher Education Journal*, No. 54 (2015), pp. 3–4.

⁵⁵ P.G. Altbach: *Global perspectives on higher education*, op. cit.

⁵⁶ K. Rani: “[Contract teachers in India: An overview](#)”, in *International Education and Research Journal*, Vol. 1 (2015), pp. 24–25.

⁵⁷ A. Lopes and I. Dewan: “[Precarious Pedagogies? The Impact of Casual and Zero-Hour Contracts in Higher Education](#)”, in *Journal of Feminist Scholarship*, Vol. 7(8) (2014), pp. 28–42.

Table 2. Indexed public sector academic salaries at entry level and top of salary hierarchy, and average salary (purchasing power parity index in US dollars)

Country	Entry (US\$)	Average (US\$)	Top (US\$)
Armenia	405	538	665
Russian Federation	433	617	910
China	259	720	1 107
Ethiopia	864	1 207	1 580
Kazakhstan	1 037	1 553	2 304
Latvia	1 087	1 785	2 654
Mexico	1 336	1 941	2 730
Turkey	2 173	2 597	3 898
Czech Republic	1 655	2 495	3 967
Colombia	1 965	2 702	4 058
Argentina	3 151	3 755	4 385
Brazil	1 858	3 179	4 550
Japan	2 897	3 473	4 604
France	1 973	3 484	4 775
Norway	4 491	4 940	5 847
Nigeria	2 758	4 629	6 229
Israel	3 525	4 747	6 377
Germany	4 885	5 141	6 383
Netherlands	3 472	5 313	7 123
United States	4 950	6 054	7 358
India	3 954	6 070	7 433
Australia	3 930	5 713	7 499
Malaysia	2 824	4 628	7 864
United Kingdom	4 077	5 943	8 369
Saudi Arabia	3 457	6 002	8 524
Italy	3 525	6 955	9 118
South Africa	3 927	6 531	9 330
Canada	5 733	7 196	9 485

Notes: Ranked in ascending order according to salary at top of salary hierarchy.

The purchasing power parity index is based on a set of items whose prices are compared with the price of the same items in the United States, the reference country.

Source: P.G. Altbach, L. Reisberg and I.F. Pacheco, 2013.

- 28.** In some countries, HEIs provide additional compensation to encourage research. In Mexico, the National System of Researchers supplements base pay by up to 50 per cent for eligible scholars. The National Scientific and Technical Research Council in Argentina sponsors a similar programme. French academics receive bonuses for scientific excellence, as do academics in Israel and South Africa, and some universities in China pay academics a

significant bonus for each article published in an internationally recognized peer reviewed journal.⁵⁸

Workload and working time

29. A study of 19 countries on job stress and job satisfaction among full-time academic staff found that in countries such as Canada, Australia and the Netherlands, where strong market-oriented performance-based management systems exist, there were higher levels of job stress.⁵⁹ In Europe and North America, performance-based quality assurance and accountability procedures have led to more paperwork and assessments for academics. Personnel are also under increased pressure to access external research funds through competitive and performance-based funding models.⁶⁰ At the upper ranks, shrinking pools of senior tenured positions have contributed to an increase in management tasks for senior tenured personnel. In the United States, for example, as a consequence of decreasing tenure-track positions, those in tenure-track posts have been required to take on increasing responsibility for managing curriculum development, departmental and other duties, in addition to conducting research.⁶¹
30. In Europe, a union study among academic staff in nine European countries found that half of those surveyed reported that their working conditions had deteriorated, and that they were under pressure to teach more students and work longer hours.⁶² In Ireland, a 2015 union survey indicated that 72 per cent of academics believed that their working conditions had deteriorated since the 2008 financial crisis;⁶³ in the United Kingdom, a 2016 union survey found that staff in higher education and further education carried out an average of more than two days of unpaid work every week.⁶⁴
31. The National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) in Australia has argued that the increase in academic workloads is attributable to rising student-to-staff ratios. The number of students to academic staff at Australian universities nearly doubled from 12.9 in 1990 to 23 in 2012.⁶⁵ An employee survey in 2012 found that 90 per cent of full-time academics worked over

⁵⁸ P.G. Altbach, L. Reisberg and I.F. Pacheco, op. cit.

⁵⁹ J.C. Shin and J. Jung: “Academics job satisfaction and job stress across countries in the changing academic environments”, in *Higher Education*, Vol. 67, No. 5 (2014), pp. 603–620.

⁶⁰ M.S.J. Gregory and J.M. Lodge: “Academic workload: The silent barrier to the implementation of technology-enhanced learning strategies in higher education”, in *Distance Education*, Vol. 36, No. 2 (2015), pp. 210–230.

⁶¹ A. Kezar, D. Maxey and E. Holcombe: *The professoriate reconsidered: A study of new faculty models* (Los Angeles, University of Southern California, 2016).

⁶² M. Clarke: *Creating a supportive working environment in European higher education* (Brussels, Education International, 2015).

⁶³ M. Clarke, A. Kenny and A. Loxley: *Creating a supportive working environment for academics in higher education: Country report Ireland* (Dublin: Irish Federation of University Teachers and Teachers’ Union of Ireland, 2015).

⁶⁴ UCU: *UCU workload survey 2016* (London, 2016).

⁶⁵ National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU), n.d.: “Workloads”.

40 hours per week, with 51 per cent of them working more than 50 hours per week.⁶⁶ Similarly, in Kenya, the university student-to-lecturer ratio increased from 25:1 in 1986 to 52:1 in 2013. As a result of low salaries, some lecturers have taken on two or three times the recommended teaching duties. Lecturers often teach year round without a break, and in some cases evenings and weekends.⁶⁷

Assessment and continuous professional development

32. Over the last two decades, there has been a rapid development of quality assurance systems. These are typically focused on student outcomes, with human resource management and employment conditions generally not addressed. Only a few quality assurance mechanisms address the working conditions of academic personnel. Notable exceptions include Croatia and Slovenia, where the staff/student ratio is considered. In addition, Croatia, Hungary and Portugal include the type of employment contract and the proportion of staff by types of contract as quality measures. Some systems also measure academic personnel workload, well-being, and remuneration, as well as representation in governance bodies and participation in decision-making processes. In 2015, the quality assurance measures for the Standards and Guidelines (ESG) of the European Higher Education Area were revised to include some aspects of the working environment, such as recruitment, employment conditions, professional development and the balance between teaching and research.⁶⁸
33. Higher education teaching personnel have traditionally been assessed on the basis of peer review. In recent years, however, many institutions and systems have supplemented peer evaluation with various performance metrics, particularly with respect to research output. Research performance has increasingly been measured by citation indexes, the value of research funds and awards and other quantitative measures of impact. In the United Kingdom and New Zealand, regular national research assessments are undertaken to measure faculty research productivity, with results determining whether individual staff are deemed to be “research active”, which influences funding allocations. US universities are increasingly relying on commercial firms to provide indicator-based analysis of scholarly productivity, so as to facilitate comparisons among research universities.⁶⁹ Global university ranking schemes have put additional pressure on universities to foster cited research, research income and industry income.
34. To assess teaching quality, many institutions employ student opinion surveys and evaluations to assess faculty performance. Recent research, however, has suggested that student surveys are unreliable measures of teaching performance, and may be biased against women and minority instructors.⁷⁰ Other methods of assessing teaching quality, such as

⁶⁶ G. Strachan et al.: *Work & careers in Australian universities: Report on employee survey* (Nathan, Griffith University, 2012).

⁶⁷ G. Wangenge-Ouma: “Higher education marketisation and its discontents: The case of quality in Kenya”, in *Higher Education*, Vol. 56, No. 4 (2008), pp. 457–471.

⁶⁸ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

⁶⁹ N.P. Stromquist, op. cit.

⁷⁰ A. Boring, K. Ottoboni and P.B. Stark: “Student evaluations of teaching (mostly) do not measure teaching effectiveness”, in *Science Open Research* (2016); E. Lilinfeld: “How student evaluations are skewed against women and minority professors”, in *Century Foundation* (2016).

measuring learning gain and student engagement, promise alternatives to student evaluation but also face methodological challenges.⁷¹

35. The increasing focus on quality indicators of tertiary teaching has raised the importance of training and continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers, although in many countries pedagogy and teaching are still not covered in graduate programmes for future academics. The United Kingdom's Quality Code for Higher Education is an emerging example of national requirements for tertiary teachers to undertake CPD as a means to ensure teaching excellence.⁷²

Academic freedom

36. Changing conditions in tertiary education have also had an impact on a central professional right of tertiary teaching personnel: academic freedom. Concerns have been raised that teachers on temporary and part-time contracts are less likely to uphold positions unpopular with their employers or students. Increasing private or foreign investment in universities has led to concerns about influence over curricula and/or teaching.⁷³ In some countries, academic freedom is undermined through direct government interference, agitation by students or political groups, or oppressive institutional environments that favour particular ideologies or approaches.⁷⁴

V. Governance and social dialogue

Governance structures

37. In most countries, national, regional or provincial regulations establish a framework for HEI governance bodies, supplemented by institutional constitutions or statutes. Public universities usually operate on a bicameral system of management. The primary decision-making authority rests with the administration, and a collegial governance body integrates academic staff into the decision-making process. Over the last decades, in many countries, wage and salary policies, institutional budgeting and financing, and developing and negotiating contracts with external agencies have been devolved to university councils or other institutional bodies from the ministry or responsible authority.⁷⁵ As a consequence, the roles of deans and executive administrators have become more extensive, and the roles of collegial governance structures have waned.⁷⁶ In Europe, a 2016 survey of unions in

⁷¹ D. Greatbach and J. Holland: [“Teaching Quality in Higher Education: Literature Review and Qualitative Research”](#) (UK Government, Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, 2016).

⁷² Eurydice: [Continuing Professional Development for Academic Staff Working in Higher Education: United Kingdom – Wales](#) [accessed 28 June 2018].

⁷³ Civitas: [Why academic freedom matters: A response to current challenges](#) (London, 2016).

⁷⁴ Scholars at Risk Network: [Free to Think 2017](#) (New York, 2017); Civitas, op. cit.

⁷⁵ UNESCO: [Trends in global higher education](#) (Paris, 2009).

⁷⁶ R. Watts: [Public universities, managerialism and the value of higher education](#) (London, Palgrave Macmillan, 2017); M. Lyons and L. Ingersoll: [“Regulated autonomy or autonomous regulation? Collective bargaining and academic workloads in Australian universities”](#), in *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, Vol. 32, No. 2 (2010), pp. 137–148.

higher education and research found that the role of collegial bodies has been weakened, that effective decision-making has been moved to bodies with a majority of external members, and that there was a lack of participation of staff in decision-making.⁷⁷ In Canada, part-time and contract faculty have minimal representation in governance structures, and policies prohibiting faculty representatives from sharing information about board deliberations have led to calls for greater public accountability and transparency.⁷⁸ Similarly, Australian and Irish unions have reported that the role of academics on decision-making bodies is increasingly being circumscribed by confidentiality clauses.⁷⁹

- 38.** In other countries, collegial governance has remained more secure. In Africa, since the 1990s, there has been a clear trend to reduce state control of HEIs, as well as to increase autonomy and accountability. Governing boards make policy decisions, including those related to staff recruitment, appointment of heads of institutions and finances, and in several countries, academic staff elect deans.⁸⁰ In Central and South America, a high degree of university autonomy exists at public universities, including over financial management, and collegial decision-making is well established. In Argentina, the Law on Higher Education (1995) mandates that university governing councils must include 50 per cent teaching staff, elected by the faculty. In Chile, Law 19.305–1994 allows academics in the three highest ranks with at least one year of seniority to elect rectors at public universities. A similar example in Europe is Scotland’s Higher Education Governance (Scotland) Act (2016), which ensures inclusion of academic staff representatives and union representatives in governance structures.
- 39.** In contrast to the trend toward greater institutional autonomy, in the MENA region, the role of the state and government in the management of HEIs is generally quite considerable. For example, presidents and deans are often nominated by government authorities, and financing and fee structures are often subject to the control of the Ministry of Finance. In general, higher education leadership has little accountability to the university faculty.⁸¹

Social dialogue

- 40.** Social dialogue on terms and conditions of employment in HEIs varies considerably, with divergence between practices in the public and private sectors. In many countries, national negotiations establish the overall framework of conditions, whether directly with the higher education union or faculty association, or through the confederation. Within that framework, negotiations are conducted at the institutional level. While the average unionization rate for primary and secondary school teachers across the world is slightly above 50 per cent, the

⁷⁷ European Trade Union Committee for Education (ETUCE): *Social dialogue and collegial governance in higher education and research: Report on the ETUCE survey* (Brussels, 2016).

⁷⁸ Carleton University Graduate Students’ Association: *An open board of governors* (2015).

⁷⁹ M. Jennings, Irish Federation of University Teachers (IFUT): interview with Nora Wintour (Accra, Ghana, 15 Nov. 2016); NTEU: “NTEU’s Council participation vindicated”, in *Advocate*, Vol. 23, No. 3 (2016).

⁸⁰ N.V. Varghese: *Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa*, IIEP Research Papers (Paris, UNESCO, 2013).

⁸¹ K. Wilkens: *Higher Education Reform in the Arab World* (Washington DC, Brookings Institution, 2011).

unionization of higher education personnel is much lower and varies considerably between countries.⁸²

41. In Europe, a 2016 survey of unions in higher education and research found that collective bargaining took place in all 21 countries surveyed, other than Poland and France, where academics are considered civil servants and terms and conditions of employment are established by law.⁸³ Considerable variations exist in the form and understanding of collective bargaining. Salary scales are negotiated in Ireland, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia and Finland, between governments and HEIs. In the United Kingdom, scales are negotiated nationally between the Universities and Colleges Employers' Associations (UCEA) and the unions. In the Netherlands, Finland and Malta, each higher education subsector has its own collective agreement, while in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Austria and Liechtenstein, individual HEIs define salary scales.⁸⁴
42. Terms and conditions of employment, including working time and wages, are the principal matters covered by most collective agreements. The range of issues addressed has gradually expanded in many countries. Collective agreements increasingly cover matters such as safety and health, training, grievance and arbitration procedures, discrimination in employment and affirmative action measures for women or minority groups, and may include professional responsibilities of faculty members. In some cases, collective agreements also provide additional welfare arrangements, including housing and transport assistance, travel allowances, book allowances, optical and dental allowances or special loan arrangements. In Canada, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, criteria for assessing academic staff performance are included in collective agreements. In the United States, provisions for re-employment and the rights to longer term appointments are increasingly being adopted for contract faculty.
43. In the United States, approximately 27 per cent of all higher education faculty members are unionized.⁸⁵ Faculty with collective bargaining earned on average \$7,357 more per year than faculty without collective bargaining.⁸⁶ In recent years there has been a slight increase in collective bargaining in private colleges and universities, in particular covering non-tenure track faculty. The rate of newly certified units at private colleges and universities covering non-tenure track faculty is now greater than in the public sector.⁸⁷ A 2016 national Labor Relations Board decision recognized graduate students as employees and paved the way for collective bargaining with student unions at selected universities, while others are fighting the Board decision.
44. In Central and South America, expanding collective bargaining rights in the public sector have generally benefited workers in public universities. In Guatemala, in 2013, the

⁸² N.P. Stromquist: *Twenty years later: International efforts to protect the rights of higher education teaching personnel remain insufficient* (Brussels, Education International, 2017).

⁸³ ETUCE, op. cit.

⁸⁴ Eurydice: *Higher Education Governance in Europe*, op. cit.

⁸⁵ D. Bok: *Higher education in America* (Princeton, Princeton University Press, 2015).

⁸⁶ A. Miller and A.M. Topper: "Trends in Faculty Salaries: 1995–96 to 2014–15", in *NEA 2017 Almanac of Higher Education* (2017), pp. 9–21.

⁸⁷ W.A. Herbert: "The winds of changes shift: An analysis of recent growth in bargaining units and representation efforts in higher education", in *Journal of Collective Bargaining in the Academy*, Vol. 8, No. 1 (2016).

University of San Carlos and the union representing academic and administrative staff signed their first collective agreement. In Argentina, in 2014, the National Federation of University Teachers (CONADU), the Ministry of Education and the National Inter-University Council signed the first national collective agreement for public universities, which included provisions on general employment conditions, leave entitlements, the rights and obligations of academic personnel and limitations on short-term contracts. In Colombia, in 2012, a new decree was issued to regulate the right to collective bargaining in the public sector, which gave unions the right to present demands at both national and institutional levels. Formalizing employment conditions for occasional teachers has been a major topic of negotiation.⁸⁸

45. In some Asia–Pacific and MENA countries, collective bargaining for public employees is much less widespread. In Pakistan, the Government determines the terms and conditions of employment in both federal and provincial universities. The Federation of All Pakistan Universities Academic Staff Associations, which represents 40 constituent associations, has no formal voice in decision-making, but is actively engaged in advocating for the welfare of the academic community.⁸⁹ In Lebanon, university teachers are generally not organized. Tenured teachers at the Lebanese University, however, have built a representative group to protect teachers’ rights and institutional autonomy. Contract teachers have also formed representative groups in order to seek improvements in their working conditions, in particular improved job security. In 2014, 1,200 teachers were given permanent positions as a result of their continuous negotiations with the university president.⁹⁰
46. In other Asia–Pacific countries, collective bargaining is more established. In Australia, the national Higher Education Industry Academic Staff Award covers basic matters, including consultation and dispute resolution, and must be augmented by collective agreements in each university. The trend, however, has been to move towards institution-level negotiations. Particular to Australia, enterprise-level agreements are approved by the Fair Work Commission, a government-established industrial relations tribunal. In Japan, following the 2004 university reforms, academic staff were granted the right to organize and bargain collectively, as well as the right to strike. Collective bargaining is conducted at the institutional level.⁹¹ In Africa, some form of collective bargaining for the public university sector exists.⁹²

⁸⁸ See <http://asputol.blogspot.ch/2017/02/catedraticos-y-tutores-de-la.html> [accessed 12 Apr. 2018].

⁸⁹ M.S. Mirza, *op. cit.*

⁹⁰ S. Abdul-Reda Abourjeili and H. Fawaz: “Challenges and Opportunities for Decent Work in Tertiary Education in Lebanon”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

⁹¹ E. Ito: “Decent work opportunities and challenges in tertiary education in Japan”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

⁹² T. Bailey: *The Role and Functions of Higher Education Councils and Commissions in Africa: A case study of the Ghana National Council for Tertiary Education* (Centre for Higher Education Transformation, Wynberg, South Africa, 2014); T.Y. Tchitchi and M.C. Johnson: “Défis et opportunités de travail décent dans l’enseignement supérieur en République du Bénin”, ILO background paper (unpublished) (2017).

VI. Equality and non-discrimination

Gender equality

47. Considerable advances in the promotion of gender equality in higher education have been made, particularly due to women's increasing access to all levels of education. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, roughly 42 per cent of tertiary teaching personnel are women. However, within the teaching profession gender divisions remain acute. The proportion of women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) disciplines remains low.⁹³ Women are generally under-represented in senior tenured or tenure equivalent positions, and are more likely to be on fixed-term or casual contracts. Under-representation is more prevalent in countries where the gender equality index is low, such as in Benin, where fewer than 10 per cent of university professors are women. Childbirth and motherhood can result in career penalties for female academics, especially when it comes to completing graduate school, obtaining research funding, and securing tenured positions. This issue has been linked to the rigidity of tenure and the lack of family-friendly policies within HEIs, and is especially acute in the sciences.⁹⁴
48. In the EU, there has been a steady increase in the proportion of female academics since 2000. In 2013, approximately 40 per cent of academic staff were women, while the proportion of female students in higher education was over 50 per cent.⁹⁵ In 2014, female academics in Ireland achieved gender balance at the lecturer level. Despite this progress, women represent only 19 per cent of academics at the professorial level. Similarly, in Poland, for the academic year 2014–15, women accounted for 45 per cent of the teachers in HEIs, while only 27 per cent held the position of professor.⁹⁶
49. Some European countries have begun to address these imbalances. In the Netherlands, in 2015, the Ministry of Education began drawing up agreements with universities to achieve female representation of at least 30 per cent in professorships and on boards of academic institutions. Similar measures exist in Germany, Belgium, France and Austria.⁹⁷
50. Other countries have addressed gender equality through collective bargaining. In Sweden, for example, centralized bargaining structures have placed greater emphasis on achieving gender equity through collective bargaining rather than legislation.⁹⁸ In some countries, bargaining on equality issues takes place across the public sector, typically in the form of framework agreements. In Colombia, for example, public sector unions in 2015 submitted a

⁹³ UNESCO: *Cracking the code: Girls' and women's education in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM)* (Paris, 2017).

⁹⁴ M. Goulden, K. Frasch and M.A. Mason: *Staying competitive: Patching America's leaky pipeline in the sciences* (University of California, Berkeley; Washington, DC, Center for American Progress, 2009).

⁹⁵ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

⁹⁶ Central Statistical Office of Poland (GUS): *Higher education institutions and their finances in 2015* (Warsaw, 2016).

⁹⁷ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

⁹⁸ L. Briskin: *Equity bargaining/bargaining equity* (North York, Centre for Research on Work and Society, York University, 2006).

claim for the national collective agreement to include, among other things, the right to reconcile work and family responsibilities.⁹⁹

51. Additional measures to address the gender pay gap include increasing transparency in salary setting and allocating discretionary allowances. In the United Kingdom in 2014–15, full-time female academics earned £5,629 on average less than their male counterparts. In 2016, in a measure to address this inequality, the University of Essex agreed to a one-off salary increase for all female professors, on the grounds that other measures had failed to close the gender pay gap.¹⁰⁰
52. There is also a persistent gender pay gap in North America. In Canada, on average, female faculty members in full-time, permanent positions earned 87.8 per cent of men’s salaries.¹⁰¹ Employment equity and non-discrimination are central provisions in collective agreements for faculty at Canadian universities.¹⁰² In both Canada and the United States, women are over-represented in contingent and contract academic work. In 2014–15, the average annual salary of female academics in the United States was estimated to be \$13,762 less than that of their male counterparts.¹⁰³ Furthermore, the American Association of University Women (AAUW) identified biased behaviour and decision-making as a serious problem in the tenure and promotion processes at many universities and colleges.¹⁰⁴
53. In the Asia–Pacific region, in such countries as India, women continue to be over-represented in lower academic ranks. In 2015–16, there were 35 female professors for every 100 male professors, compared to 151 female demonstrators/tutors per 100 male demonstrators/tutors.¹⁰⁵ In order to address inequalities of opportunity in the academic profession, the regulatory body that oversees higher education extended the maximum period to complete a PhD for female candidates.¹⁰⁶ In Japan, women are under-represented in the academic profession overall, and are more likely to work part time. The proportion of women in senior positions is very low (15 per cent of all professors). The Government has

⁹⁹ [Pliego de solicitudes/15 de CUT, CGT y CTC y las Federaciones Sindicales de Empleados Públicos: FECODE, UTRADEC, FENALTRASE, UNETE, FECOTRASERVICIOSPUBLICOS y FENASER](#), 26 Feb. 2015, and correspondence between Nora Wintour and Patricia Lozano Rodriguez, Unión Nacional de Trabajadores del Estado y los Servicios Públicos de Colombia (UTRADEC), 8 Jan. 2016.

¹⁰⁰ R. Pells: “[Essex University gives female staff one-off pay rises in order to close gender pay gap](#)”, in *Independent* (2016).

¹⁰¹ CAUT: *2014–2015 CAUT almanac of post-secondary education in Canada* (Ottawa, 2016).

¹⁰² Ontario Confederation of University Faculty Associations (OCUFA): *Pay equity among faculty at Ontario’s universities: OCUFA’s submission to the Ontario Gender Wage Gap Steering Committee* (Toronto, 2016).

¹⁰³ A. Miller and A.M. Topper, op. cit.

¹⁰⁴ S.K. Dyer (ed): *Tenure denied: Cases of sex discrimination in academia* (Washington DC, AAUW Educational Foundation, 2004).

¹⁰⁵ Ministry of Human Resource Development, op. cit.

¹⁰⁶ University Grants Commission (UGC): *University Grants Commission (Minimum Standards and Procedure for Award of M.PHIL./PH.D Degrees) Regulations, 2016* (New Delhi, Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2016).

introduced numerical targets for new appointments in science and technology, and is working with universities to provide nursery and childcare facilities.¹⁰⁷

54. In Jordan, a 2017 study by the Association of Jordanian Women Academics highlighted the continued challenges for women in terms of recruitment, promotion and appointment to managerial positions. While there are more female than male graduates, women comprise a minority of university board members and only one fifth of university instructors.¹⁰⁸

Sexual harassment and gender-based violence at work

55. Sexual harassment and gender-based violence in HEIs of both staff and students are widespread but under-reported.¹⁰⁹ Most HEIs in the public sector in Europe, the Americas and some Asian and African countries have adopted codes or regulations concerning sexual harassment. In Pakistan, the “Protection against Harassment of Women at Workplace Act” requires state institutions to establish measures to safeguard against sexual harassment. Following a wide-ranging consultation process, the Higher Education Commission adopted comprehensive policy guidelines against sexual harassment in institutions of higher learning. In India, in 2016, the higher education regulatory body introduced new regulations on the “Prevention, prohibition and redressal for sexual harassment of women employees and students in higher education institutions”. The regulations are applicable to all HEIs, which are required to establish a mandatory Internal Complaint Committee, and include sanctions for non-compliance.¹¹⁰ Individual institutions in some countries have established their own policies against sexual harassment, as is the case at Cairo University, Egypt and at the University of Chile.¹¹¹

Diversity

56. Minority ethnic, indigenous and other disadvantaged groups are in many cases under-represented in academic positions. In the United Kingdom, for example, minority staff account for 13 per cent of non-professorial academic positions across all HEIs, and only 7.3 per cent of professorial positions.¹¹² There has been growing awareness about the need for equity measures directed towards these groups. In France, the Government established a national target that 6 per cent of HEI staff be personnel with disabilities. The Government also provides 25 PhD grants to students with disabilities on an annual basis.¹¹³

¹⁰⁷ E. Ito, op. cit.

¹⁰⁸ D. Al Emam: “Women academics ‘widely discriminated against’ – report”, in *The Jordan Times* (2017).

¹⁰⁹ J. Joseph: *Sexual Harassment in Tertiary Institutions: A Comparative Perspective* (New Jersey, Stockton University Galloway, 2015).

¹¹⁰ UGC: *University Grants Commission (Prevention, prohibition and redressal of sexual harassment of women employees and students in higher educational institutions) Regulations, 2015* (New Delhi, Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2016).

¹¹¹ J. Joseph, op. cit.

¹¹² UCU: “Report highlights lack of women and BME university professors” (London, 2013).

¹¹³ European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, op. cit.

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57. In Canada, the “indigenization” of universities and colleges has become an important debate, following the 2015 report by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission that called on HEIs to play a leading role in supporting aboriginal languages and culture. In Australia, enterprise bargaining has been used to establish higher levels of indigenous employment through employment targets, and to support the retention of staff through recognition of cultural and other leave. Indigenous employment has almost doubled since the introduction of such measures.¹¹⁴
58. In India, there is a complex reservation system for ensuring access to government jobs, including faculty positions in central institutions, for specific historically disadvantaged groups, such as lower caste populations and tribal groups. The percentage reserved is close to half of the total positions at a given institution.¹¹⁵ Other measures include a reduction in eligibility marks for recruitment to teaching positions. These reservation policies, however, have not always been successfully implemented.¹¹⁶
59. In many OECD countries, including some Latin American countries, increasing attention is being given to LGBTI issues and rights, including introducing measures in collective agreements to ensure equality of treatment of same sex partners on issues related to leave and pensions.¹¹⁷

VII. Tertiary TVET teaching personnel

60. The general trends that have impacted higher education have also been felt in tertiary TVET institutions, but the exact dimensions remain difficult to gauge due to lack of data and research. TVET generally maintains a diversity of teacher education models, teacher profiles, and recruitment and training practices, reflecting its location within both the education system and in the world of work.¹¹⁸ In many countries, teachers and trainers in TVET occupations have a perceived lower status than their general education counterparts, due to perceptions that vocational education is less “academic”. In addition to low levels of compensation, TVET teachers and trainers often receive lower salaries relative to their counterparts in the education sector and, for those with civil service status, in the civil service. In some countries, such as Australia, the TVET workforce is highly casualized, while in others, institutions are beginning to explore more flexible employment arrangements including part-time work. In the North African region, in countries such as Tunisia, non-permanent employees often have lower qualifications, levels of training, salaries and incentives, which could have implications for the quality of TVET. Short-term

¹¹⁴ N. Wintour: *Report on the Quadrennial Survey on Equality and Diversity 2010–2014* (Brussels, Education International, 2014).

¹¹⁵ P.G. Altbach: “[India’s higher education challenges](#)”, op. cit.

¹¹⁶ UGC: *University Grants Commission (Minimum Qualifications for Appointment of Teachers and other Academic Staff in Universities and Colleges and Measures for the Maintenance of Standards in Higher Education) (4th Amendment), Regulations, 2016* (New Delhi, Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2016).

¹¹⁷ American Federation of Teachers (AFT): *Creating a positive work environment for LGBT faculty: What higher education unions can do* (Washington, DC, 2013).

¹¹⁸ International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (UNESCO–UNEVOC): *Tackling youth unemployment through TVET: Report of the UNESCO–UNEVOC online conference* (Bonn, 2013).

and fixed-term staff also tend to be less engaged in the institution and with other colleagues.¹¹⁹

- 61.** The lack of industrial and pedagogical experience of TVET teachers has also been identified as impacting the quality of TVET education. In the ASEAN countries, including Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam, most of the newly recruited teachers are recent graduates from vocational and technical colleges and universities who often lack industrial and teaching experience. Although steps are being taken to improve initial teacher training, continuing professional development for existing teachers has not received significant attention.¹²⁰ Similarly, in most African countries, early career support and opportunities for professional development are provided on an ad hoc basis. The limited opportunities for professional development, in addition to low status and salaries, presents a challenge to attracting and retaining youth and qualified teachers and trainers to TVET occupations.¹²¹

VIII. International standards and tertiary education personnel

- 62.** Tertiary education teaching personnel are covered by the scope of international labour standards. The UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel (1997) sets out principles concerning the rights and duties of higher education teaching personnel, including on labour issues, taking into account a number of ILO standards. In 1999, the ILO's Governing Body and UNESCO's Executive Board adopted a revised mandate of the Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations concerning Teaching Personnel (CEART) so as to include the 1997 UNESCO Recommendation in its mandate. Other relevant instruments include the UNESCO Recommendation on the Status of Scientific Researchers (1974, revised in 2017), which sets out principles drawing on ILO standards for scientific researchers. UNESCO is currently drafting a Global Convention on the Recognition of Higher Education Qualifications, which, if adopted, could facilitate greater mobility of higher education teaching personnel.

¹¹⁹ European Commission: *TVET teacher education in Africa: Synthesis report* (Luxembourg, European Union, 2014); H. Guthrie et al. "Teaching for technical and vocational education and training (TVET)", in L.J. Saha and A.G. Dworkin (eds): *International Handbook of Research on Teachers and Teaching* (2009), pp. 851–863; OECD and African Development Bank: *African Economic Outlook 2007/2008* (Paris, 2008); UNESCO: *Technical And Vocational Teachers And Trainers In The Arab Region: A Review Of Policies And Practices On Continuous Professional Development* (Paris, 2014).

¹²⁰ P. Paryono: "Approaches to preparing TVET teachers and instructors in ASEAN member countries", in *TVET@sia* (2015).

¹²¹ European Commission, op. cit.