General Teaching Council
Survey of Teachers
2006

Merryn Hutchings, Sarah Smart, Kathy James and Katya Williams

Institute for Policy Studies in Education
London Metropolitan University

June 2006
Contents

Acknowledgements
Executive Summary
Chapter 1: Introduction
Chapter 2: The sample
Chapter 3: Teachers’ careers
Chapter 4: Continuing professional development
Chapter 5: Equality
Chapter 6: Teaching and learning
Chapter 7: National initiatives
Chapter 8: Discussion

Appendices
A The questionnaire
B Methodology and sample representativeness
C Factor analysis and regression tables
D Frequencies
E Comparisons with previous surveys
F Crosstabulations
Acknowledgements

The research team would like to thank all the teachers who have contributed to this report by making the time to complete and return questionnaires. We are also grateful to those teachers who piloted earlier drafts of the questionnaire.

We are very grateful to the administrative team within IPSE, and particularly to Andrew Craven and Lindsay Melling.

The support and constructive comments of the GTC steering committee have been invaluable, as have the very helpful comments from three external referees.
Executive summary

Overview
In November 2005, the General Teaching Council (GTC) commissioned the Institute for Policy Studies in Education (IPSE) at London Metropolitan University to undertake a large-scale independent survey of a nationally representative sample of teachers selected from the GTC Registration database. This is the third annual survey the GTC have commissioned; the surveys in 2004 and 2005 were conducted by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NfER), and reports of these are available on the GTC website.

The surveys are designed to track the teachers’ views. The findings are used to inform the GTC’s policy and the advice which they give to the Secretary of State for Education and Skills.

The very wide variety of responses has highlighted the diversity within the profession. This is not simply in relation to professional role, school phase and personal characteristics of teachers, though the diversity in relation to all of these variables is considerable. There is also diversity relating to the school contexts in which teachers are working, and to the motivations and priorities of the teachers themselves. The greatest differences in response related to professional role, and we have shown in relation to many of the questions, that there was a neat pattern in which supply teachers were at one extreme and headteachers at the other, with class teachers, those with a cross-school role and assistant and deputy heads ranged in between these two extremes. This difference partly related to the different perspective on careers of the two groups, but also reflected to some extent headteachers’ wider involvement with networks and other professionals. There were also groups of teachers who seemed to be positioned as more marginal to the teaching profession – supply teachers and part-time teachers.

There were also considerable differences between primary and secondary teachers. The primary teachers generally seemed to be more positive in their responses. School context was also an important aspect of the diversity of the profession. We constructed measures of school context in relation to two forms of challenge (attainment/SEN and linguistic/socioeconomic). In addition, there were clearly some differences that related to the location of the school. However, these measures were not the only way in which school context appeared to impact on teachers’ perspectives. The comments that teachers wrote in about their career development indicated a very clear spectrum ranging from schools that were good places to work, with support, encouragement and even inspiration from colleagues, and good development opportunities for teachers to schools that appeared to be static and unsupportive. The Teacher Support Network has characterised the types of school described above as having healthy and unhealthy cultures.

The key role of school leaders has long been recognised, and the creation of the National College of School Leadership was a tangible acknowledgement of the importance of this group, not only in creating the ethos within which teaches work, but the ethos within which pupils learn. This survey showed that headteachers were more satisfied that their development needs were being met than other groups of
teachers. But while overall the headteachers were the most positive about their professional development, around half reported that their needs had been met only to some extent, and a few not at all. While a great deal of support is available for headteachers, there may not be sufficient mechanisms to ensure that they all avail themselves of this, and it may then be the teachers in a school who suffer the consequences of having school leaders who do not engage with professional development and the wider educational community.

In the light of the importance of headteachers in creating (or not creating) environments in which teachers can flourish, it is particularly worrying that the survey suggests that there may not be enough teachers wanting to take on this role.

The survey offers some interesting data about the relationship of teachers to other professionals. We have suggested that headteachers enjoy a wider perspective than class teachers because they work with other professionals and network with other headteachers. The Every Child Matters agenda aims to bring about closer links between a wide range of professionals. While in this survey the impact of this seemed to be somewhat limited, the wider perspective brought by such contacts appears to contribute to teachers’ satisfaction with their school and their career development.

**Summary of chapters**

**Research design**

The research themes and questions were determined by the GTC, which also specified which survey questions from previous years should be repeated. The questionnaire design took these research questions as a starting point. The final 12-page questionnaire included 20 questions. In all, eight questions were repeated from the 2005 questionnaire; four of these had also appeared in the 2004 questionnaire.

The survey was distributed by post (to home addresses where these were available) in the last week of February 2006. It was also made available on-line for those who preferred to respond in this way. A random sample of 10,000 teachers was drawn from a sample pool of 430,722 eligible teachers registered with the GTC; that is, those who were in service in state schools in England in September 2005. In total 3665 completed questionnaires were received, a response rate of 37%. The achieved sample was compared with the population in terms of key variables, and while there were minor differences between the sample and the population, but these were small enough not to affect representativeness, so that generalisation from the sample to the population could be made with confidence.

The data were linked to background details taken from the GTC register of teachers, including: gender, age, length of service, government office region, hours description (full time, part-time, supply and unknown), and the phase in which teachers worked. In addition, for those teachers working in schools, a range of data held by the DfES was imported: school type, percentage of pupils with special educational needs, percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals, percentage of pupils with English as an additional language, and Key Stage results.

This imported data was used to create two measures which described the school context. The first of the ‘challenges’ is largely determined by a school’s Key Stage results and by the percentage of pupils with special educational needs. We refer to this as ‘attainment/SEN challenge’. The second measure is largely determined by the
percentage of pupils in the school with English as an additional language and the percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals. We refer to this measure as ‘linguistic/socioeconomic challenge’.

The data were analysed using SPSS version 11.

**The sample of teachers**

- In comparison with previous GTC surveys, a higher proportion of teachers identified themselves as class teachers and a lower proportion as heads of department, year or key stage than had been the case in previous surveys. This may reflect the introduction of Teaching and Learning responsibility payments, and loss of Management Allowances for some teachers.

- Professional roles are inevitably unevenly distributed in any random sample of teachers: thus in this sample only 10% of headteachers, but 68% of those with a cross-school role, worked in secondary schools.

- The sample illustrates the gender disparity in promoted roles and headships that has been reported elsewhere, with a disproportionate number of men in these roles. It also shows the high proportion (57%) of headteachers aged 50 and over.

- Teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge are disproportionately based in London; this group includes the vast majority of the minority ethnic teachers in the sample.

- Teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge are more evenly distributed across the country.

- The GTC database offers considerable potential in that it includes part-time and supply teachers, groups about which very limited data are available. Both groups include a higher proportion of women and of older teachers than is found among than full-time regular teachers.

- The minority ethnic teachers in the sample generally entered teaching when they were older than white teachers, and are both younger and have a shorter length of service than white teachers. While the minority ethnic teachers ere less often in promoted roles, once we controlled for length of experience, this difference was not significant.

**Teachers’ careers**

- Seventy percent of the sample considered it likely or highly likely that they would remain in the same role throughout the next five years.

- Both Excellent Teacher status and becoming an Advanced Skills Teacher were seen as attractive option by the youngest and least experienced teachers, rather than by those experienced classroom teacher who wish to remain in the classroom. The ASTs in the survey were almost as likely to want to move into leadership roles as the heads of department, year or key stage. Thus it appears that the AST role is seen as a step towards management/leadership, rather than as an alternative career path focused on teaching.

- While 23% of the sample considered it likely or highly likely that they would move into leadership roles, only 4% thought it likely or highly likely that they would become headteachers. In this sample, the balance between the number of
teachers who saw it as highly likely that they would move into headship, and the number of headteachers who saw it as highly likely that they would retire or move into other work indicates a considerable shortfall in the number of candidates for headship.

- Some teachers across the whole age range indicated that they might leave state school teaching; this reflects the pattern of current wastage.

- Supply teaching and changing hours worked were attractive option particularly for some older teachers.

- The main factors that teachers reported had enhanced their careers were their experience (48% of respondents), particularly when this was in well-managed schools in which they were presented with a range of opportunities; their training and professional development (35%); personal factors including both motivation and factors in their private lives (16%) and professional encouragement and support (13%).

- The main factors that they said had limited career development were poor or limited experience (34%), including working in schools with poor management and limited opportunities; personal factors (27%), including lack of motivation and family commitments; lack of qualifications and CPD (10%); factors relating to the career structure for teachers (10%) such as ‘being too expensive’ at the top of the salary scale, and loss of status as a result of restructuring; and lack of professional encouragement and support (including discouragement and prejudice) (7%).

**Continuing professional development**

- The questions in the CPD section were all repeated from the 2005 survey, and some had also been included in the 2004 survey. Many of the responses were very similar across the surveys; however, year-on-year there is a statistically significant increase in the proportion of teachers who feel their professional development needs are being met, partly or fully, and a decrease in the proportion who said that they are not being met at all.

- There were some clear differences in the CPD responses that related to professional role; there was a gradient in response with headteachers being the most satisfied that their needs were met; having engaged in the most different types of CPD activity; and being the most confident that CPD was valued in their school and taken into account in decision-making, while class teachers were less satisfied that their needs had been met, had experienced less different types of CPD activity; and were less confident that CPD was valued and taken into account in their schools.

- Supply teachers were the least likely of all to feel that their professional development needs had been met and to have participated in CPD activities in the last year. However, this did not necessarily result in them indicating the highest level of needs for the year ahead, because some of them are near retirement and do not see CPD as important in their particular situations.

- The least satisfied group of all were the supply teachers who entered service during the 2004-5 school year. They had participated in very little professional development activity, and were anxious to have more.
The CPD topics that teachers most frequently indicated they needed in the next 12 months were similar to those last year, with ‘using ICT in teaching’ being the most frequently selected of all, and among the top three for all but the most recently qualified teachers.

In comparison with last year, more teachers indicated that they would like CPD in addressing underachievement in groups of pupils, teaching pupils with special educational needs, and teaching gifted and talented pupils. However, it is possible that this was an effect of the questionnaire construction, where a question on these topics immediately preceded the CPD section.

The question about confidence in the use of performance data, and ICT for analysing performance data, elicited almost identical responses to last year. However, in the 2006 questionnaire, a slightly higher percentage of teachers indicated that they needed training in these areas than did so in 2005, and this included around three-quarters of those who had said they lacked confidence.

Equality

The three most frequently selected areas of equality for the GTC to focus on in relation to pupils were social class (61%), race/ethnicity (59%), and gender (56%). These were consistently the top three priorities for primary and secondary teachers in different professional roles. However, for the group of teachers in special schools, PRUs and nurseries, disability was the top priority.

In relation to teacher employment, the three most frequently selected areas of equality for the GTC to focus on were age (69%), gender (59%) and race/ethnicity (46%). There was remarkable unanimity across different groups that these were the main priorities, and in that order.

Within the responses to each of these questions there were patterns that related to the respondents’ personal characteristics (gender, ethnicity, age) and to the school contexts in which they were teaching. Thus minority ethnic teachers and those teaching in ethnically diverse schools (identified in this survey as having high levels linguistic/socioeconomic challenge) or schools in London tended to give greater priority to both race/ethnicity and religion. Female teachers were more likely to prioritise gender, and teachers working in special schools, PRUs and nurseries (which were grouped together for analysis) to prioritise disability.

Fifty percent of teachers have had no training in any of the listed aspects of equality. Thirty percent had received training addressing equality in relation to disability, 30% training relating to gender, and 28% had received training in equality in relation to race and ethnicity. While social class was identified as the highest priority for the GTC, only 9% of teachers indicated that they had had any training in this area.

A higher proportion of headteachers had taken part in training in all the aspects of equality listed than other teachers. The training experienced related to the context in which teachers worked: those in special schools were more likely to have had training in disability, those in multiethnic schools and in London were more likely to have experienced training in race/ethnicity.

Over 70% of teachers indicated that they understand the implications for classroom practice of each of the elements of equality fully or ‘to some extent’; 56% of teachers said that they understood the implications of gender for
classroom practice, 48% of disability and 46% of race/ethnicity. Only 25% of teachers indicated full understanding of the implications of sexual orientation on classroom practice. Headteachers were more likely to report understanding than other teachers.

- A higher proportion of teachers who have had training on each aspect of equality understand its implications on classroom practice.

- Teachers know more about school policies relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions in their school than they do about policies relating to teacher employment.

- Sixty-four percent of teachers responded that their school had a policy on race/ethnicity in relation to pupils and adult-pupil interactions; 63% reported their school had such a policy on disability and 58% on gender. Only 30% of teachers responded that there was a policy on social class, 29% knew of a policy on age and 22% knew of one on sexual orientation. At least a quarter of the teachers did not know whether each aspect of equality was addressed in school policies; this included around 6% of headteachers (rising to 15% in relation to social class and sexual orientation).

- Teachers were more often unsure about the existence of school policies relating to equality in teacher employment. The policy that most teachers were aware of in their schools were to do with race/ethnicity (46% said it was addressed in their school policies) followed by gender (43%) and religion (43%). The aspects of equality that teacher report are least frequently addressed in policies related to their employment are sexual orientation, social class and age.

**Teaching and learning**

- Almost all teachers (91%) selected ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximised’ as a main priority for achievement in their school or setting. The other most frequently selected priorities were that ‘individuals should meet the targets set for them’ and ‘boys should achieve as well as girls’.

- Secondary teachers’ responses in relation to priorities for achievement more often focused on national and school-level targets, while primary teachers tended to more often respond in terms of the individual and their needs. Teachers in senior leadership roles were more likely to agree that the school’s value-added was an important priority, and that ‘the school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake (pupil background and prior attainment).’ However, they were no more likely than those in other roles to indicate that national targets should be met.

- Teachers working in schools with a higher level of attainment/SEN challenge more often said that ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’. Teachers working in schools with high linguistic socioeconomic challenge were more likely than other groups to indicate that ‘specific minority ethnic groups should achieve as well as other pupils’.

- A number of factors were seen as ‘very important’ in addressing underachievement. The most highly rated by all teachers were: ‘working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self confidence’ and ‘developing an inclusive school ethos in which all pupils and their achievements are valued’.
In relation to addressing underachievement, there were some differences in responses of teachers with different professional roles. Class teachers more often selected strategies that were to do with teaching groups and how they are organised (e.g., grouping or setting), while senior leaders were more concerned about the school ethos and curriculum, and generally had a more outward looking perspective (to parents, other agencies and professional development opportunities).

There were considerable differences by phase in the strategies that teachers saw as important in addressing underachievement in their own school or setting. Primary teachers tended to prioritise support staff working in the classroom, whereas secondary were more likely to opt for extra tuition. Primary teachers also focused strongly on the pupils’ needs; they more often selected ‘adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils’ and ‘recognition of and provision for learning styles’. These factors were selected by even more of those teaching in special schools, PRUs and nurseries; they also indicated the importance multi-agency approaches.

Those in schools with high levels of attainment/SEN challenge were more likely to prioritise adapting the curriculum to meet pupils’ interests, and those in school with high linguistic/socioeconomic challenge to respond in terms of celebrating the culture of the pupils and multi-agency approaches.

Teachers were asked to give additional details of ways in which underachievement was addressed in their schools; these included curricular strategies, pastoral approaches, targeting and tracking, and mentoring.

Most teachers (53%) said there is ‘some flexibility’ in the curriculum to ‘adapt it to meet the needs and interests of the pupils’. Teachers of younger age-groups – particularly in Foundation Stage – were most likely to say there was ‘a great deal of flexibility’, as were headteachers.

National initiatives

PPA time

Seventy-one percent of teachers were getting their full allocation of PPA time. Fifteen percent of class teachers, 19% of teachers with a cross school role, 23% of assistant/deputy heads and 37% of headteachers were getting some PPA time, but not all their entitlement, or rarely had PPA time.

Respondents were mainly positive about PPA time: over 50% agreed that it enabled them to reflect on their assessment of childrens’ needs and target lessons more precisely, and enabled them to teach better because they feel more prepared. Compared to 2005 the percentages agreeing with all the statements about PPA time have decreased, perhaps indicating that not all expectations have been met.

Comments suggested that primary class teachers are positive about PPA time and feel it has had positive impacts on their lives and work. Many primary headteachers, are concerned about the impacts on pupil behaviour and learning, on their own work (both in terms of time spent organising PPA and time spent providing cover), and impacts on the school budget and other activities such as CPD. Some primary teachers commented that they are now undertaking work that was previously undertaken by teaching assistants (such as photocopying and putting up displays), while the teaching assistants take their classes.
Secondary teachers also made positive comments about guaranteed PPA time that cannot be suddenly taken up with cover. However, many comments indicated that in terms of overall time available, PPA time has had a limited impact. Secondary teachers also commented that the time is often taken up with a wide range of non-PPA activities, such as pastoral work and curricular responsibilities.

**Working with others**

- Over 50% of teachers work daily or at least once a week with other teachers, teaching assistants, senior leaders/managers.
- Headteachers and assistant/deputy heads work more frequently with others, and with a wider range of others than teachers with other roles.
- Very few teachers work frequently with probation officers, police, social workers, nurse/health visitors and educational psychologists. Those who do generally work in more academically challenging primary or secondary schools, or in other settings (special schools, PRUs or nurseries).
- Secondary staff work more frequently with other teachers, trainee teachers or support staff, bursars and learning mentors than primary teachers; primary staff work more frequently with parents and other volunteers, teaching assistants, higher level teaching assistants and nursery nurse than do secondary teachers.
- Forty-one percent of the sample had worked in teams of professionals from different agencies. Their most frequent contribution to these teams was sharing information about individual pupils and offering a perspective on children’s experiences in school.

**Influences over teaching and learning**

- Ninety percent of respondents selected either ‘the teachers’ or ‘the whole staff of the school’ (or both) as the group that they would most like to have a greater influence over teaching and learning in the school.
- Approximately three fifths of teachers selected ‘the pupils’ and over one-third ‘the parents’ as who they would like to have a greater influence over the school.
- There were slight differences between teachers with different professional roles; assistant/deputy heads and headteachers on average selected more responses, and chose different options (the governing body and the NCSL instead of teacher unions and associations).

**Opportunities to innovate and lead change**

- Over 80% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that teachers have the opportunity to innovate in their classroom, over 50% that teachers have the opportunity to bring about change in the school, but only 5% that they have the opportunity to influence change at national policy level.
- A higher proportion of headteachers and deputy/assistant heads agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to innovate in the classroom and bring about change in the school than do classroom teachers or supply teachers.
- A higher proportion of teachers in other settings agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to innovate in the classroom compared to secondary, primary
or supply/LEA teachers and a higher proportion of teachers in other setting and in primary schools agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to bring about change in the school compared secondary of LEA/supply teachers.

**Professional Standards Framework**

- The two most frequent uses reported by teachers were in recruitment of teaching staff and performance management. However, in all of the questions the largest group of respondents were those indicating that they did not know how frequently the PSF was being used or did not understand how it might be used.

- A higher percentage of headteachers and deputy/assistant heads indicated that the PSF was ‘always’ used in each of the contexts listed, in comparison with classroom teachers.

**Government initiatives**

- The government initiatives most teachers identified as helping teachers to make a difference to improving education are Assessment for Learning and national strategies for teaching and learning (each selected by 58% of respondents). Over 50% of teachers also selected Every Child Matters.

- The three initiatives selected by the fewest teachers were academies (2.5%), extended schools (12.1%) and performance tables (12.3%).

- More than one third of teachers indicated that they had no experience of academies, funded networks of schools, initiatives relating to information and communication technologies in schools, extended school and foundation partnerships.

- A lower percentage of respondents selected ICT than in 2005. However, national strategies was the second most frequently selected initiative in both 2005 and 2006.
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background
In November 2005, the General Teaching Council (GTC) commissioned the Institute for Policy Studies in Education (IPSE) at London Metropolitan University to undertake a large-scale independent survey of a nationally representative sample of teachers selected from the GTC Registration database. This is the third annual survey the GTC have commissioned; the surveys in 2004 and 2005 were conducted by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NfER), and reports of these are available on the GTC website.

The surveys are designed to track the teachers’ views. The findings are used to inform the GTC’s policy and the advice which they give to the Secretary of State for Education and Skills.

1.2 Aims of research
The aims of the 2006 survey were:

- to revisit some of the areas investigated through previous surveys, in order to see whether and how teachers’ views have changed;
- to explore teachers’ views about topics not included in previous surveys.

1.3 Methodology
1.3.2 Questionnaire design and piloting
The research themes and questions were determined by the GTC, which also specified which survey questions from previous years should be repeated. The questionnaire design took these research questions as a starting point. Draft survey questions were produced by IPSE and discussed with the GTC steering group. They were also more widely circulated within the GTC, and altered in the light of comments received. In this iterative process some of the original research questions were dropped and others modified. The list of research themes, topics and questions below includes all those that have been included in the 2006 survey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research theme</th>
<th>Research topic</th>
<th>Research questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ careers</td>
<td>Teachers’ aspirations over the next five years</td>
<td>What proportion of teachers, over the next five years, aspire to stay in the profession, seek leadership posts, move into other roles in education, retire?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Barriers to career progression</td>
<td>What are the barriers to career development and promotion?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Professional learning and interaction. CPD needs</td>
<td>CPD experienced in the last 12 months, including asking if teachers have experienced multi-agency training in relation to Every Child Matters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have teachers’ CPD needs been met in the last 12 months?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are teachers’ CPD needs in the next 12 months?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire was piloted at two different times; once in a full draft discussed with the GTC steering group, and then again in a near-final draft. Ten teachers took part in this process, including nursery, primary and secondary teachers, part-time and supply teachers, a headteacher, and minority ethnic teachers. In the majority of cases this took place on an individual basis, with a researcher sitting alongside the teacher while s/he filled in the questionnaire. This enabled the teacher to comment, as they completed the survey, on perceived lack of clarity, or a missing alternative in the questions. Other teachers completed the questionnaire individually, and wrote detailed comments about any problems they perceived. Their comments were discussed with the GTC steering group, and a further round of piloting took place. This process resulted not only in changes to proposed new questions, but in some alterations to the repeated questions. For example, teachers commented that the list of CPD activities included in the 2005 questionnaire did not include activities on INSET days, and for most teachers this was an important form of CPD. In some cases minor changes were made to questions that have been repeated from previous years; this was generally to update the terminology (for example, ‘English as an additional language’ was used rather than ‘English as a second language’), and to create greater clarity. Where changes have been made they are specified in Appendix E, which presents comparisons with the findings from previous surveys.

Following this process, the final 12-page questionnaire included 20 questions, some with two parts. In all, eight questions – one of which had two parts – were repeated from the 2005 questionnaire; four of these had also appeared in the 2004 questionnaire.
The survey was distributed by post (to home addresses where these were available) in the last week of February 2006. It was also made available on-line for those who preferred to respond in this way. Teachers were asked to respond within six weeks, with the closing date in the week after Easter. Two postal reminders were sent out, and one email reminder to the small number for whom the GTC database included up-to-date email addresses.

1.3.2 Sampling
A random sample of 10,000 teachers was drawn from a sample pool of 430,722 eligible teachers registered with the GTC; that is, those who were in service in state schools in England in September 2005. This sample was compared with the population on the following key variables to ensure it was representative:

1. gender
2. phase
3. school type
5. government office regions
6. full-time; part-time; supply.

In the course of sending out the questionnaire it emerged that some teachers who had been included in the sample were ineligible (either they had retired some time ago, or they had left the teaching profession and requested to be removed from the database); they should not have been included in the sample. There were also some individuals who were never sampled as they were not at the address on the database. We are aware of 190 teachers in the sample who were ineligible or who were never sampled. This means that as far as we know, 9,810 individuals were sampled. In total we received 3665 completed questionnaires. (Of these, 194 were on-line and 3495 were postal returns; however, 24 were duplicates, giving a total of 3665.) The response rate was therefore 37%.

In addition to the 3665 completed questionnaires, a further 167 individuals responded to decline participation.

The achieved sample was compared with the population in terms of key variables. As in previous years, there were minor differences between the sample and the population, but these were shown to be small enough not to affect representativeness so that generalisation from the sample to the population could be made with confidence. Details of this investigation are given in Appendix B.

1.3.3 Analysis
The data were linked to background details taken from the GTC register of teachers, including: gender, age, length of service, government office region, hours description (full time, part-time, supply and unknown), and the phase in which teachers worked. In addition, for those teachers working in schools, a range of data held by the DfES was imported: school type, percentage of pupils with special educational needs, percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals, percentage of pupils with English as an additional language, and Key Stage results.

This imported data was used to create two measures which described the school context. In previous surveys, one measure has been created from the various data
about the school, using principal components analysis. This has been referred to as a measure of ‘school challenge’. Using the same statistical procedures, we found that one variable was insufficient to explain the variance in the data, and we therefore extracted two un-correlated variables, which together explain 80% of the variance on the data. Full details of these measures and their construction are in Appendix B.

Following the previous GTC annual survey reports, and widespread usage (e.g. ‘schools facing challenging circumstances’, the London Challenge, etc.), we have referred to these variables in terms of the degree of ‘challenge’ faced by teachers in the school. However, we are aware that all schools face challenges, and that it is not necessarily less challenging to teach high attaining pupils, for example.

The first of the ‘challenges’ that emerges from the principal components analysis is largely determined by a school’s Key Stage results and by the percentage of pupils with special educational needs. It is also determined, to a lesser degree, by the percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals. This measure reflects the main way in which the term challenge is conventionally used, for schools where attainment is well below average. We refer to this as ‘attainment/SEN challenge’. The second measure is largely determined by the percentage of pupils in the school with English as an additional language and the percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals.

We refer to this measure as ‘linguistic/socioeconomic challenge’. This measures the rather different challenges faced by ethnically diverse schools in deprived areas, often in the inner city.

While these two measures were designed to be uncorrelated, we also created similar measures without specifying that they should be uncorrelated, and found that the correlation coefficient was low (0.2). Thus we are confident that these are distinct ways of describing the school contexts within which teachers in the sample worked.

For each measure, we have created quartiles; thus in the report we refer, for example, to schools in the highest quartile of ‘attainment/SEN challenge’; these are the schools with a high proportion of low-attaining pupils and a high percentage of pupils with special educational needs.

There were several open response questions on the questionnaire. These were post-coded before the analysis began; full details of the post-coding method are in Appendix B and the coding frames are in Appendix C.

The data were analysed using SPSS version 11. We have explored the data from different groups of respondents, using

- the background data from the GTC database: gender, age, length of service, government office region, hours description (full time, part-time, supply and unknown), and the phase in which teachers worked;
- the background data from the DfES database: school type, percentage of pupils with special educational needs, percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals, percentage of pupils with English as an additional language, and Key Stage results;
- the two measures of the school context created from this background data;
- data on professional role and ethnicity collected in the survey.

We have used these data to enable us to explore responses by professional role, length of service, school phase, age, gender and school context. We have also used the various measures to explore responses from a variety of specific groups defined.
through combining of these variables (for example, primary class teachers, supply teachers with less than one year of service, and so on).

Basic frequencies were calculated for all questions, and where possible, comparisons of frequencies with the 2004 and 2005 results. Cross-tabulations were also constructed so that the breakdown of the responses between different groups could be explored. In addition, in the case of some scales of attitudes, mean values have been calculated. While this measure of central tendency is more usually used for parametric (interval or ratio) data, the size of this sample and the nature of the scales used make this method of analysis a useful supplement to tables of frequencies and cross-tabulations.

Cross-tabulations have been analysed using the standard test of *Pearson’s chi-squared* to test for significant differences between different sets of responses, using a probability value of less than or equal to 0.05 to indicate statistical significance (denoting a 5% chance or less of occurring randomly). In order for the chi-squared test to be valid, certain assumptions must be met about the expected count\(^1\) in the cells. However, the 22 respondents who returned questionnaires without their unique identifying number cannot be linked to background variables, and therefore their gender, phase, school are not known. They create a small category, “not identified”. In most cases they have been excluded from chi-squared tests, because expected counts for the group are too low. Certain response patterns (e.g. very few respondents strongly agreeing or disagreeing) also create problems with minimum expected counts. In these cases, certain response categories have been collapsed. Where respondents have been excluded, or responses collapsed this is indicated in the footnotes to the text or table. The chi-squared test is sensitive to large sample sizes (i.e. the larger the sample size the more likely the test is to show significance), and in cases where a table is significant, further analysis of table residuals has been carried out to establish which cells differ from independence and by how much. In some cases, this is also supplemented by the construction of 95% confidence intervals for the proportions that are being compared.

Attitudinal data (derived from questions using a 5-point scale) have also been analysed using *one, two- and three-way ANOVA*. This technique allows us to compare the mean ratings given by different groups, while also controlling for other variables.

On several questions, *principal components analysis* has been used to identify whether responses to particular questions can be grouped into the most important principal components underlying the data. For example, where respondents have answered multiple items about Continuing Professional Development, principal components analysis has been used to identify key groups that explain the variation in the answers (e.g. general satisfaction with CPD). These factors are of interest in themselves, and in some cases have also been used as response variables in regression analysis.

\(^1\) Expected counts is the number of teachers from each sub-group of the explanatory variable (e.g. males and females in the case of gender) who would be expected to fall into each response category (e.g. strongly agree, agree etc) if there were no association between the gender and response. The chi-square test assesses whether the differences between the expected and the observed (actual) counts are large enough to reflect an existing association in the research population and not be a result of chance only.
Finally, regression analysis has been used to try to disentangle the effects of different variables. The chi-squared test indicates which variables are statistically associated, but this association may be present because of a third related variable. For example, there may be an association between older teachers and amount of CPD. This may be related to their age, but it could be because most older teachers are in more senior roles, and in fact it is the seniority of a role and access to CPD that are related. Multiple linear regression analysis measures the effect of different variables on the response variable while controlling for the effects of other response variables. This is potentially very interesting and very useful. However, it is important to bear in mind the limitations of regression analysis. The variables that we have included in the regression analysis are listed in Appendix C. These variables are those that were available to us. However, for many of these questions, there are almost certainly other variables affecting teachers’ responses. For example, when we ask about attitudes to government initiatives, teachers’ political affiliation might be a very significant predictor of answers that we have been unable to include. As well as restricting the explanatory power of the model, this can cause the model to produce biased estimates of the relative effects of the variables included in the model (if the explanatory variables not included are correlated with those that have been included).

In this report, two types of regression have been undertaken. Linear regression, which uses an interval-level response variable, such as number of initiatives ticked, or factor score, and a binary logistic regression, which models the probability of a positive response in a yes/no question.

In estimating regression models, a backward method of entering the various explanatory variables has been applied. This means that all the explanatory variables (predictors) are simultaneously included in the model at a first step and then, gradually removed if they do not have a statistically significant effect on the outcome variable. The first predictor to be removed is the one with the least impact on how well the model predicts the outcome. The second is the next least influential variable and so on. Only statistically significant predictors are retained in the final model. Details of the models used are found in the appendix.

1.4 Report structure

Each of the chapters that follow reports findings related to one of the themes investigated through this survey:

- The sample of teachers
- Teachers’ careers
- Continuing professional development
- Equality
- Teaching and learning
- Government initiatives.

A final chapter discusses the overall findings. A number of appendices are attached. A copy of the questionnaire is included as Appendix A. Subsequent appendices give further details about the sampling and the data coding, and present tables of frequencies and cross-tabulations of the findings.
Chapter 2: The sample of teachers

2.1 Introduction
This chapter introduces the sample of teachers who responded to the GTC survey in 2006 and the school contexts in which they worked, and reviews patterns relating to age, gender, ethnicity and professional role. These patterns underpin the pattern of responses to the survey in the analysis that follows. They are also of interest in illustrating the diversity within the teaching profession and the contexts in which teachers work.

In this chapter we refer to survey data about the professional roles of respondents (Question 1) and their ethnicity. We also draw on data about the respondents from the GTC’s database, and on data about the schools they work in, taken from DfES records.

2.2 The professional roles of teachers in the sample
The questionnaire asked teachers to indicate their professional roles from a list provided. This was the same list as had been used in 2004 and 2005, in order to allow year-on-year comparisons to be made (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Which of the following best describes your professional role? 2004, 2005 and 2006 responses: percentage of teachers in each role (2004: N = 4350; 2005: N = 4136; 2006: N = 3646)

Just as in previous years, these categories have been collapsed in the cross-tabulation tables and in most references in the report (Table 2.1).
Some teachers ticked two categories, indicating, for example that they were both a deputy head and a class teacher. In all cases these have been entered as the role that has greater seniority. There were 233 teachers (6%) who did not tick any role, but wrote one in. In 90 cases these could in fact be coded back into the original categories, and this was done; this may account for the slightly lower percentage recorded as ‘other’ in 2006. Those remaining in the ‘other’ category (N = 143) include peripatetic teachers (93), as well as those who had recently retired (13) and did not indicate a previous role.

In comparison with previous surveys (Figure 2.1), more teachers in 2006 indicated that they were class or subject teachers, and fewer indicated that they were heads of year or department. This may in part reflect the impact of the introduction of Teaching and Learning Responsibility payments (TLRs). A number of teachers point out at various points in the questionnaire that they have lost the Management Allowance that they previously held.

The recent restructuring has seen my MA2, disappear in the ‘new’ structure. This means salary loss of £3600 (+ pension, etc), move from head of department to teacher (main scale), therefore, starting again.

Clearly the wording of the options on the questionnaire did not specify that cross-school roles should be only responsibilities for which teachers were paid, but comments written on the questionnaires suggest some teachers have interpreted it in this way, while others, like the one quoted above, no longer have these responsibilities. It will be useful to review this in 2007, when TLRs will be more firmly in place.

The increasing proportion of supply teachers in each annual survey probably reflects the GTC’s ongoing efforts to ensure that all qualified supply teachers are registered (GTC, 2005).

It should be noted that in the 2006 survey, the distribution of respondents in different roles across phases is very uneven. This is a consequence of using a random sample. Thus, for example, the majority (81%) of headteachers responding worked in primary schools, while the majority (68%) of those with a cross-school role (including heads of department, year and key stage) worked in secondary schools (Figure 2.2).
Question 1b asked teachers to indicate in which Key Stage(s) they currently worked. This question was asked mainly to enable some of the other questions (particularly those about teaching and learning) to be analysed by Key Stage. Most secondary teachers selected more than one Key Stage, as did primary heads and deputies, who identified the Key Stages covered by the school. However, primary class teachers generally chose just one Key Stage. Table 2.2 shows the responses by school phase.

Table 2.2: In which Key Stage(s) are you currently working? by school phase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Stage</th>
<th>primary</th>
<th>secondary</th>
<th>LEA/supply</th>
<th>other</th>
<th>not identified</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 1</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 3</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 4</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>89.2</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-16</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>1765</td>
<td>1422</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.3 shows the age distribution of teachers in the sample, and compares this to DfES data for full-time regular qualified teachers (DfES, 2006a).
The distributions are unsurprisingly very similar, but the GTC sample includes a higher proportion of older teachers (15% of the GTC sample are aged 55 and over, compared to 10% in the DfES figures), and a lower proportion of those aged under 40 (28% compared to 34% in the DfES figures). These differences arise because the populations sampled are different: the GTC database includes all qualified teachers in service, including part-time and supply teachers. This contrasts with the DfES statistical volumes, which include detailed information only about regular teachers. The only information they include about supply or occasional teachers is the total number working in schools on the day that data is collected. They also focus on full-time teachers, presenting detailed information (age, gender, professional role, length of service etc.) only for this group. Much less data are available about those who work part-time, and about supply teachers. This makes the GTC database a particularly interesting source, in that it includes groups about which there is limited data from other sources. The greater proportion of older teachers in the GTC sample represents the part-time and supply teachers that are included in the sample, showing that they are older than (on average) than full-time regular teachers.

Similarly, there is a difference in gender balance between the GTC sample and figures for full-time regular teachers. Of the sample, 80% were women. This contrasts with 69% of women among full-time regular teachers reported by the DfES (2006a), and suggests that among part-time teachers and supply teachers there is a higher proportion of women than among full-time teachers. This pattern is evident among both primary and secondary teachers. Among primary teachers, 90% of the GTC sample were women, compared with 84% among full-time regular teachers. Secondary women teachers made up 66% of the GTC sample, but only 56% of all full-time regular secondary teachers (DfES, 2006a).

If age, gender and school phase are taken into account, these differences between the GTC and DfES figures for full-time regular teachers can be explored in more detail. Among primary teachers the GTC sample includes more women in the 35-44 age group, and aged 50 and over: the age groups for whom part-time or supply work is particularly attractive either because of child-care, or as a way of winding down towards retirement. Among secondary teachers, the higher proportion of women in the GTC sample is evident in all age groups from 35 upwards.

Later in this chapter, we review the data the GTC database offers about specific groups of teachers such as supply teachers and those working part-time. Here we turn to the relationships between age, gender and professional role. Figure 2.4 shows the age and gender distribution of primary and secondary teachers in the GTC sample with differing professional roles. It illustrates the higher proportion of men among teachers with promoted roles in each phase. Of the primary respondents, men made up 8% of the class teachers without special responsibilities, but 27% of the headteachers. Among secondary respondents the proportion of men was higher overall, but the pattern was similar: men made up 23% of class/subject teachers without special responsibilities, but 63% of heads and assistant/deputy heads. This gendered pattern

---

2 This excludes the 22 teachers who tore the number off their questionnaires and so cannot be linked to GTC database information.

3 Secondary heads have been combined with deputy and assistant heads because of the small number of heads responding. DfES School Workforce statistics show a similar pattern to that reported here, but a) define all those who are not heads or deputy heads as ‘classroom and others’ not distinguishing those with promoted roles, and b) include only full-time teachers.
of promotion has been investigated by, for example, Moreau et al. (2005), and Coleman (2002, 2004, 2005).

**Figure 2.4: Age and gender distribution of teachers with differing professional roles**

**PRIMARY**

- Class or subject teachers (N = 391)
- Class teacher with special responsibilities (N = 642)
- Cross-school role (including head of dept, year or key stage) (N = 203)

**SECONDARY**

- Class or subject teachers (N = 419)
- Class teacher with special responsibilities (N = 269)
- Cross-school role (including head of dept, year or key stage) (N = 495)

Note: Secondary headteachers have been combined with assistant and deputy heads because there were only 26 headteachers, 14 men, 12 women.
The age distribution of class or subject teachers with no other responsibilities shows significant numbers in their forties and fifties. Some of these are late entrants to the profession, but a review of their length of service shows that more than a third of class or subject teachers had more than fifteen years service. This suggests that a substantial number were either not interested in gaining promotion, or had not been successful in doing so. In the next chapter we examine the factors that teachers identified as enhancing or limiting their career development, and compare the responses of those who have and have not gained promotion.

Unsurprisingly, those with the greatest responsibility tend to be the older teachers; 57% of headteachers are aged fifty and over, as are 43% of assistant and deputy heads. Concerns have been expressed about the potential impact of the impending retirement of this substantial group of school leaders. Figure 2.5 summarises the age distribution of all the teachers in the sample by professional role.

**Figure 2.5: Age distribution of all teachers in the sample by professional role**

This illustrates the uneven age distribution of teachers, and the large numbers moving towards retirement, and shows that a considerable proportion of those who currently have leadership roles are among the older teachers. However, it also shows that some younger teachers have cross-school roles. But whether there are sufficient numbers of teachers wanting to take on leadership responsibilities to enable such roles to be filled in the future is obviously a concern. The next chapter reviews what career moves teachers envisage undertaking in the next five years, and sheds some light on the balance between headteachers retiring and teachers who envisage moving into headship.

The age distribution varied geographically: overall, the teachers in the sample were younger than average in London, and older in the East of England\(^4\) (Figure 2.6).

---

\(^4\) Chi-squared = 670.668, df = 54, p = 0.000
Similarly, a higher percentage of teachers in London than any other region had less than ten years service, and fewer have more than 20 years service (Figure 2.7).

These differences would appear to be, at least in part, differences in the characteristics of teachers in more rural, and urban or inner city areas.

2.3 School context

There were some differences across the sample that related to school context. As Chapter 1 explained, we used factor analysis to create two uncorrelated measures of school context. The first is determined by attainment figures and percentage of pupils with special educational needs, and to a lesser extent by free school meals eligibility. For simplicity, we have labelled this factor ‘attainment/SEN challenge’. The second factor is based on the proportion of pupils with English as an additional language, and free school meals eligibility. We refer to this factor as ‘linguistic/socioeconomic challenge’.

For each of these measures, we have divided primary and secondary schools into four quartiles, ranging from low to high scores on each of these measures. We then

---

5 Chi-squared = 421.995, df = 72, p = 0.000
examined the characteristics of teachers in each quartile. Figures 2.8 and 2.9 show the distribution within each Government Office Region of respondents working in secondary schools with differing levels of challenge.

Figure 2.8 indicates that linguistic socioeconomic challenge is unevenly distributed across England; 70% of those in the sample in London were working in schools the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge, whereas this is the case for very few in the South West, South East, East of England and East Midlands. Or, to look at this from a different perspective, 36% of the secondary teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge were based in London. While we have not illustrated the regional pattern for primary teachers, it was very similar; 37% of primary teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge worked in London. This broadly fits with the distribution of pupils for whom English is an additional language in the population: in 2004, 36% of primary and 32% of secondary pupils in London had a first language other than English (DfES, 2004).

Figure 2.8: Distribution within each Government Office Region of respondents working in secondary schools with differing levels of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge

Figure 2.9 shows that while there is some regional variation, attainment/SEN challenge is fairly evenly distributed across the country. In comparison with teachers in other regions, fewer of those in the East of England and the South West work in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge.

Figure 2.9: Distribution within each Government Office Region of respondents working in secondary schools with differing levels of attainment/SEN challenge
The distribution of the two measures of challenge among primary respondents in each region is very similar to that in secondary schools, and is not illustrated here.

The proportion of male teachers responding was significantly greater in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge\(^6\) (Table 2.3).

**Table 2.3: Proportion of male and female teachers in secondary schools by attainment/SEN challenge quartile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>low challenge</th>
<th>high challenge</th>
<th>all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>men</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One reason for this might be that such schools might deliberately try to appoint men because of a perception that men are needed to deal with some of the behavioural issues experienced in such schools; however, this could also be a result of bias in response patterns. It would be of interest to investigate this further.

The age profile indicates that those teachers who responded in ‘high linguistic/social challenge ‘ primary schools were significantly younger than those in the lowest quartile of linguistic/social challenge\(^7\); Figure 2.10 illustrates this (showing only the highest and lowest quartiles). This is the case largely because so many of the schools with high linguistic-socioeconomic challenge are in London, where teachers are, as has been shown, younger on average than in other regions.

**Figure 2.10: Age of primary teachers in lowest and highest quartiles of linguistic/socio-economic challenge**

There was a similar pattern in secondary schools, though here this was not statistically significant (16% of teachers in low linguistic/social challenge schools were in their twenties, but 22% in the high challenge schools).

The majority of the minority ethnic teachers in the sample were working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socio-economic challenge\(^8\) (42 out of 52 primary teachers; 26 out of 47 in secondary schools) (Table 2.4). They comprised 10% of the teachers working in primary schools in the highest quartile of linguistic challenge, and

---

\(^6\) Chi-squared = 32.299, df = 3, p = 0.004.

\(^7\) Chi-squared = 37.631, df = 15, p = 0.001

\(^8\) Primary: chi-squared = 103.030, df = 4, p = 0.0001; secondary: chi-squared = 28.584, df = 4, p = 0.0000
8% of those in secondary schools in this quartile. This reflects the geographical distribution of schools with such challenges, and of the minority ethnic population (43% of minority ethnic teachers in the sample taught in London).

### Table 2.4: Percentage of teachers from minority ethnic groups teaching in primary and secondary schools in each linguistic/socioeconomic challenge quartile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of teachers from minority ethnic groups teaching in schools with ....</th>
<th>low challenge</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>high challenge</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primary</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.4 Specific groups of teachers in the GTC database

The GTC database, as we have shown, includes data about two groups of teachers about which limited data are available elsewhere: supply teachers and part-time teachers. Both are difficult groups to investigate, because of the high level of turnover. Supply teachers may cease to work, and may gain permanent posts. Part-time teachers can move into full-time work or out of teaching altogether; analysis of DfES data on teacher flows (DfES, 2006a) shows that the turnover of this group (including movement in and out of full-time teaching) is far higher than that for full-time teachers.

This turnover is illustrated when we consider two different sources of information about supply teachers in the sample. Under ‘school type’ some teachers are listed as ‘Teacher supply agency’ and others as ‘LEA’. (In the school phase cross-tabs these have been combined to one group, LEA/supply.) Those working for LEAs would include both supply teachers and a variety of peripatetic teachers. Those working through supply agencies should all be recorded as supply teachers. So it would be reasonable to expect the bulk of the supply teachers to be recorded as either LEA or teacher supply agency. Table 2.5 shows that this was the case for only 165 out of the 277 who ticked ‘supply teacher’ on the questionnaire.

### Table 2.5: School type (GTC database selected categories) by whether or not the teacher indicated s/he was a supply teacher on the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GTC database: type of school</th>
<th>supply teacher</th>
<th>not a supply teacher</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Supply Agency</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other type of school (e.g. community, voluntary aided)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3264</td>
<td>3376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>3388</td>
<td>3665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shading indicates rows and columns that could include supply teachers.

---

9 Full-time turnover: 17.9%; part-time turnover, 29.3% (DfES 2006a)
Possible explanations of this include the fact that many older supply teachers work only for one school (see Hutchings et al., 2006), often the one that they retired from, and so may have indicated that type of school. Similarly ‘long-term’ supply teachers may become permanent, and those working long-term in a school may categorise themselves as class teachers rather than supply teachers.

When we refer to supply teachers in this report, we mean the group who identified themselves as supply teachers in the survey. However, cross-tabulations by school phase include the ‘LEA/supply’ group, some, but not all of whom are supply teachers.

Figure 2.11 shows the age distribution of the 277 supply teachers in the sample compared with those who did not identify themselves as supply teachers. The number of supply teachers in their late fifties and sixties reflects a career pattern identified in research about supply teachers (Hutchings et al., 2006); some teachers undertake some supply teaching after retirement or early retirement.

Of the supply teachers, 84% were female (Figure 2.12); this compares with 80% of teachers in the whole sample.

The other group about which limited data are currently available are the part-time teachers. While the GTC database does identify some teachers as part-time (8.5% of the sample as a whole), it is acknowledged that this data field may not be up-to-date. Thus we have made limited use of it in this report, though the particular issues that
concern them do become evident in some of the written comments. But it is worth noting that 97% of this group are women. Only 20% are in promoted roles, compared with 44% of those who are identified as full-time, and 35% in the sample as a whole. Of those identified as part-time, 84% are over 40 years old, compared with 60% in the sample as a whole. In the next annual survey, it would be useful to collect more information specifically about those who work part-time.

A third group of teachers about whom limited data are available are the minority ethnic teachers. The DfES statistical volumes first collected data about teacher ethnicity only in 2003, and data are still missing for some local authorities. The published volumes include only percentages of teachers (including those who are unqualified) in different ethnic groups; they are not broken down by role or age or length of service. The GTC database does not yet include full ethnicity data, and for this reason previous GTC surveys have not been analysed by ethnicity. In recognition of the importance of this factor, this survey asked teachers to declare their ethnicity on the questionnaire, using the ethnic categories used on the census. In all, 96% of the teachers declared their ethnicity; of these 96.8% were white and 3.2% from visible minority ethnic groups (Table 2.6). These figures are compared with DfES data (DfES 2006b) which indicates that of those from whom data have been collected, 94.9% are white and 5.1% from visible minority ethnic groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity provided</th>
<th>count</th>
<th>% of those who declared ethnicity</th>
<th>% of those for whom data has been collected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td>3402</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>94.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixed</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese or other ethnic background</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ethnicity provided</td>
<td>3516</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preferred not to declare ethnicity</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no response</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ticked two categories</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>3665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The disparity between the DfES data and the data from this sample could have arisen because the DfES data includes unqualified teachers, while this sample does not, but may also be caused by response bias (for example, minority ethnic teachers may be less inclined to respond to questionnaires).

In recognition of the importance of collecting data on the perspectives of minority ethnic group teachers, and of the paucity of data available, the same questionnaire was sent to a further sample of those who are recorded on the GTC database as being from minority ethnic groups. A separate report has been prepared analysing the responses from minority ethnic teachers in both the main sample and this booster sample.
In this report, we refer, where relevant, to differences between white teachers and those from minority ethnic groups (this does not include those teachers in the booster sample). There are too few responses within each ethnic group to be able to break this down further by ethnic group.

Figure 2.13 shows the professional roles of white and minority ethnic teachers. It shows that a higher percentage of minority ethnic teachers are supply teachers and class teachers. But a much lower percentage of minority ethnic teachers are in promoted roles (cross-school, assistant/deputy heads and headteachers). In particular, 7% of white teachers, but only 2% of minority ethnic, were headteachers. Similar findings were reported by Ross (2002) and by Ranger (1988).

Figure 2.13: Professional roles of white and minority ethnic teachers

Ross argued that the disparity in relation to professional roles is partly explained by the age and experience profiles of white and minority ethnic teachers, and this is also the case in this sample (Figure 2.14); those from minority ethnic groups are overall younger and have on average very much less experience than the white teachers.

While both of these are statistically significant, the disparity in experience is larger than the disparity on age because the minority ethnic teachers generally entered teaching when they were rather older than their white counterparts.

---

10 Chi-squared = 26.439, df = 12, p = 0.009
11 Chi-squared = 47.518, df = 16, p = 0.000
12 Chi-squared = 64.464, df = 16, p = 0.000
13 Chi-squared = 55.715, df = 14, p = 0.000
This might suggest that the disparity in promotion could be related more to differences in length of service than to ethnicity. Table 2.7 compares the roles of white and minority ethnic teachers with less than ten years service and those with more than ten years service (The numbers of minority ethnic teachers do not permit the use of finer categories; assistant and deputy heads and headteachers are grouped together because of the small numbers.)

Table 2.7: Professional role: white and minority ethnic teachers by length of service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>less than 10 years service</th>
<th>10 or more years service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white</td>
<td>minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply teacher</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class or subject teacher</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class teacher with special curricular or non-curricular responsibilities</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-school responsibilities</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant/deputy head or headteacher</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>1243</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
While among those with less than ten years experience, a slightly higher proportion of white teachers are in promoted roles, this is not statistically significant. Among those with more than ten years’ service, there is very little difference between the professional roles of the two groups. However, the numbers of minority ethnic teachers in this sample is far smaller than in previous surveys which have found a disparity even when length of service has been controlled for (Ross, 2002; Ranger, 1988). While we cannot draw any firm conclusions from such a small sample, it may be that there is less disparity in promotion relating to ethnicity than there was when previous research was conducted.

2.5 Summary

- In comparison with previous GTC surveys, a higher proportion of teachers identified themselves as class teachers and a lower proportion as heads of department, year or key stage than had been the case in previous surveys. This may reflect the introduction of Teaching and Learning responsibility payments, and loss of Management Allowances for some teachers.

- Professional roles are inevitably unevenly distributed in any random sample of teachers: thus in this sample only 10% of headteachers, but 68% of those with a cross-school role, worked in secondary schools.

- The sample illustrates the gender disparity in promoted roles and headships that has been reported elsewhere, with a disproportionate number of men in these roles. It also shows the high proportion (57%) of headteachers aged 50 and over.

- Teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge are disproportionately based in London; this group includes the vast majority of the minority ethnic teachers in the sample.

- Teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge are more evenly distributed across the country.

- The GTC database offers considerable potential in that it includes part-time and supply teachers, groups about which very limited data are available. Both groups include a higher proportion of women and of older teachers than is found among than full-time regular teachers.

- The minority ethnic teachers in the sample generally entered teaching when they were older than white teachers, and are both younger and have a shorter length of service than white teachers. While the minority ethnic teachers are less often in promoted roles, once we controlled for length of experience, this difference was not significant.

---

14 Previous research (Ross, 2002) has suggested that the different possibilities for promotion in primary and secondary schools may have impacted on this pattern; in the GTC sample, the minority ethnic and white teachers worked in primary and secondary in similar proportions, and even if each is considered separately, the differences in percentages in promoted roles was not significant. The minority ethnic grouped included more supply teachers, some of whom are likely to be overseas trained teachers not aiming for promotion. If they are excluded from the calculation, there is still no significant difference.
Chapter 3: Teachers’ careers

3.1 Introduction
The GTC research themes identified for the 2006 survey include teachers’ careers; the research questions ask what proportion of teachers, over the next five years, aspire to stay in the profession, seek leadership posts, move into other roles in education or retire, and what are the barriers to career progression. In the questionnaire, teachers were asked two questions about their career development: how they envisaged their career developing over the next five years (Question 2), and what factors they felt had enhanced or limited their career development (Question 3).

3.2 How teachers envisage their careers will develop
Question 2 asked teachers how they envisaged that their careers would develop over the next five years. They were asked to rate each option on a list provided as highly likely, likely, unlikely or highly unlikely. They were also given spaces for each option to indicate that they did not know or were undecided, or that the option was not applicable (which would be the case for most teachers in options such as ‘move from supply to permanent teaching’).

The number of options selected by a teacher as ‘highly likely’ and ‘likely’ may give some indication of how definite their plans are. Thirty-one percent of all respondents did not consider any of the options ‘highly likely’. This suggests either a lack of clear plans, or that the options offered did not include what they intended to do. Some 53% selected just one option, 13% selected two options as ‘highly likely’, and 3% selected three or more options. It is of course entirely possible to undergo two career changes in five years, and so selecting two or more options as ‘highly likely’ may indicate having a very clear plan for the future. For example, some older teachers identified both ‘become a supply teacher’ and ‘retire’ as ‘highly likely’, and these are compatible options. However, to choose two options as ‘highly likely’ may also indicate lack of a clear plan for the future.

Out of all the respondents, 4% did not identify any of the options as either ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’, 45% selected just one option as either ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’, and the remaining 51% selected two or more options in these categories.

Figure 3.1 shows the proportion of respondents indicating that each of the options was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’. Overwhelmingly the most frequently selected was ‘continue in role identified in Question 1’ i.e. the teacher’s current role. This was seen as ‘highly likely’ by 25% and ‘likely’ by 45%. Three options were each selected as ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ by around 20% of respondents; these are retirement, moving into leadership, and changing hours worked. All other options were considered to be ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ by less than 10% of respondents.

Table 3.1 shows the groups of teachers who were significantly more likely to indicate that particular options were ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’. Since there is considerable variation relating to professional role, we have also included a table showing the percentages of those in each professional role indicating that an option was ‘highly likely’ (Table 3.2), and a table showing the total percentage indicating that each option was either ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ (Table 3.3).
Figure 3.1: How do you envisage that your career will develop over the next five years?
Percentage of teachers indicating ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ for each option (N = 3665)

Table 3.1: How do you envisage that your career will develop over the next five years?
Groups most often giving particular responses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>anticipated career paths</th>
<th>groups more likely to follow this path</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>continue in role identified in Q1</td>
<td>class/subject teachers, aged 20-29, with less than 5 years service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retire</td>
<td>headteachers, those working in other settings (special, PRU), aged 50 and over, with more than 30 years service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change hours worked</td>
<td>supply teachers, class/subject teachers, women, those aged 30-39, those with 5-9 years service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move into leadership</td>
<td>cross-school role, secondary, aged 25-39, with less than 10 years service, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take a career break</td>
<td>class teachers, primary, aged 25-39, with less than 10 years service, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move to employment outside education</td>
<td>supply teachers, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move to independent sector or another country</td>
<td>secondary, aged 20-29, less than 5 years service, minority ethnic, works in a secondary school with low attainment/SEN challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become a supply teacher</td>
<td>class/subject teacher, primary, age 60 and over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move to other work in the education sector</td>
<td>headteacher, other professional role, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become a headteacher</td>
<td>asst./deputy heads, primary, men, with 5-14 years service, works in secondary school with high attainment/SEN challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move supply to permanent</td>
<td>supply teachers, aged 20-24, less than 5 years service, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gain Excellent Teacher Status</td>
<td>cross-school role, secondary, aged 20-29, with less than 5 years service, minority ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become an AST</td>
<td>class/subject teachers, secondary, aged 20-24, with less than 5 years service</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The groups listed were identified using chi-squared tests which were significant at p< 0.01, and selecting those with adjusted residuals over 3. In some cases categories were collapsed where there were very few individuals in particular groups.
Table 3.2: How do you envisage your career will develop over the next 5 years?
Percentage of those in each professional role indicating ‘highly likely’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Role</th>
<th>Supply teacher %</th>
<th>Class teacher %</th>
<th>Cross school role %</th>
<th>Asst/deputy head %</th>
<th>Head teacher %</th>
<th>Other %</th>
<th>No prof. role identified %</th>
<th>All teachers %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continue in role identified in Q1</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retire</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change hours worked</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move into leadership</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a career break</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to employment outside education</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to independent sector or another country</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become a supply teacher</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to other work in education (eg ITT, consultant)</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become a headteacher</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move supply to permanent</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain Excellent Teacher Status</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become an AST</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No ‘highly likely’ response</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1923</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3: How do you envisage your career will develop over the next 5 years?
Percentage of those in each professional role indicating ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Role</th>
<th>Supply teacher %</th>
<th>Class teacher %</th>
<th>Cross school role %</th>
<th>Asst/deputy head %</th>
<th>Head teacher %</th>
<th>Other %</th>
<th>No prof. role identified %</th>
<th>All teachers %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continue in role identified in Q1</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>66.0</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retire</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change hours worked</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move into leadership</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a career break</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to employment outside education</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to independent sector or another country</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become a supply teacher</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to other work in education (eg ITT, consultant)</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become a headteacher</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move supply to permanent</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Become an AST</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain Excellent Teacher Status</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ response</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1923</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We focus here on three particular types of career trajectory that relate to the GTC’s research questions, and are associated with one of the more frequently selected responses to this question:

- the trajectories teachers envisage for themselves within the teaching profession (including continuing in the same role and moving into other, and in particular, leadership) roles;
- the trajectories teachers envisage that involve moving out of the teaching profession;
- the trajectories that involve more flexible patterns of work (e.g. supply teaching and part-time work).

Previous research has found that few teachers have a developed concept of ‘career’; they are attracted to teaching by the potential for job satisfaction rather than the prospect of promotion (Powney et al., 2003).

**Trajectories in the teaching profession**

By far the most frequently chosen option was ‘continue in role identified in Question 1’ – that is, the teacher’s current role. Almost 70% of teachers considered that it was ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’ that they would do this. Class teachers were more likely to indicate this course (75%), headteachers less so (64%), and supply teachers the least likely (53%).

In the previous chapter we identified a substantial group of class teachers without curricular or non-curricular responsibilities who had fifteen years or more years service, and who have either not sought or not gained promotion (N = 329). We were interested to see what this group intended to do in the future. Their responses indicated that, if ‘highly likely’ and ‘likely’ responses are combined, 64% anticipated staying in the same role, 34% retiring, 24% to change the hours they worked, 10% to become supply teachers, and 8% to move into employment outside teaching. Just 5% anticipated moving into a management/leadership role (1% ‘highly likely’, 4% ‘likely’). These data indicate, then, that there are a substantial group of teachers who do not see their career development in terms of promotion. Later in this chapter we will examine their responses in relation to factors that have limited or enhanced their career development.

We turn now to those who do seek promotion within the teaching profession. There are currently two main career advancement paths: one involves moving into management / leadership roles, and the other gaining promotion in teaching roles, as an Advanced Skills Teacher or an Excellent Teacher.

The role of Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) was originally designed with the idea that it would provide a career path for those who wanted to develop their skills as classroom teachers, and have recognition for this, rather than promotion necessarily implying a trajectory up the career ladder into management /leadership. It is described in the DfES Guidance (2006c) as ‘an alternative career route with the potential to earn a salary equivalent to that of many leadership posts’. The AST grade is open to all qualified teachers who want to stay as classroom practitioners. There are no

---

15 Chi-squared = 80.387, df = 6, p = 0.000
requirements relating to length of service, and a teacher does not have to have passed the threshold in order to apply for an AST post.

Those who indicated that it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would become ASTs tended to be the younger and less experienced teachers (Figure 3.2). Thus 14% of the 20-24 year olds said they might become ASTs, compared with 4% of those in their forties\textsuperscript{16}. This role was most often seen as a possibility by those with less than five years service (13% of that group indicated that it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ they would become an AST)\textsuperscript{17}.

The idea of Excellent Teacher status, while more recent, has a similar rationale in offering a possibility of advancement to those who want to remain in a teaching rather than a management role. The DfES Guidance on the Excellent Teacher Scheme states that the scheme ‘provides the most experienced classroom teachers a rewarding career route which is an alternative to Teaching and Learning Responsibilities (TLR) posts, the AST grade or a leadership group post’.

It continues:

Excellent Teachers have length, breadth and depth of experience, pedagogic excellence and coaching and mentoring skills of a high order. Their high quality teaching skills make them a role model for less experienced classroom teachers. (DfES, 2006d)

Teachers are eligible to apply only if they have been paid on point 3 on the Upper Pay Spine for at least two years. This would suggest that, in general, teachers would have to have around ten years’ experience before they could apply to become an Excellent Teacher.

It is, then, somewhat surprising to find that gaining Excellent Teacher status, like becoming an AST, was opted for more often by young and inexperienced teachers, though in comparison with the AST route, higher numbers of those with longer service indicated that this was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ (Figure 3.2). Of those with less than five years service, 11% said it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would gain Excellent Teacher status in the next five years, compared with 6% of those with 5-14 years service, and just 3% of those with more 15 or more years service\textsuperscript{18}. This

\textsuperscript{16} Chi-squared = 80.258, df = 6, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{17} Chi-squared = 175.492, df = 8, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{18} Chi-squared = 74.859, df = 8, p = 0.000
suggests that teachers may not all have a clear understanding of the criteria for becoming an Excellent Teacher.

While the Advanced Skills Teacher and Excellent Teacher routes are essentially progression routes involving staying in a teaching role and sharing good practice in a range of ways, the alternative progression route is to move into a leadership / management post. Before the introduction of AST and Excellent Teacher, this was the only form of promotion.

Altogether, 23% of the teachers in the sample considered it ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would move into a management/leadership post other than headship. A quarter of all class/subject teachers indicated that it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would move into leadership/management roles, as did a third of those who were already in such roles, and intend to continue to work their way up the career ladder.

In the light of the original intention that the AST role should provide an alternative route for those who preferred to develop their teaching roles, we were interested to see whether those respondents who were ASTs were as likely as other teachers with cross-school roles to envisage moving into management /leadership positions and headship. Of the ASTs who completed the survey, 29% anticipated moving into management/leadership other than headship and 5% anticipated becoming headteachers. This can be compared with 35% heads of department, year or key stage who said it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would move into (further) management/leadership positions, and 2% of this group who indicated that they might become headteachers. This suggests that the AST role is viewed by many ASTs as a step on the career ladder to leadership, rather than as a classroom alternative to the management/leadership route.

Powney et al. (2003) reported that minority ethnic teachers were more motivated than their white counterparts to seek promotion. Our analysis confirms this, with 33% of minority ethnic, compared with 23% of white teachers indicating that it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would move into a management /leadership role, and 15% of minority ethnic teachers (compared with just 5% of white) indicating that it was ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would become an Excellent Teacher.

The majority of those who considered it likely that they might move into a leadership/management post other than headship were, like those aspiring to become ASTs or Excellent Teachers, the less experienced teachers (Figure 3.3).
Figure 3.3: Length of service of teachers who indicated that it was likely or highly likely that they would ....

....move into a leadership/management post other than headship (N = 820)

However, those who envisaged becoming headteachers were spread right across the range of experience, with the largest concentration (41%) having between 5 and 15 years service.

Table 3.4 shows the characteristics of those who aspired to headship in primary and secondary schools. The mean and median ages are surprisingly high; Bright and Ware (2003) reported that the average primary headteacher had been appointed at age 39, and the average secondary at age 41. Those in our sample were already one to two years older than that, and will be older still by the time they achieve headship. Thirty percent of the primary teachers and 60% of the secondary teachers envisaging becoming headteachers were male. These proportions are similar to the current figures: 35% of primary headteachers are male, and 66% of secondary (DfES, 2006a).

Table 3.4: Characteristics of those who envisaged becoming headteachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>age mean</th>
<th>age median</th>
<th>length of service mean</th>
<th>length of service median</th>
<th>gender</th>
<th>male</th>
<th>female</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primary</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the previous chapter, we referred to concerns about the age profile of headteachers, and the potential crisis when large numbers take age retirement over the next decade. In this light, the numbers contemplating moving into headship take on a particular salience. We consider two scenarios. The first involves assuming that all those who said that a particular course of action was either ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ would take this course of action. Obviously this cannot be the case, because multiple courses of action were projected.

In this scenario, 4% of respondents considered it ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would become headteachers. The vast majority of these were (predictably) assistant and deputy headteachers; 27% of this group said it was ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’ that they would become headteachers. Thus in this sample 88 assistant/deputy heads anticipated that that they could move into headship in the next five years. In addition, a further 43 other teachers in various roles indicated that they could become headteachers. Thus overall, 131 teachers indicated that they might move into headship. However, 84 headteachers (34% of the headteachers in the sample) said that they anticipated that it was ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’ that they would retire, 31 (12%)
that they would move into other work in the education sector, and 18 (7%) that they would move into work other than education. Overall then, 118 (47%) of the headteachers in the sample indicated that it was ‘likely’ or ‘highly likely’ that they would leave teaching for other work or retirement. This scenario indicates that there will be 131 candidates for the 118 vacant headships in the sample, and given that the sample is representative, these could be the proportions of vacancies and candidates in the profession as a whole. This gives little potential for choice, but does offer a candidate for every vacancy. However, as we indicated above, the scenario assumes that all ‘likely’ and ‘highly likely’ courses of action do take place.

The second scenario involves assuming that only courses of action signalled as ‘highly likely’ take place. In this scenario, 49 teachers indicated that it was ‘highly likely’ that they would become headteachers, while 69 headteachers said it was ‘highly likely’ that they would retire, and a further 13 that they would leave teaching for other career paths. On this basis there would be only 49 candidates for every 82 vacancies – a considerable shortfall.

This analysis indicates, then, that while almost a quarter of teachers anticipate moving into (further) management/leadership roles over the next five years, the difficulties already experienced in appointing headteachers are likely to increase, as the number of teachers aspiring to headship does not balance the number of headteachers anticipating retirement or moving into other roles.

**Moving out of state school teaching in England**

In all, 21% of teachers indicated that in the course of the next five years, it was ‘highly likely’ that they would take one or more of the options that involved moving out of state school teaching in England, and a further 17% that it was ‘likely’ that they would do so. These options included moving into the independent sector or to teaching another country (seen as ‘highly likely’ by 2% and ‘likely’ by 4%); moving to other roles in the education sector (for example, in ITT, as a consultant, as an advisor), (considered ‘highly likely’ by 2% and ‘likely’ by 6%); moving into employment outside education (‘highly likely’ 3%; ‘likely’ 5%); taking a career break (‘highly likely’ 3%; ‘likely’ 6%); and retiring (‘highly likely’ 14%; ‘likely’ 5%).

The intention to move out of teaching was highly skewed across the age groups; Figure 3.4 shows the number of teachers in each age group who said they were ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ to leave state school teaching.

---

19 Note that 15 headteachers selected two different options involving moving away from schools as ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’.
The pattern shown on Figure 3.4 is not dissimilar to the age distribution of those shown in DfES statistics as going out of service or retiring, shown on Figure 3.5. Teachers have always left teaching right across the age range.

Figure 3.6 shows the percentages of male and female teachers who saw it as ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would leave state school teaching in England in the next five years. Unsurprisingly, a higher percentage of women in their twenties and thirties envisaged leaving, presumably to have children. Analysis of DfES statistics suggests that less than a third of these will return to regular teaching (DfES, 2006a).
The percentage of teachers who envisage leaving teaching seems high: in all, 21% of the sample indicated that it was ‘highly likely’ that they would leave teaching in the next five years, and a further 17% indicated that it was ‘likely’. Thus between 21% and 38% envisaged leaving. However, it must be remembered that over 15% of the sample were aged 55 and over, and a further 19% were aged 50-54. Through retirement alone, substantial numbers must leave the profession in the next five years.

Moreover, it is important to remember that the period under consideration is five years, not a single year. If, drawing on DfES (2006a) statistics, we add up all the full-time and part-time teachers who left teaching in the five years September 1999 – August 2004 (91,580 plus 29,150), this amounts to 29% of all full-time and part-time teachers; thus the 21% - 38% of teachers in the survey who indicated that they envisaged leaving is compatible with this figure. Moreover, the GTC sample includes supply teachers, who indicated in the questionnaire that they are more likely than other groups to leave teaching, so one would expect the wastage rate for the GTC sample to be higher than that in DfES statistics.

Table 3.1 showed that minority ethnic teachers were more likely than white to envisage moving into employment outside education, to move to other work in the education sector, and to move into the independent sector or to teach in another country. However, they were not, overall, more likely to leave the teaching than their white counterparts. Each individual who anticipated leaving simply indicated more of the options that involve leaving teaching as likely.

Those intending to leave were spread across all professional roles; the highest numbers were of headteachers and supply teachers; these are the two groups with the oldest populations (Figure 3.7), who were therefore likely to retire.

To summarise, the questionnaire data suggest that the number of teachers moving out of teaching, and their age and gender distribution, is likely to remain similar to the pattern over the last few years.

---

20 Wastage among part-time teachers is considerably higher than among full-time teachers (23.8%, 10.6%). However, it should be noted than in DES statistics teachers who move between full-time and part-time are included in wastage rates for each group. Overall (excluding the moves between full-time and part-time) the wastage rate is 9.2% (2003-4 figures, DfES, 2006a).
Supply and part-time teaching

As we have seen, ‘change hours worked’ was overall the option that was third most frequently selected as ‘highly likely’. This reflects both a general increase in part-time work and preference for flexible work in society as a whole (Beck, 1999; Storey, 2000; Bell and Bryson, 2005), and a particular increase in the number and proportion of part-time teachers. In 1985 only 4% of full-time equivalent teachers worked part-time; by 2004 this had risen to 10%. The proportion working part-time is higher still in primary schools (11%) and in special schools and ‘not in school’ (14%) (DfES, 2006a). The more limited opportunities for part-time work in secondary schools were noted as a factor that had limited career development by some teachers in the sample:

Lack of part-time work in secondary sector - if this was possible I would have returned to work much sooner.

In this survey, ‘change hours worked’ was most frequently chosen by supply teachers, class or subject teachers and ‘others’. Comparison with the GTC database suggest that a far higher percentage of the teachers recorded as part-time (29%) anticipate changing the hours they work than of those recorded as full-time (15%)\(^\text{21}\) (Table 2.10). However, it should be remembered that these data may be out of date.

We have already shown that supply teachers are older than other groups, and indicated that this is an option that many teachers take as a way of ‘down-sizing’ towards the end of their careers. Previous research has found that while some supply teachers are young teachers who cannot find permanent work or who want to travel, a large proportion are older teachers, and that they often work only in the school they retired from, or two or three ‘known’ schools (Hutchings et al. 2006). Figure 3.8 shows the percentage of each age group who consider that they might become supply teachers, and shows that while this attracts some people in all age groups, the proportion increases among the over-55s.

Figure 3.8: ‘I envisage that I will become a supply teacher’: percentage of teachers by age (N = 197)

The supply teachers themselves were the group with the highest proportion not indicating any of the options listed on the questionnaire as ‘highly likely’ (37%\(^\text{22}\), and the lowest proportion indicating that it was ‘highly likely’ that they would continue in their present role (24%\(^\text{23}\)). They were also the most likely group to want to

\(^{21}\) Chi-squared = 58.688, df = 4, p = 0.000

\(^{22}\) Chi-squared = 25.156, df = 6, p = 0.000

\(^{23}\) Chi-squared = 80.387, df = 6, p = 0.000
move into work outside education (14% ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’, compared with 8% of class teachers and just 3% of assistant and deputy heads)\(^{24}\). The age distribution among this group is reflected in their expectation that between a fifth and a quarter would retire in the next five years. Twenty-five percent considered it ‘highly likely’ or ‘likely’ that they would move into permanent teaching work; however, this included 77% of those in their twenties. Rather confusingly, some indicated that it was likely that they would become supply teachers. This may have been associated with their pattern of work; some questionnaires were returned with comments indicating that very little or no supply teaching had been undertaken in recent months, but it might be in the future.

### 3.3 Factors that enhance and limit career development

The previous section has shown what career changes teachers envisage making in the next five years: we turn now to consider the factors that impact on career development. Question 3 asked teachers to write in both personal and professional factors that were relevant. This was an open question: teachers were asked to write in two boxes, one labelled ‘factors that have enhanced my career development’ and the other ‘factors that have limited my career development’.

This question attracted a high response level for a write-in question; 85% of the respondents wrote some comment. Seventy-four percent of all respondents identified factors that had enhanced their career development, and 70% factors that had limited it; 59% wrote comments in both categories (Table 3.5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.5: Percentage of whole sample indicating factors that had enhanced and/or limited their career development (N = 3665)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identified factors that had limited career development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some wrote comments indicating that nothing had enhanced (50 respondents) or limited (85 respondents) their career development:

_I so rarely have time to reflect or have access to people who genuinely inspire that I can honestly say I recall virtually no factors that have enhanced my career._

These have been included in Table 3.5 as _not_ identifying any enhancing/limiting factors.

The same broad categories have been used in coding comments about both factors that have enhanced career development, and those that have limited it. Table 3.6 shows the percentage of teachers whose responses were coded into the same main categories.

Experience, professional development activity and qualifications, and professional encouragement and support were more often referred to as factors that had enhanced

\(^{24}\) Chi-squared = 25.657, df = 6, p = 0.000
career development, while personal factors and career structure were more often seen as having limited career development.

Table 3.6: Career enhancement or limitation: percentage of teachers writing comments in the main broad categories of factors that had enhanced / limited their careers (N = 3665)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>enhanced career development</th>
<th>limited career development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>experience</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional development</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal factors</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional encouragement</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>career structure</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses relating to enhancing and limiting career development will be considered in turn.

Factors that enhance career development
A quarter of the teachers in the sample did not write in any ways in which their career development had been enhanced, and a further 2% noted that nothing had enhanced their career development. Supply teachers were over-represented in both these groups (39% did not write any comment, and 3% said nothing had enhanced their career).

The comments have been coded into four main groups, each of which has been more finely coded into sub-groups:

- experience (48% of all respondents)
- professional development activity and qualifications (35%)
- personal factors (16%); and
- professional encouragement and support (13%).

In addition, smaller numbers wrote comments that related to career structure (3%), availability of opportunities (2%), and luck (1%).

Many teachers wrote lengthy comments that have been coded under more than one of these headings.

Experience
Almost half the sample (48%, 1743 respondents) indicated that their career development had been enhanced by their experience. Within the experience group, the most frequent comments (N = 1048) related to the teachers’ own work in school:

*Working at two very different schools has allowed me to develop my differentiation skills and also learn new ways of incorporating ICT in my teaching.*

*Opportunity to mentor NQTs. Opportunity to work with PGCE students and GTP students.*

*Given opportunity to become PE co-ordinator. It has provided me with lots of extra responsibilities, which I feel are helping my professional development.*
My actual teaching pupils from different walks of life, abilities, behaviours and backgrounds. I have been able to do extra-curricular activities at school, planned trips and excursions, have been in charge of Primary school links for MFL.

Being in a school in special measures for three years. ... Becoming involved in additional extra-curriculum activities in first few years – led to rapid promotion.

We have noted that overall, supply teachers were the least likely to believe that anything had enhanced their careers; however, several commented on the positive advantages of supply teaching experience:

Supply teaching enables me to reflect on what I want to do as you have more time. Can talk and relate to pupils more.

A further set of comments about experience (N = 737) related to the school. Typically they indicated that the respondent worked (or had previously worked) in a school with a positive ethos:

I work in a great school with good support and opportunities for training.
Support of colleagues. Happy working environment.
Working in a large school there is a staff with different strengths who can offer support in many areas.
Inspiring colleagues who model excellent teaching skills.

Other comments referred to experiences in educational contexts outside the school (N = 213):

Becoming a moderator and examiner for AQA.
Contact with other organisations involving the teaching of drama- i.e. London Drama.

Finally in this group, a few respondents referred to the positive effect on their career of experience quite distinct from their career in teaching (N = 84). This often related to the previous career of older entrants:

Age on entering profession, having gained valuable life skills in other walks of life.
Boredom in previous career.

A higher proportion of headteachers (57%) and assistant/deputy heads (56%) cited experience as a factor that had enhanced their careers than did other groups (Figure 3.9). Experience was noted by 46% of class teachers and only 33% of supply teachers.

Figure 3.9: Percentage of teachers noting experience as a factor that has enhanced their career development, by professional role (N = 3502)

In particular, headteachers were by far the most likely to refer to educational experience outside the school (19%, compared with 6% in the sample as a whole)
while assistant/deputy heads and those in a cross-school role were the groups who most often referred to their work experience in school. The age groups most likely to refer to their experience were the 25-29 and 30-34 year-olds (54%, 52%). Similarly, those with less than 15 years service more often referred to experience as enhancing their careers than those with longer service (for example, among class teachers with no special responsibilities, 45% of those with less than 15 years service referred to experience, but only 35% of those with more than 15 years service).

**Professional development activity and qualifications**
The second broad category of comments about factors that enhanced teachers’ careers referred to professional development activity and qualifications (made by 1291 respondents, or 35% of the sample). Most frequent in this group were references to general continuing professional development, not specifying particular qualifications or courses (N = 882):

*CPD opportunities have been plenty and this has had a significant impact on my current position. These opportunities were available readily in both institutions that I have worked in.*

*Outstanding mentor at my current school, NQT programme at LEA.*

A small number of teachers (N = 44) commented on the availability of funding for CPD as a key factor:

*Funding from [education authority] to do a postgraduate in educational audiology (part time course).*

Where teachers referred to specific courses these have been recorded separately: 122 teachers in the sample said that their career had been enhanced by doing a Masters degree, and 193 referred to named courses (the majority of which are run by the National College for School Leadership).

Some of the more recently qualified teachers referred to their initial teacher training:

*Excellent initial training for 4 years (BAEd).*

*Graduate teacher training programme was an excellent start. It enabled us to see a school year on-the-job.*

Some mentioned other qualifications or abilities (N = 124):

*Being more than competent in drama, art, craft and music have made me a very useful and appreciated member of staff in a small village school.*

---

**Figure 3.10: Percentage of teachers commenting on professional development as a factor that has enhanced their career development, by professional role (N = 3502)**
Headteachers and assistant/deputy heads more often referred to professional development as enhancing their career development than other groups did (Figure 3.10). Almost half the headteachers mentioned this in their comments, with 23% referring to named (generally NCSL) courses, and 5% to Masters degrees in Managing School Improvement, NPQH.

**Personal factors**
The third broad category of response, made by 16% of the sample (577 respondents), related to personal factors. Most common among these was personal motivation, or character (N = 416):

*Hard work, ambition, ability to get on well with other people and ability to communicate well.*

*My own passion for my subject and my own study and involvement.*

Comments of this sort were more often made by deputy and assistant heads (18%) and headteachers (15%) than by class teachers (9%) (Figure 3.11).

Other factors in respondents’ private lives were referred to by 182 respondents:

*Support from family/partner.*

*Having children - great insight into the development physically and mentally of children.*

*Being single - get to give more time to the job and further my development while others go home to partners/husband/children.*

The last of these comments reflects Coleman’s finding (2002) that women headteachers were less likely than men to be married or have children, and Powney et al.’s (2003) report that 32% of female headteachers live alone, compared with just 2% of male headteachers. Again, such comments were most often made by headteachers (10%) and deputy or assistant heads (7%) rather than by class teachers (4%) (Figure 3.11). While older teachers more often commented that their own character and motivation had enhanced their careers, factors in teachers’ private lives were most often referred to by those in their forties.

**Figure 3.11: Percentage of teachers commenting on personal factors that have enhanced their career development, by professional role (N = 3502) and by age (N = 3643)**

---

25 A small number of teachers referred to more than one of these categories of personal comments. Thus the total percentage who mentioned any personal factor is exaggerated by up to 2.5% on this figure.
**Professional support and encouragement**

The fourth broad category of response refers to professional support or encouragement (13% of respondents). Most comments in this category referred to support provided by school leaders or managers (N = 264), and such comments were more often made by teachers in any promoted post than by class teachers.

*An excellent headteacher in school offering advice and support. Discussions and training opportunities with other professionals.*

*I have only been teaching since September 05, but the support I have had from my school management has been excellent. I have been encouraged to go on training courses and involved in school development plan.*

Some also noted support from colleagues (N = 164):

*Working with a skilled and supportive year group partner.*

*Excellent support from teaching assistants and fellow teachers in the variety of schools I have worked in.*

Positive feedback from pupils and parents and from outside bodies such as Ofsted or the LEA (N = 80) were also noted:

*Good relationships with parents/good feedback.*

*Ofsted 'v good’ rating boosted confidence.*

*Awarded ‘Leading Science Teacher’. Funding from LEA to develop teaching methods/resources.*

Again more headteachers and assistant and deputy heads mentioned professional encouragement than did those in other professional roles (Figure 3.12).

**Figure 3.12: Percentage of teachers commenting on professional encouragement as a factor that has enhanced their career development, by professional role (N = 3502)**

![Bar chart showing percentage of teachers commenting on professional encouragement by professional role](chart)

**Other factors that enhance career development**

While the broad categories described so far account for most of the comments, there were also some specific groups which are of interest, each made by less than 5% of the sample. Some teachers referred to specific ways in which the career structure for teachers has changed, or to particular initiatives from which they had benefited (N = 114). The most frequent comments in this group referred to the pay threshold, performance management and the Fast Track programme.

*Gaining threshold and upper threshold. Valuing the role of a good classroom teacher!*
Opportunities available, e.g. I have been a Fast Track teacher and an AST in only 4 years of teaching. Early professional development bursary.

Development of career through opportunities which acknowledged my skills/successes/experience i.e. threshold status, successful schools special awards (financial).

Another small group of teachers (N = 62) said that they had benefited from the shortages of teachers in certain subjects, and as a result, the greater opportunities for promotion in these available to them:

Being in a shortage subject area (physics) - lots of career opportunities.

A few teachers (N = 51) acknowledged the role of chance:

Opportunities which have arisen ‘out of the blue’ – in the right place at the right time – ‘filled a gap’.

Factors that have limited career development

Teachers were also invited to note any factors that had limited their careers. The main comments referred to:

- poor experience (34% of all respondents)
- personal factors (28%)
- lack of qualifications and professional development (10%)
- factors related to the career structure for teachers (10%); and
- lack of professional support and encouragement (7%).

Experience

Just as with career enhancement, the most frequent category of comment about factors that had limited teachers’ career development was their experience (1242 teachers, 34% of all respondents). A wide range of comments have been grouped together as general poor or limited experience (N = 620). Some merely said their experience was negative, but did not give details:

I have been put off continuing my career as a teacher by the experiences I have had in the 3 years since I completed my PGCE.

Some teachers felt that they had not been able to gain the experience they thought was needed to progress, either because they worked in a small school which offered limited experience, or their school management was not ensuring that staff gained a variety of experience:

Only having taught one age group since joining the school.

A small school so limited opportunities to get into management or change subjects.

In some cases, the experience was of poor leadership/management (N = 240). Comments described school leaders who paid little attention to teachers’ development needs, either in allocating timetables or supporting them to participate in appropriate professional development activities:

Poor leadership unsupported in role. Lack of opportunities to teach another year group or key stage within school.
Stress due to SLT using observation in a pressurised way, feeling checked up on and not always supported. Would like to do more training but budget limits this.

Some noted the demoralising effect of working in a ‘failing school’ with poor management:

Poor management in my previous school, which led to the school entering 'special measures' and a major demoralisation of the staff as a whole.

Many respondents said their career development had been limited by their experience of excessive workload (N = 487). A number of consequences of this were identified. Some said they did not want to continue up the career ladder:

I have not yet pushed on to be a headteacher as I am not sure I want to give over my life completely to the job - it's bad enough as it is (two 15 hour days last week, rarely work less than 12 hours in a day).

Others explained that this was why they had become supply teachers:

The thoughts of all the paper work in recent years. This is why I have left full time teaching and become a supply teacher which I enjoying being.

And some were taking early retirement:

Increased paper work and successive initiatives leading to overload and early retirement at a time when I had a lot still to give to a job I love.

Poor pupil behaviour was seen as a factor that had negatively impacted on career development (N = 49):

Had to re-start NQT year as left first school because of the challenging behaviour of the children and the unsupportive school environment. Therefore started NQT year two years after finished training.

Increasingly the poor behaviour of children, and lack of effective sanctions, plus inclusion policy, have all affected energy levels.

Many teachers explained that they were not able to progress within their current school because of lack of staff movement:

Static senior management/curriculum leadership. Budgeting restrictions for teachers’ pay.

Poor experience was more often referred to by class teachers and those in a cross-school role (35-36%) than by headteachers and assistant/deputy heads (30-31%).

Personal factors

The second most frequent broad category of comment referred to personal factors (1023 respondents, 28% of the sample). The majority of these referred to factors in the teacher’s private life (N = 811), and most common among these was the decision to prioritise family responsibilities.

Having a child and wanting to look after it myself as much as possible.

Because of earning potential, putting husband’s career first and moving areas/countries.

Need to work in school close to home due to caring for relative.

Women far more often wrote comments about factors in their private lives than did men (26% of women compared with 7% of men). This echoes the findings of Powney
et al. (2003), who reported that ‘family circumstances, rather than gender per se, appear to be associated with the career progression of female teachers’ p.vii).

Some respondents referred to their own motivation or character (N = 248), suggesting for example, that they had lacked the drive to move into promoted roles:

Nothing other than perhaps not pushing myself to become a headteacher although I do not regret this and find being a Deputy Head the most stimulating role I have ever undertaken.

My own lack of confidence because I became a teacher in my thirties and still find it hard to believe that I have become a teacher.

Others indicated that they had not aimed for promotion:

I have always been happy to be a class teacher - putting all my energies into that. Promotion has never interested me or been sought.

The desire NOT to subject myself to the stress levels likely to affect headteachers.

Finally in this group, 62 teachers simply wrote ‘age’. These references were not to ageism, but simply to the inevitable impact of age on the career possibilities that appear attractive or feasible.

Supply teachers more often referred to personal factors limiting their career development than those in other professional roles (39%), and headteachers referred to them least often (22%) (Figure 3.13). The proportion of teachers referring to personal factors as limiting their careers increased with age up to the mid-forties, and thereafter fell slightly, with those in their fifties and sixties less likely to cite factors in their private lives, and more likely to cite age.

Among the older teachers, and those with longer service, personal factors were more frequently noted as limiting professional development than was experience (Table 3.6). This was particularly the case for those who had not gained promotion. The previous chapter referred to those with 15 or more years service who remained as

Figure 3.13: Percentage of teachers commenting on each sub-group within personal factors as having limited their career development 26 by professional role (N = 3502) and age (N = 3643)

Among the older teachers, and those with longer service, personal factors were more frequently noted as limiting professional development than was experience (Table 3.6). This was particularly the case for those who had not gained promotion. The previous chapter referred to those with 15 or more years service who remained as

26 A small number of teachers referred to more than one of these categories of personal comments. Thus the total percentage who mentioned any personal factor is exaggerated by up to 2.5% on this figure.
class teachers; the evidence here suggests that for many of them, this is because they prioritise their family roles.

| Table 3.6: Experience and personal factors limiting career enhancement: selected groups by length of service |
|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| | less than 15 years service | more than 15 years service |
| | experience | personal factors | N | experience | personal factors | N |
| supply teacher | % | 37.6 | 29.0 | 93 | 20.1 | 44.6 | 184 |
| class teacher | % | 39.0 | 20.1 | 1179 | 30.7 | 38.1 | 746 |
| promoted role | % | 34.9 | 19.5 | 467 | 32.4 | 30.2 | 834 |

There were gender differences within this group with 15 or more years service: men were far less likely to cite personal factors than women (18% of men, but 38% of women), and for men, experience rather than personal factors was the main factor limiting career development. There were also gender differences in the types of personal factors noted: women were very much more likely to refer to factors in their private lives (such as child-care, or following the husband’s career moves), while men more often referred to personal character /motivation than to factors in their private lives (Table 3.7).

| Table 3.7: Factors limiting career development: teachers with over 15 years experience |
|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| | men | women |
| % | % |
| personal character and motivation | 12.8 | 8.5 |
| factors in private life | 8.9 | 32.8 |
| age | 1.0 | 2.4 |
| N | 414 | 1441 |

Professional development and qualifications
The third most frequent broad category of comment was to do with professional development and qualifications (431 respondents, 12% of the sample). This included both comments about lack of qualifications and professional development opportunities, and about the poor quality of the development opportunities experienced. Comments quoted above showed the way in which some teachers related lack of professional development to poor school management.

*Not being told or notified about courses that may help my career development. Not being observed often enough to get feedback on what I'm doing right and what I'm doing wrong.*

This was the most frequent type of comment. Others commented on specific lacks, as in the case of this science teacher:

*Courses being cancelled – physics teaching for non-specialists – due to lack of uptake. I have to teach some KS4 physics with no background in it (No 'O' or 'A' level).*

A few of the older teachers felt that their lack of a degree had held them back:
Lack of degree (I could not have coped with a full time teaching and bringing up family at the same time as further study).

Some 4% of teachers attributed their lack of professional development to lack of funds in the school budget:

Lack of funding for training in my school over the last five years. We have a budget deficit.

Comments about poor quality of training or professional development (made by 2% of respondents) most often, but not exclusively, referred to initial teacher training or NQT experience:

Low self-confidence arising from appallingly bad PGCE course.

Poor NQT training year with little support from mentor/department.

Poor training opportunities or training poorly designed and delivered

Career and pay structure
Factors around the career (and pay) structure for teachers were noted by 317 teachers (9% of all respondents). This is one of the categories that was more often referred to as a career limitation than an enhancement (9% saw it as limiting factor while 3% saw it as an enhancing factor). This seems disappointing in the light of changes to the career structure to allow greater opportunities for those who wish to teach (including the introduction of the pay threshold and AST and Excellent Teacher roles), and more rapid promotion for those who wish to move into management through the Fast Track scheme. In this light, it is important to examine what specifically the teachers felt had limited their career development. There were four main groups of comments.

Teaching and Learning Responsibility payments (TLRs) featured in 100 comments. Of course, the effect of the change from Management Allowances to TLRs is not yet fully felt, as pay levels are protected for three years. Nevertheless, there were concerns both about loss of seniority, having acquired skills that were no longer valued, and reduced prospects of gaining promotion. Some teachers had lost their promoted posts as a result of this development:

TLR. will mean I lose my management points. I manage a highly successful behaviour support team in an EiC action zone. I feel resentful that after 25 years of dedicated service I will be returning to the salary I had when I started.

As a result they felt the skills they had developed were now redundant:

Heads of year posts no longer exist in my school due to introduction of TLRs. Therefore many of the skills acquired are no longer needed or used.

Others felt that the possibilities for promotion were now more limited:

Limited promotion opportunities due to introduction of TLRs and the resulting loss of management points.

A second small group of comments (N = 38) was specific to older teachers; they claimed that they were now perceived as ‘too expensive’:

Feel that once through threshold, schools can view one to be too expensive, experience is no longer viewed as an advantage due to financial constraints on schools.

Starting teaching at 42 yrs of age but coming in higher up the pay scale for previous experience of working with children. This was at a time when schools became
responsible for own budget. This prevented me moving on for promotion. Younger teachers with the same experience of teaching as me commanded less salary.

The third set of comments (N = 144) focused on the lack of career structure for two specific groups. Those working in small schools commented that there were few promotion prospects, or even prospects of gaining different experience, in small schools.

*Working in such a small school with only Reception to Year 3. There is not much possibility for movement within the school.*

This group also included comments about the issues around career development for part-time teachers:

*I work part time by choice but this has limitations with regard to career development.*

Some commented that their career had been limited by structural changes often linked to budgets (N = 50); this included school closures and amalgamations:

*Two schools becoming one. Many teachers applying for the same role. People at the bottom of the ladder i.e. me, will not be considered for roles that other people are already undertaking/are being paid for.*

*Integration of SLD into mainstream. Inept handling of closure/amalgamation of special schools.*

The ending of particular sources of funding was also an issue:

*School has had excellence money pulled - no funding, less opportunity. Also falling roll means no clear structure for staff development.*

Finally there were a handful of comments noting that the chances of rapid promotion for some teachers limited opportunities for others:

*Fast Track teachers being favoured for promotion over me despite their lack of concrete experience in school management.*

*Lack of support or active discouragement*

Comments about lack of support or active discouragement or prejudice were made by 262 teachers (7% of all respondents). Those in secondary schools in the highest quartile of ‘attainment/SEN’ challenge were particularly likely to make comments of this sort (10% of those in the highest quartile did so, compared with 5% in the lowest quartile). Such comments were also more often made by minority ethnic teachers (14%) than white teachers (7%).

Lack of support was generally linked to a perception of poor management (N = 124), and often noted lack of support in relation to professional development:

*Poor head of department. Inflexibility towards my childcare situation. Lack of funding for courses. Endless excuses why not.*

*Limited support from PGCE provider. Poor support by mentor and SLT in NQT year.*

Some comments noted bullying and active discrimination. While these were relatively few in number, we have quoted extensively from this group because it is an issue of considerable concern that teachers are encountering such behaviour from their colleagues. A small number of comments (N = 56) referred to active discouragement and bullying:
The head teacher for whom I work has treated all the staff at our school appallingly. She victimises people and lies to us. She has made quite a few staff ill and has treated me badly since I asked to go part time after the birth of my first baby. She doesn't allow anyone a say over anything and she is a bad role model as a teacher.

My direct line manager has limited my progress and has made working for her quite difficult by demanding unreasonable requests and overbearing us.

Similarly, a small number of teachers felt that racism, sexism or other forms of prejudice had limited their prospects (N = 54):

- Being female. I have encountered many examples of male prejudice from male headteachers and governors as I have progressed to become a head teacher.
- Being a male in a female dominated environment.
- Institutional racism - inability of certain colleagues to respect my expertise, being threatened by my knowledge and skills, marginalising my position, constantly having to justify my position, feeling of being isolated, frustrated, undermined.
- Because of ethnicity. White headteachers/middle managers in schools did not respect the ethnic minority teachers and people like me did not make any progress as a class teacher.
- South Africa, being not part of EU, therefore my 25 years of teaching experience of which 13 years as headteacher of 3 different schools plus my 3 degrees up to M.Ed. - no recognition - had to do QTS - now seen as a teacher with 5 years of experience in UK.
- Teaching is a severely ageist profession. I currently work in primary. I have also experience of secondary, sixth form college and adult Ed. ‘Non standard’ experience counts for nothing - in fact is a positive handicap.
- Policy of moving to younger managers e.g., line manager has 3½ years teaching experience in one school!!
- Staff resistant towards Fast Track .

A few comments referred to perceptions of potential prejudice, rather than actual experience (N = 28):

- Diagnosis of breast cancer and subsequent treatment 2 years ago. Feel that applying for new posts will require me to declare it and so count against me.

Other factors that have limited career development

There were some other small groups of comments that are of interest each made by less than 5% of respondents. Some teachers (particularly the older ones) felt that the nature of teaching had changed, and that the job was no longer enjoyable (N = 127):  

- Increasing inflexibility and standardisation of the curriculum; both content and teaching approaches. Insufficient value being accorded to classroom teachers and to early educators. Plethora of administration and bureaucracy stifles creativity and enthusiasm

Some younger teachers noted that they did not yet have sufficient experience to progress; this was more common in schools with high linguistic/socioeconomic challenge (N = 44).

Limited availability of jobs was noted by 92 respondents; many of these were supply teachers in their twenties:
Unavailability of jobs in area. Age, number of other NQTs looking for job. Limit on how much time I can work on supply with no induction completed – what do I do after 4 terms?

Not enough primary teaching positions becoming available in my area, too many primary teachers becoming trained!

Comments coded as ‘other’ (N = 59) included some specific references to lack of career guidance and information:

Insufficient information on a career path and which courses would enhance my chances of promotion.

3.4 Teachers’ careers: Summary

- Seventy percent of the sample considered it likely or highly likely that they would remain in the same role throughout the next five years.

- Both Excellent Teacher status and becoming an Advanced Skills Teacher were seen as attractive option by the youngest and least experienced teachers, rather than by those experienced classroom teacher who wish to remain in the classroom. The ASTs in the survey were almost as likely to want to move into leadership roles as the heads of department, year or key stage. Thus it appears that the AST role is seen as a step towards management/leadership, rather than as an alternative career path focused on teaching.

- While 23% of the sample considered it likely or highly likely that they would move into leadership roles, only 4% thought it likely or highly likely that they would become headteachers. In this sample, the balance between the number of teachers who saw it as highly likely that they would move into headship, and the number of headteachers who saw it as highly likely that they would retire or move into other work indicates a considerable shortfall in the number of candidates for headship.

- Some teachers across the whole age range indicated that they might leave state school teaching; this reflects the pattern of current wastage.

- Supply teaching and changing hours worked were attractive option particularly for some older teachers.

- The main factors that teachers reported had enhanced their careers were their experience (48% of respondents), particularly when this was in well-managed schools in which they were presented with a range of opportunities; their training and professional development (35%); personal factors including both motivation and factors in their private lives (16%) and professional encouragement and support (13%).

- The main factors that they said had limited career development were poor or limited experience (34%), including working in schools with poor management and limited opportunities; personal factors (27%), including lack of motivation and family commitments; lack of qualifications and CPD (10%); factors relating to the career structure for teachers (10%) such as ‘being too expensive’ at the top of the salary scale, and loss of status as a result of restructuring; and lack of professional encouragement and support (including discouragement and prejudice) (7%).
Chapter 4: Continuing professional development

4.1 Introduction
Chapter 3 showed that more than a third of the respondents identified continuing professional development (CPD) as a factor that had enhanced their career development, and 12% indicated that their career development had been limited by not having enough professional development activity, or the poor quality of the CPD activities they had engaged in. This chapter focuses on CPD. This has been an on-going concern for the GTC; their professional development advisory committee develops policy to enhance teachers’ CPD, and believes that CPD must be at the heart of a ‘vibrant and forward-looking profession’ (GTC website).

A number of the survey questions explored teachers’ experiences and views about their own professional development, and professional development in their schools. Question 7 asked teachers to identify the professional development activities they had experienced over the last 12 months, and the extent to which their professional development needs had been met. Question 8 listed a number of topics and asked teachers to indicate whether they would need professional development in each of these in the coming year. Question 10 asked teachers to indicate how far they agreed or disagreed with a number of statements about CPD, particularly in their current school contexts. Question 9 focused specifically on the use of performance data; teachers were asked how confident they felt in their use of performance data in various contexts, and whether they would like further training in relation to this.

All these questions were included in the 2005 GTC Survey of Teachers, though minor modifications have been made to the questions to fit the current context.

4.2 Findings

4.2.1 To what extent had teachers’ development needs been met?
This section reviews the extent to which teachers indicated that their professional development needs had been met in the previous 12 months (Question 7b). They were asked to select from three options: ‘Yes, fully’; ‘Yes, to some extent’; or ‘No’.

This question was also asked in both the 2004 and 2005 GTC surveys. Figure 4.1 shows the responses in each year.

Figure 4.1: In the last 12 months, do you feel that your development needs were met? Comparison of responses in 2004, 2005 and 2006

Figure 4.1 shows that the proportions of teachers indicating that their needs had been fully met or met to some extent has increased year on year. In 2006, 24% of teachers
indicated that their needs had been fully met, and a further 56% that they had been met to some extent; the comparable figures for 2004 were 20% and 57%. Similarly, fewer teachers in 2006 indicated that their needs had not been met (18%, compared with 23% in 2004). These differences are statistically significant.\(^{27}\) While this suggests a gradual improvement in the CPD activity teachers experience, it is still a cause for concern that 18% of teachers reported that their needs were not met at all, and less than a quarter felt that they were fully met.

There were a number of differences between teachers: those relating to age, length of service and gender were slight (but will be discussed briefly later in this section); however, the main differences relate to professional role and school phase. Figure 4.2 shows responses by professional role.

**Figure 4.2: In the last 12 months, do you feel that your development needs were met?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Role</th>
<th>Yes, Fully</th>
<th>Yes, To Some Extent</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant/Deputy Head</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross School Role</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Less than half the supply teachers considered that their needs were satisfied to any extent. This echoes other findings relating to supply teachers (e.g. Hutchings et al., 2006). Overall, headteachers and assistant/deputy heads indicated the highest levels of satisfaction that their needs were met (Figure 4.2), and among other teachers, those with promoted posts were more satisfied than class teachers. However, this also varied with school phase.

Analysis by phase showed that a higher proportion of primary than secondary teachers indicated that their needs had been met (primary: fully, 30%; to some extent, 56%; secondary: fully, 18%; to some extent, 61%). Teachers in other settings (nurseries, special schools and PRUs) responded in a similar pattern to primary teachers, though a higher proportion indicated that their needs were fully met (fully, 35%; to some extent, 50%)\(^{28}\). This pattern is consistent with the responses reported by Hustler et al. (2003) in a DfES-funded survey of teachers’ perceptions of CPD. Teachers employed to work across an LEA or through a supply agency felt that their needs were less well met (fully, 13%; to some extent, 47%) reflecting the lower satisfaction of supply teachers shown on Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.3 combines phase and role, and shows that a much higher proportion of teachers in each professional role in primary schools reported that their needs had been met (fully or to some extent) than in secondary; this was statistically significant

\(^{27}\) Chisquared = 73.7, df = 6, p = .000  
\(^{28}\) Chisquared = 163.325, df = 8, p = .000
in both phases\textsuperscript{29}. The secondary headteachers have been combined with the assistant and deputy heads here (and elsewhere in the report) because of the very small number of headteachers (26).

**Figure 4.3:** In the last 12 months, do you feel that your development needs were met? by professional role and school phase (primary and secondary)

Overall, women were more likely to report that their professional development needs had been fully met than were men (25%, 21%), though this is not statistically significant. It might be suggested that this is related to the greater proportion of women in primary schools. However, while in primary schools, women were more likely to report that their needs had been met than were men, the reverse was the case in secondary schools; the women were less satisfied than the men (Figure 4.4)\textsuperscript{30}.

**Figure 4.4:** In the last 12 months, do you feel that your development needs were met? by gender and school phase

Overall the responses differed very little in relation to length of service (see Appendix F). We examined responses from those who had had only one year’s service (or less than that) in September 2005. In general a higher proportion of these recently qualified teachers felt that their needs had been fully met (32%) or partly met (57%) than of class teachers in general (22%, 60%). However, recently qualified teachers who were working as supply teachers were very much less satisfied, with only 5%

\textsuperscript{29} Primary: \text{Chi squared} = 96.657, df = 6, p = .000; Secondary \text{Chi-squared} = 30.265, df = 6, p = .000

\textsuperscript{30} \text{Chi-squared} = 249.404, df = 9, p = .000
saying that their needs had been fully met, and 45% that they had been met to some extent (Figure 4.5).

**Figure 4.5: ‘In the last 12 months, do you feel that your development needs were met?’**

Teachers who at Sept 2005 had one year or less in service: class teachers compared with supply teachers (N = 242)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Type</th>
<th>Yes, Fully</th>
<th>Yes, to Some Extent</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recently qualified class teacher</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recently qualified supply teacher</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A higher proportion of teachers aged 60 and over indicated that their needs were fully met than of other age groups (31%); however, they were also less likely to answer the question, and a number wrote that the they did not have professional development needs since they were retiring in a matter of weeks or months.

There were no differences relating to school context.

### 4.2.2 Professional development activities in the past year

Question 7a asked teachers to identify from a list provided the professional development activities they had experienced over the last 12 months. The focus here was on types of activity rather than the specific content. Figure 4.6 shows the percentage of teachers reporting that each activity had been undertaken ‘frequently’ or ‘occasionally’.

In that different respondents may have attributed different meanings to ‘frequently’ and ‘occasionally’, these categories have been combined in subsequent analyses, simply showing whether the teacher said that they had experienced the activity or not.

The most frequently reported activity was ‘courses held on school INSET days’ (90%); however, it is perhaps surprising that this was not reported by every teacher. Next most frequent were ‘being observed by colleagues’ (83%); ‘taking part in school self-evaluation processes’ (81%); ‘collaborative learning with colleagues in my school’ (80%); ‘development / learning done individually’ (78%); and ‘participating in external courses’ (76%).

This question was asked in both the 2004 and 2005 surveys; however, the categories of activity listed have been slightly modified. This is the first time that ‘courses held in school on INSET days’ has been included. For those activities that have been included in each survey, overall responses have been at a similar level on each occasion, though the proportions indicating ‘frequently’ and ‘occasionally’ have varied (Figure 4.7).

In some cases the changing in wording appears to have elicited different responses. For example, in 2004 and 2005 teachers were asked to indicate whether they had participated in ‘action research’; 11% of those responding said they had done so in 2004, and 14% in 2005. After discussion in the steering group, it was decided to extend this category to ‘classroom or school based research’ in 2006; out of those – responding to the question, 27% indicated that they undertaken classroom or school-based research, a much higher proportion than had undertaken action research.
Responses about CPD experienced in the last year were positively correlated with those concerning whether CPD needs had been met, discussed in the previous section. While these correlations are statistically significant, all are weak; the strongest are

31 For full descriptions of activities as on the questionnaire, please see Appendix D.
32 Missing responses are excluded in this comparison
between CPD needs being met and having experienced collaborative learning in school\textsuperscript{33} and having attended external courses\textsuperscript{34}.

Figure 4.8 shows the pattern of professional development across school phase.

This pattern is broadly similar for the different groups. However, in comparison with other groups, a much lower proportion of the LEA/supply group reported that they had experienced each of the listed activities. Similarly, a much lower proportion of those who indicated that their current professional role was supply teaching reported involvement in each professional development activity than did other teachers. This can also be illustrated by calculating the total number of different types of activity that teachers indicated they had engaged in during the last 12 months. Supply teachers reported an average of 4.4 types of activity, and all other teachers an average of 9.1.

\textsuperscript{33} Spearman’s rho = .382, p = 0.000

\textsuperscript{34} Spearman’s rho = .381, p = 0.000
Overall, primary teachers indicated that they had engaged in slightly more activities than did secondary teachers; however, the mean difference for each professional role was less than one activity (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Mean number of different types of CPD activities reported by primary and secondary teachers with different roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th></th>
<th>SECONDARY</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mean no of activities</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>standard deviation</td>
<td>mean no of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class teacher</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross-school role</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assistant / deputy head</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>headteacher</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anova: primary p = .000, secondary p = 0.000

Figure 4.8 shows that in comparison with secondary teachers, those in primary schools more often reported participating in external courses (84% primary, 72% secondary), participating in collaborative enquiry (59%, 44%), and collaborative learning in a network of schools (70%, 51%), while secondary teachers slightly more often reported observing colleagues teach (76% secondary, 69% primary) and being observed by colleagues (90% secondary, 82% primary). Those categorised as ‘other’ – largely teachers in nurseries, special education and PRUs – were much the most likely to say that they had experienced training with professionals from other sectors (61%, compared with 37% of primary teachers and 26% of secondary).

There were also differences in reported participation in different forms of professional development related to professional role (Table 4.1). The low participation of supply teachers has already been discussed. Focusing on the other professional roles, headteachers and deputy / assistant heads were the most likely to indicate that they had taken part in each activity, and class teachers the least.

4.2. Professional development needs in the coming year

Question 8 asked about teachers’ development needs in the coming year. A list of CPD topics was provided, and teachers were asked to indicate for each topic: ‘I will need this’; ‘not sure’; ‘I will not need this’; or ‘not applicable to my work’. This repeated a question asked in 2005. However, a number of alterations were made to the topics listed, following discussion with the steering group. Some topics included in 2005 were omitted (school finance, fostering pupils’ creativity, teaching thinking skills). Some new topics were introduced (supporting pupils’ literacy, supporting pupils’ numeracy, Assessment for Learning, working with other professionals in school). The 2005 questionnaire asked about ‘school leadership training’ and ‘subject leadership’, while in 2006, ‘training for headship’ was specified, together with ‘other leadership training’. There were also some minor changes to the wording of some topics; these are set out in detail in Appendix E. These topics were grouped under three headings: teaching and learning; pupils’ development and behaviour; and leadership, management and team working.

Figure 4.9 shows the all the percentage of respondents who indicated ‘I will need this’ in relation to each teaching and learning topic.
Table 4.2 compares the most frequently selected teaching and learning topics in the 2005 and 2006 surveys.

Table 4.2: Teaching and learning CPD topics most frequently identified as needed in the next 12 months: 2005 and 2006 GTC surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>using ICT in teaching</td>
<td>using ICT in teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personalised learning</td>
<td>strengthening and/or updating skills and knowledge in curriculum subject areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strengthening and/or updating skills and knowledge in curriculum subject areas</td>
<td>addressing underachievement in groups of pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improving teaching and learning*</td>
<td>teaching pupils with special educational needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>45.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>addressing underachievement in groups of pupils</td>
<td>teaching gifted and talented pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This was not included in the 2006 questionnaire

‘Using ICT in teaching’ remains the most frequently selected, and ‘strengthening and/or updating skills and knowledge in curriculum subject areas’ and ‘addressing underachievement in groups of pupils’ featured in the ‘top five’ in both years. However, some changes in perception of needs are evidenced in the 2006 responses.

The greatest of these is that ‘personalised learning’ was selected by 54% of respondents in 2005, but only 37% in 2006. A factor that may have contributed to this
difference is that in 2005, the questionnaire included a section on personalised learning which immediately preceded the CPD questions. Thus respondents’ attention had been focused on the importance of this area. The way in which questionnaire design can impact on responses has been noted, for example, by McFarland (1981). While lower proportions of teachers in each professional role selected ‘personalised learning’, the reduction was most marked among class teachers (55% in 2005, 33% in 2006). It may also be that personalised learning was particularly prominent in policy and media discourse at the time of the 2005 survey, and the discourse has moved on.

Other differences from the 2005 responses were the increased proportion of respondents who opted for ‘teaching pupils with special educational needs’ (2005, 39%; 2006, 46%), ‘teaching gifted and talented pupils’ (40%, 45%), and ‘target-setting for individual pupils’ (31%, 38%). Again, this may relate at least in part to the structure of the questionnaire; in 2006, the CPD section was preceded by a section about addressing underachievement.

There were some differences between the responses of primary and secondary teachers. Primary teachers far more frequently chose ‘supporting pupils’ literacy’ and ‘supporting pupils’ numeracy’ (primary, 35%, 31%; secondary, 24%, 18%). Secondary teachers more often chose addressing underachievement in groups of pupils (54% compared to 42% primary). They also slightly more often chose target-setting for individual pupils’ (41% secondary, 34% primary); personalised learning (39% secondary, 35% primary), and Assessment for Learning (46% secondary, 42% primary).

There were some contrasts in the choices of class teachers and school leaders. Table 4.3 shows that while headteachers were far more likely to prioritise personalised learning, class teachers gave greater emphasis to curriculum subject areas, and to teaching groups of pupils with particular needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>class teachers</th>
<th>asst/deputy heads</th>
<th>cross-school role</th>
<th>head teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>personalised learning</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strengthening and / or updating skills and knowledge in curriculum subject areas</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching pupils with special educational needs</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching pupils with English as an additional language</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second group of CPD topics related to pupils’ development and behaviour (Figure 4.10).
In this group, ‘promoting pupils’ social and emotional development’ was more frequently chosen in 2006 (by 37% of respondents, compared with 31% in 2005).

Behaviour management was more selected by secondary teachers than primary (42% compared with 27%), but was selected even more often by LEA/supply teachers (43%) and by those teachers in other settings (mainly special schools and PRUs) (55%). It was a greater concern for class teachers than school leaders (37% class teachers, 24% headteachers). Raising pupils’ aspirations was chosen more often by secondary teachers than primary (51% compared with 35%).

The third group of CPD topics relates to leadership, management and team working (Figure 4.11).

Changes in wording to the leadership topics means that comparison with 2005 data are limited. The 2006 survey specified ‘training for headship’ and ‘other leadership training’, whereas the 2005 survey had listed ‘school leadership training’ and ‘subject leadership training’. Responses show that while around a quarter of all teachers are interested in leadership training, only 6% indicated that they would like ‘training for headship’ (Table 4.4). However, this is a slightly higher number than indicated in Question 2 that it was likely or highly likely that they would become a headteacher (4%). This is partially explained in that some headteachers indicated that they needed
training for headship, but even when these are taken into account, a few respondents have indicated that they need headship training who did not anticipate becoming headteachers in the next five years. A third of all assistant/deputy heads said they would like training for headship, and 7% of those in a cross-school role.

Table 4.4: Percentage of teachers who indicated that they need various forms of leadership training, 2005 and 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>school leadership</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training for headship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject leadership</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training for headship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The topics in this group were all more frequently chosen by those in leadership positions (including cross-school roles) than by class teachers. School self-evaluation was chosen by 58% of headteachers, 61% of deputy/assistant heads, 38% of those in a cross-school role, but only 20% of class teachers.

In summary, the most frequently chosen CPD topics across the whole of Question 8 differed by professional role and school phase. Table 4.5 and 4.6 show the three most frequently chosen for each group.

Table 4.5: CPD topics most often selected by primary teachers by professional role (N = 1765)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>supply teachers</th>
<th>class teachers</th>
<th>cross-school roles</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head</th>
<th>other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>school self-evaluation</td>
<td>school self-evaluation</td>
<td>SEN 50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.1%</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>ICT 42.3% and personalised learning 42.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>literacy</td>
<td>teaching SEN</td>
<td>teaching SEN</td>
<td>teaching gifted</td>
<td>using ICT and AFL</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.5%</td>
<td>pupils 51.6%</td>
<td>pupils 48.8%</td>
<td>and talented</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pupils 49.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: CPD topics most often selected by secondary teachers by professional role (N = 1422)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>supply teachers</th>
<th>class teachers</th>
<th>cross-school roles</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head</th>
<th>other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>school self-evaluation</td>
<td>school self-evaluation</td>
<td>SEN 51.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behaviour</td>
<td>addressing</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>raising aspirations</td>
<td>promoting social and emotional dev</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management</td>
<td>under-achievement</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.8%</td>
<td>addressing</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>using ICT</td>
<td>personalised learning 48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and curriculum</td>
<td>under-achievement</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.8%</td>
<td>raising</td>
<td>addressing</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>personalised</td>
<td>learning 48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and target setting for pupils</td>
<td>aspirations 55.0</td>
<td>under-achievement 53.7</td>
<td>ICT 56.8%</td>
<td>learning 53.8%</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Those recently qualified teachers (i.e. those who had one or less year of service in September 2005) on average selected slightly more topics than other class teachers (8.6, compared to a mean of 7.4 topics for class teachers). The highest number of topics was selected by the recently qualified teachers who were working as supply teachers. There were only 22 of these, and they selected an average of 9.8 topics. In this they differed from the overall pattern for supply teachers, which was to select fewer topics than other teachers an average of 5.4). This may relate to the fact that many of them were approaching retirement or retired.

The recently qualified teachers also tended to select a distinctive group of topics with a strong focus on individual achievement / underachievement (Table 4.7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>primary recently qualified</th>
<th>secondary recently qualified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teaching SEN pupils</td>
<td>raising aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.5%</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching gifted and talented pupils</td>
<td>teaching gifted and talented pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.2%</td>
<td>70.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>addressing underachievement</td>
<td>behaviour management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.1%</td>
<td>69.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supporting pupils’ literacy</td>
<td>addressing underachievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.1%</td>
<td>60.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>target-setting</td>
<td>teaching SEN pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>59.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were some significant differences relating to school context. The needs that were identified more often by teachers in the more challenging schools (the highest quartile of either type of challenge) than by those in schools with lower challenge were remarkably similar for primary and secondary and across both types of challenge (Table 4.8). It should be noted that these are not the most frequently chosen option, but rather those where the needs of these groups was significantly different from the needs of teachers in less challenging schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>attainment SEN challenge</th>
<th>primary</th>
<th>secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching pupils with EAL</td>
<td>Supporting pupils’ numeracy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting minority ethnic pupils’ needs</td>
<td>Supporting pupils’ literacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising pupils’ aspirations</td>
<td>Teaching pupils with EAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meeting minority ethnic pupils’ needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raising pupils’ aspirations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>linguistic socio-economic challenge</th>
<th>primary</th>
<th>secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching pupils with EAL</td>
<td>Supporting pupils’ numeracy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting minority ethnic pupils’ needs</td>
<td>Supporting pupils’ literacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching pupils with EAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meeting minority ethnic pupils’ needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

35 All those listed were statistically significant (in most cases, p = 0.000) using chi-squared, and had adjusted standardised residuals greater than 3.
The differences in percentage of teachers in each quartile selecting the various CPD topics is illustrated for secondary attainment/SEN challenge in Figure 4.12.

**Figure 4.12: CPD needs by secondary school attainment/SEN challenge quartiles:**

![Graph showing CPD needs by secondary school attainment/SEN challenge quartiles.]

There were a number of other CPD topics listed that could arguably be needed more by those in challenging schools, but where there were no significant differences relating to challenge: for example, teaching pupils with SEN, addressing underachievement in groups of pupils, behaviour management.

Teachers were also asked to write in any other areas in which they would welcome professional development in the coming year; 299 people wrote comments. Of these 68 added extra details in relation to something which was already listed in the question; 59 indicated that CPD was not needed (generally because of retirement); 17 teachers indicated that they were unlikely to get the CPD they wanted (10 of these were supply teachers, one was part-time, and the other cited school budgetary concerns). This leaves 81 comments which identified specific areas of CPD. Of these, 31 were to do with teacher careers: 17 teachers mentioned training for specific roles or for threshold assessment, and 14 said they needed training in stress management or work life balance. Forty-two comments were to do with teaching and learning; 15 of these were specifically about testing and assessment, 12 reflected new aspects of the curriculum or new roles taken on by respondents, and 15 were very wide-ranging including action research and comparative trips to other counties. The remaining eight comments referred to working with adults (mentoring ITT students and working with parents).

**4.3.3 Teachers’ views about professional development**

Question 10, like all the CPD questions, was also included in last year’s survey. It consists of a number of statements about CPD; respondents were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed with each. Figure 4.13 shows the overall pattern of response.
Overall the statements with which teachers most strongly agree were ‘I have initiated some of my professional development activity’ (83% agreeing or strongly agreeing); I am sometimes released from my teaching timetable for CPD (62%); ‘The courses I have attended outside the school are generally of high quality’ (61%); I would like (more) opportunities to work with other schools as part of my CPD’ (61%) and ‘I would like (more) opportunities to observe lessons as part of my CPD’ (59%).

The statements eliciting the most disagreement were ‘In my school, the budget for supply cover is adequate for teachers’ CPD needs’ (44%), and ‘I would like (more) opportunities to be observed teaching as part of my CPD’ (34%). These were the only two statements where more respondents disagreed than agreed.

These statements can be considered in three groups: the first group is about CPD in the context of the respondent’s school; the second group about respondents’ preferences in relation to observing, being observed and working with other schools, and the third focuses on CPD opportunities in the local area. These three groups are considered in turn, and responses compared with those from the 2005 survey. Figure 4.13 shows the responses to the first group in comparison with 2005 responses.
The statement which attracted the most support in 2006 was one which was not included in the 2005 survey: ‘I have initiated some of my CPD myself’. There were some minor changes of wording to the remaining statements which are set out in Appendix E; the most important of these was that the 2005 questionnaire included the statement ‘I am not released from my teaching timetable for CPD’. In order to avoid the mental gymnastics involved in disagreeing with a negative statement, this was changed to ‘I am sometimes released from my teaching timetable for CPD’. Figure 4.13 takes into account this reversal, and is comparing disagreement with the 2005 statement with agreement with the 2006 statement.

The most striking aspect of Figure 4.13 is the extent to which responses coincided in the two years. In 2006 marginally more indicated that ‘CPD is highly valued in my school’ but marginally fewer considered that ‘My school is a professional learning community’. The largest difference relates to the budget for supply cover for CPD. In 2006, 31% agreed that it was adequate, compared with 24% in 2005. While it is encouraging that more respondents now report their CPD budget to be adequate, a far higher disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement (44%), indicating that this is still a cause for concern in many schools. Similarly the Wellcome Trust (2006) reported that about a third of respondents to their survey about teachers’ views of professional development mentioned lack of funds as a barrier.
There were some differences in response related to school phase; primary teachers were more likely than secondary teachers to agree that their schools were professional learning communities (strongly agree: primary 25.1%, secondary 17.5%); that CPD was valued in their schools (strongly agree: primary 29.0%, secondary 19.2%); that CPD followed a process of evaluation of needs (strongly agree: primary 17.6%, secondary 10.6%); and that senior staff made decisions about CPD based on the needs of the school (strongly agree: primary 18.9%, secondary 8.4%).

There were also considerable differences related to professional role; headteachers and assistant / deputy heads seemed to have rather different view of what was going on in their schools than class teachers and those with a cross-school role. For this reason we have analysed primary and secondary separately here. Table 4.9 shows the mean scores for the statements relating to CPD in the school by role and phase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th>SECONDARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The budget for supply cover is adequate for teachers’ CPD needs</td>
<td>Supply teacher 3.02 Class teacher 3.31 Cross school role 3.24 Assistant/ deputy head 2.81 Headteacher 2.74</td>
<td>Supply teacher 3.44 Class teacher 3.35 Cross school role 3.30 Assistant/ deputy head 2.79 Headteacher 2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior staff identify courses relevant to the needs of the school and decide which staff should attend them</td>
<td>2.49 2.54 2.54 2.28 2.09</td>
<td>3.12 3.21 3.08 2.81 2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am offered CPD following evaluation of my professional development needs</td>
<td>3.23 2.57 2.42 2.08 1.86</td>
<td>3.33 2.94 2.75 2.30 2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My school is a professional learning community</td>
<td>2.33 2.33 2.19 1.88 1.66</td>
<td>2.78 2.49 2.38 2.02 2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am sometimes released from my teaching timetable for CPD</td>
<td>3.30 2.57 2.24 1.78 1.85</td>
<td>3.42 2.95 2.44 1.88 1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD is highly valued in my school</td>
<td>2.30 2.23 2.08 1.79 1.41</td>
<td>2.86 2.54 2.32 1.83 1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have initiated some of my professional development activity</td>
<td>2.37 1.98 1.80 1.46 1.30</td>
<td>2.74 2.10 1.82 1.57 1.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences in mean responses within each phase are all significant (p = 0 .000). The differences between primary and secondary are significant for class teachers for all statements except the school budget, but for one or two statements only in the case of each other role.

Table 4.9 shows that for every statement listed, headteachers and/or deputy heads show the strongest agreement, while supply teachers and class teachers are generally neutral or disagree. If the response to each statement is compared with that of teachers in the same role in the other sector, we find that primary teachers had a mean score indicating greater agreement in almost every case.

This is illustrated for just one of the statements on Figure 4.14, which shows the responses by role of primary teachers in relation to the statement ‘CPD is highly valued in my school’.
It shows that more than twice as many headteachers as class teachers strongly agree that CPD is valued. The pattern of response suggests that as teachers move up the career ladder, they gradually develop different perceptions, and may become less aware of the views of class teachers in their schools. This statement was, after all, not about their personal views of the value of CPD, but about the perceptions of the whole school staff. But equally, it could be argued that it would perhaps be hard for a headteacher who valued CPD to indicate that CPD is not valued in the school.

Figure 4.15 shows the secondary teachers’ responses to the same question, combining headteachers and assistant and deputy heads because of the small number of headteachers. Overall, the pattern is similar to that in primary schools: the more senior the respondent, the more they believe that CPD is valued in their school.

The same pattern applies to all the responses in this group. This disparity between the perceptions of headteachers and classroom teachers was also noted by the Wellcome Trust (2006) in their survey of teachers’ views of professional development. They commented: ‘Managers tended to be more positive about CPD than classroom teachers, and more likely to believe that their school encouraged people to make use of it’ (p.3).

The next set of statements in Question 10 relate to observation and working with other schools; responses are shown on Figure 4.16.
In response to these questions, fewer teachers indicated that they wanted more opportunities to be observed or to work more with other schools as part of their CPD than did in 2005; however, it is not possible to tell whether the difference reflects the fact that these activities now assume less priority, or whether they are in fact taking place to a greater extent.

In 2006 we included a new statement: ‘I would like (more) opportunities to be observed teaching as part of my CPD’. Only 27% agreed or strongly agreed with this statement; however, 36.9% of those with less than five years service, and 37.6% of the most recently qualified teachers (those with one or less years of service) thought this would be useful. Secondary school teachers were more likely to agree than primary (30.0% compared with 22.9% expressing agreement or strong agreement). It is somewhat perverse that twice as many teachers wish to observe as to be observed.

The final two statements in Question 10 refer to CPD in the local area. Figure 4.17 shows responses.
A version of one of these statements was included in the 2005 questionnaire. However, the wording was changed for 2006. The 2005 responses are included here to show the effect of this change. The 2005 questionnaire had the statement ‘The CPD provided locally is high quality’. In reviewing this question, we wondered what teachers actually had in mind when they responded, so chose to refer to courses rather than CPD, because this seemed more in line with the nature of CPD activities that teachers attend outside the school. This statement elicited a very much more positive response, with over 60% indicating that they agreed or strongly agreed. The first statement on Figure 4.17 was added for 2006, and so no comparisons can be drawn.

There is no clear pattern in these responses related to Government Office Region, and we do not have information about whether the schools were rural or urban, which might have shown differences in CPD opportunities available. Primary teachers responded more positively to these questions; this may be because their needs are more generic than those of subject teachers in secondary schools. In Chapter 2 we quoted a physics teacher who said that science courses for non-specialists were frequently cancelled in her area due to limited take-up.

4.4.4 Performance data and development needs

Question 9 asked teachers about their confidence in using performance data, and their training needs in relation to this. This question was asked in the 2005 questionnaire.

**Figure 4.18: Teachers’ confidence in the use of performance data: comparison of 2005 and 2006 responses**

(*No response* has been omitted, details of N for each question are in Appendix E)
Figure 4.18 shows that there was almost no difference in the proportions of teachers responding in each category between 2005 and 2006. Teachers’ confidence has neither grown nor decreased.

Just as in 2005, teachers were also asked to indicate to what extent they would like training in each of the three areas listed above (Figure 4.19).

Here there are some differences between the responses in 2005 and 2006, with a slightly higher proportion of teachers indicating that they would like training in 2006. Those who indicated that they were not confident were in each case more likely to indicate that they would welcome training; for each of the three statements between 77% and 79% of those who had indicated that they disagreed or disagreed strongly with the confidence statement then said that they agreed or agreed strongly with the corresponding training statement. Similarly for each statement, between 54% and 59% of those who had indicated they neither agreed nor disagreed with the confidence statement then agreed or strongly agreed with the training statement. However, around 38% of those who did express confidence also said that they would like further training.

**Figure 4.19 Teachers’ desire for training (or further training) in the use of performance data: comparison of 2005 and 2006 responses** ('No response’ has been omitted, details of N for each question are in Appendix E)

The most striking differences in these responses related to professional role: for example, 90% of headteachers, 87% of assistant/deputy heads and 75% of those in a cross-school role said that they were confident about using performance data for supporting pupils’ progress and for school improvement, but only 62% of class
teachers and 34% of supply teachers. But there were fewer differences by professional role in relation to wanting further training; around 45% of assistant/deputy heads, those with a cross-school role and class teachers said that they would like training, but only 35% of headteachers and supply teachers.

4.4.5 Overview of teachers’ views on continuing professional development

In order to draw together teachers’ views across the various CPD questions, we carried out factor analysis using all the questions discussed in this section (7, 7b, 8, 9 and 10) in order to identify key groups that explain the variation in the answers (e.g. general satisfaction with CPD). This reveals a large number of groups of answers, although each only explains a small proportion of the variance. For details of this, see Appendix C.

The first factor is linked to wanting more professional development across a range of areas. Regression analysis suggests that secondary school teachers and part-time teachers have a higher score than primary teachers on this factor. This means that secondary teachers recorded a greater desire for more professional development. Teachers with a cross school role, assistant/deputy heads and headteachers have a lower score than class teachers on this factor, indicating that they recorded a lower need for more CPD.

The second factor is related to positive experiences of CPD, having needs met, being in a school where professional development is highly valued and so on. This shows a similar pattern – teachers in secondary schools having a lower score on this factor (i.e. more negative experience of CPD than primary teachers), assistant/deputy heads and headteachers having a higher score on the factor (i.e. reporting a more positive experience of CPD). There is also an interaction effect: men in primary settings are significantly less positive about CPD than women.

The third factor is related to frequent experiences of CPD, in particular to courses on INSET days, collaborative learning in school, observing and being observed. Teachers with a cross school role, assistant/deputy heads and headteachers have a higher score than class teachers on this factor, indicating that they reported more frequent CPD activity. Supply teachers have a significantly lower score, indicating less frequent CPD. Men also have a slightly lower score than women.

Factor 4 is related to confidence in using performance data. High scores indicate little confidence and wanting training in its use. Headteachers, men, and teachers in secondary schools have lower scores than class teachers and primary teachers, indicating more confidence and less desire for training. Female part time class teachers in primary schools indicate the least confidence and most want training. Teachers with greater lengths of service have slightly higher scores, indicating less confidence.

Factor 5 is related to professional development outside the school, including external courses, undertaking classroom or school based research, training with professionals from other sectors and collaborative learning within a network of schools. Headteachers and ‘other’ teachers have higher scores than class teachers for this

---

36 Chi-squared = 417.624, df = 24, p = 0.000
37 Chi-squared = 48.598, df = 24, p = 0.002
factor, and assistant/deputy heads have slightly higher scores. (The ‘other’ group of teachers include those with peripatetic and advisory roles, working across schools.) Teachers in more academically challenging schools also have a higher score on this factor – perhaps due to the range of initiatives to improve such schools (e.g. EIC, London Challenge, special measures). Secondary school teachers have a lower score for this factor as do supply teachers and teachers with a longer time in service.

Factor 6 is related to teacher who want training for leadership, headship, and includes training in school self-evaluation. This is particularly high for assistant/deputy heads, and to a lesser extent, heads, teachers with a cross-school role and other teachers. Men have a higher score than women, and as length of service rises, this factor score decreases.

Factor 7 is related to more observation, being observed and working more with other schools. It is higher in secondary schools than primary schools, and for heads than class teachers, but lower for men and decreases as length of service rises.

Factor 8 is related particularly to a perceived need for CPD in meeting the needs of minority ethnic pupils and teaching pupils with English as an additional language, and also to numeracy and literacy. Primary school teachers and supply teachers have a higher score on this factor than secondary teachers and class teachers. Also, teachers in more academically and culturally challenging schools have higher scores on this variable. The longer a teachers’ length of service, the lower their score on this variable. Heads have a lower score on this variable than class teachers.

The large number of factors illustrates the diversity of needs and experience in relation to professional development across the teaching population. There is certainly no ‘one size fits all’ solution possible.

4.3 Continuing professional development: Summary

- The questions in the CPD section were all repeated from the 2005 survey, and some had also been included in the 2004 survey. Many of the responses were very similar across the surveys; however, year-on-year there is a statistically significant increase in the proportion of teachers who feel their professional development needs are being met, partly or fully, and a decrease in the proportion who said that they are not being met at all.

- There were some clear differences in the CPD responses that related to professional role; there was a gradient in response with headteachers being the most satisfied that their needs were met; having engaged in the most different types of CPD activity; and being the most confident that CPD was valued in their school and taken into account in decision-making, while class teachers were less satisfied that their needs had been met, had experienced less different types of CPD activity; and were less confident that CPD was valued and taken into account in their schools.

- Supply teachers were the least likely of all to feel that their professional development needs had been met and to have participated in CPD activities in the last year. However, this did not necessarily result in them indicating the highest level of needs for the year ahead, because some of them are near retirement and do not see CPD as important in their particular situations.
• The least satisfied group of all were the supply teachers who entered service during the 2004-5 school year. They had participated in very little professional development activity, and were anxious to have more.

• The CPD topics that teachers most frequently indicated they needed in the next 12 months were similar to those last year, with ‘using ICT in teaching’ being the most frequently selected of all, and among the top three for all but the most recently qualified teachers.

• In comparison with last year, more teachers indicated that they would like CPD in addressing underachievement in groups of pupils, teaching pupils with special educational needs, and teaching gifted and talented pupils. However, it is possible that this was an effect of the questionnaire construction, where a question on these topics immediately preceded the CPD section.

• The question about confidence in the use of performance data, and ICT for analysing performance data, elicited almost identical responses to last year. However, in the 2006 questionnaire, a slightly higher percentage of teachers indicated that they needed training in these areas than did so in 2005, and this included around three-quarters of those who had said they lacked confidence.
Chapter 5: Equality

5.1 Introduction
The questions in this chapter were new to the survey this year and were framed in the light of the GTC’s broad research question “What is teachers’ understanding of equality?” Teachers were asked which aspects of equality they thought were most important in particular contexts; whether they had experienced equalities training; whether they understood the implications for classroom practice; and whether their school had policies relating to each aspect of equality.

5.2 Findings

5.2.1 Priorities for the GTC in relation to pupils
In Question 11 teachers were asked to select up to three aspects of equality that they felt were most important for the GTC to focus on in relation to pupils, and in relation to teacher employment. Because we were only asking teachers to select three options, we have to remember that these are relative priorities. Selecting one aspect inevitably meant excluding another.

A small number of teachers wrote comments in relation to the questions discussed in this chapter. None of the questions invited comments, but 245 teachers wrote them. While we refer to some that are of interest, the numbers making any particular point are in all cases less than 20. Thus a few teachers indicated that they felt uncomfortable with prioritising aspects of equality:

What a bizarre question. How can you value one above the other?

Others argued that they were all important

If there is equality then all these aspects are equally important!!

All categories surely this goes without saying.

A few rejected the focus on equality

I don't feel this has any relevance. I am against employment of certain demographic sections just to ensure a certain % are represented within a given community. I take every person on their merits.

There is too much emphasis on equality rather than quality.

One argued that the GTC’s focus should be elsewhere:

Is this important? Behaviour is the single factor that needs to be addressed! Good behaviour allows lessons to be taught. Pupils will then learn more effectively but whilst you have media pushing poor role models what have the young got for a role model!

Nevertheless, 99.5% responded to the question. Figure 5.1 shows the aspects of equality that teachers felt were most important for the GTC to focus on in relation to pupils. Overall, they selected social class most often (61% of teachers selected social class as one of the most important areas for the GTC to focus on), followed by race/ethnicity (59%) and gender (56%). The least selected aspects of equality were age (14%) and sexual orientation (10%).
Table 5.1 What aspect(s) of equality do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? Equality in relation to pupils (N=3665)

The pattern of response was very similar for all groups: Table 5.1 and 5.2 show the responses of primary and secondary teachers by professional role.

Table 5.1 What aspect(s) of equality in relation to pupils do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? Primary teachers’ responses by professional role (N=1721)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>supply teacher</th>
<th>class teacher</th>
<th>cross-school role</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>race/ethnicity</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>race/ethnicity</td>
<td>59.4</td>
<td>social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social class</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>social class</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>gender</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disability</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>disability</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>religion</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>age</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 What aspect(s) of equality in relation to pupils do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? Secondary teachers’ responses by professional role (N=1372)

The tables show that for every group social class, gender and race were the most frequently selected aspects of equality (though not necessarily in this order), followed by disability and religion. The least important aspects were sexual orientation and age; more primary teachers selected age, while in secondary schools sexual orientation
orientation was more often selected than age. Sexual orientation was significantly more often selected by secondary teachers (16%) than primary (4%).

In the settings grouped together as ‘other’, which included special schools, PRUs and nurseries, the priorities were slightly different. Table 5.3 shows that disability was the most frequently chosen priority, chosen by 71% of all teachers in this group. Disability was also more frequently chosen by those in the professional roles that we have grouped together as ‘other’; many of the teachers in this group had roles working across schools, often in relation to special needs.

There were a number of differences in response that appeared to relate to teachers’ personal characteristics or the contexts in which they were teaching. These same patterns occurred in each of the questions about equality discussed in this chapter.

There were differences according to teacher ethnicity; a higher proportion of minority ethnic teachers selected race/ethnicity than white teachers (54% of white teachers selected this as important compared with 75% of minority ethnic teachers).

Those teachers with less than five years service selected race/ethnicity more often than those with longer service (60% selected race/ethnicity compared with, for example, 48% of teachers with 20-24 years service). This may reflect the greater likelihood of younger and more recently qualified teachers working in inner-city areas where there is greater ethnic diversity. Similarly, teachers in London were significantly more likely to say that race should be a priority (68% of those in London compared with 54% overall).

Perhaps unsurprisingly the level of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge of the school was a significant factor in answers around race/ethnicity. Primary teachers in schools with high levels of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge more often selected race/ethnicity.

---

38 Chi-squared = 133.505, df = 1, p = 0.000
39 Chi-squared = 18.559, df = 1, p = 0.000
40 Chi-squared = 7.488, df = 1, p = 0.005
41 Chi-squared = 24.805, df = 7, p = 0.002
42 Chi-squared = 51.341, df = 9, p = 0.000
ethnicity (72% of those working in schools in the highest quartile compared with 53% of those in schools in the lowest quartile). The same pattern was found in secondary schools. Teachers in secondary schools with higher linguistic/socioeconomic challenge were also more likely to select religion as an aspect the GTC should focus on. Religion/belief was selected by 30% of teachers in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic compared with 16% in the lowest quartile.

There were also some significant differences relating to level of attainment/SEN challenge. Primary teachers in schools with high attainment/SEN challenge were more likely to identify social class as a priority for the GTC (64% in the highest quartile, 51% in the lowest).

More women than men selected disability as important (44% of female teachers selected this compared with 35% of men). This effect is not simply due to a higher proportion of females in special schools, as it persisted when a logistic regression was run (see Appendix C).

5.2.2 Priorities for the GTC in relation to teacher employment

Teachers’ priorities in terms of teacher employment were markedly different to those relating to pupils. Here age was felt to be the most important equalities issue (67%). This is an area in which the GTC has sponsored some research. It focused on the ways in which the experience and expertise of teachers in the 45+ age range can be supported and drawn on systematically and effectively (Wilkins et al., 2004).

The next most frequently selected aspects were gender (59%) and race and ethnicity (46%). The least frequently chosen aspects were social class (20% in contrast with 61% of teachers who selected it as important in relation to pupils), religion/belief (18%) and sexual orientation (13%).

Figure 5.2: What aspect(s) of equality in relation to teacher employment do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? (N=3665)

---

43 Chi-squared = 51.597, df=3, p=0.000
44 Chi-squared = 24.872, df=3, p=0.000
45 Chi-squared = 24.872, df=3, p=0.000
46 Chi-squared = 21.317, df=3, p=0.000
47 Chi-squared = 16.245, df=1, p=0.000
There was remarkable unanimity in this across different groups of teachers. Tables 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 show the pattern of responses by phase and professional role. The only group where age did not emerge as the main priority were the secondary headteachers, and the numbers were so small (N = 29) that no conclusion can be drawn from this. As with the priorities in relation to pupils, disability assumed greater importance in the responses of those who teach in special schools, PRUs and nurseries (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.4: What aspect(s) of equality in relation to teacher employment do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? **Primary** teachers’ responses by professional role (N=1721)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>supply teacher</th>
<th>class teacher</th>
<th>cross-school role</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>55.6 age</td>
<td>60.8 age</td>
<td>65.0 age</td>
<td>60.2 age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>54.3 gender</td>
<td>54.4 gender</td>
<td>53.7 gender</td>
<td>58.4 gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>race/ethnicity</td>
<td>32.1 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>43.9 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>38.9 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>39.8 race/ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disability</td>
<td>22.2 disability</td>
<td>27.2 disability</td>
<td>29.6 disability</td>
<td>31.1 disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social class</td>
<td>16.0 religion</td>
<td>20.6 social class</td>
<td>15.3 social class</td>
<td>18.6 social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>14.8 social class</td>
<td>16.0 religion</td>
<td>14.3 religion</td>
<td>14.3 religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
<td>6.2 sexual orientation</td>
<td>9.1 sexual orientation</td>
<td>13.3 sexual orientation</td>
<td>9.3 sexual orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.5: What aspect(s) of equality in relation to teacher employment do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? **Secondary** teachers’ responses by professional role (N=1372)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>supply teacher</th>
<th>class teacher</th>
<th>cross-school role</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>72.4 age</td>
<td>58.1 age</td>
<td>59.6 age</td>
<td>64.8 race/ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>55.2 gender</td>
<td>49.9 gender</td>
<td>50.1 gender</td>
<td>50.8 age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>race/ethnicity</td>
<td>51.7 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>38.9 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>34.1 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>41.4 disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disability</td>
<td>27.6 disability</td>
<td>27.4 disability</td>
<td>26.9 disability</td>
<td>26.6 gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social class</td>
<td>24.1 social class</td>
<td>19.9 social class</td>
<td>18.8 social class</td>
<td>15.6 social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
<td>10.3 sexual orientation</td>
<td>13.4 religion</td>
<td>13.7 sexual orientation</td>
<td>13.3 religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>6.9 religion</td>
<td>12.5 sexual orientation</td>
<td>13.5 religion</td>
<td>8.6 sexual orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6: What aspect(s) of equality in relation to teacher employment do you think are currently the most important for the GTC to focus on? **Special, PRU and nursery** teachers’ responses by professional role (N=145)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>class teacher</th>
<th>cross-school role</th>
<th>asst/deputy head</th>
<th>head teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>60.3 age</td>
<td>78.3 age</td>
<td>65.4 age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>52.1 disability</td>
<td>56.5 gender</td>
<td>50.0 gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>race/ethnicity</td>
<td>41.1 gender</td>
<td>52.2 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>50.0 race/ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disability</td>
<td>30.1 race/ethnicity</td>
<td>43.5 disability</td>
<td>42.3 disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social class</td>
<td>19.2 religion</td>
<td>26.1 religion</td>
<td>19.2 religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>17.8 sexual orientation</td>
<td>21.7 sexual orientation</td>
<td>19.2 sexual orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexual orientation</td>
<td>17.8 social class</td>
<td>13.0 social class</td>
<td>15.4 social class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Just as in the previous section, the variations in the data relate to teachers’ personal characteristics and their school contexts.

Although age was high on the list of each group, headteachers selected age least often as an area that the GTC should be focussing (52% of headteachers selected age compared with 60% of class teachers and 67% of supply teachers)\(^\text{48}\). This may be because they have managed to gain seniority themselves and therefore do not feel that their age has been a barrier to their success. It was the longest serving teachers who cited age as an important issue (67% of teachers with more than 35 years service selected this compared with 54% of teachers with less than 5 years service)\(^\text{49}\). In Chapter 3, age was described as a factor that limited teachers’ careers; some of the references were not specific, but others indicated that being paid at the top of the scale made them ‘too expensive to employ’, and some suggested that younger teachers were favoured for promotion.

More women than men selected gender as an important aspect of equality in relation to teacher employment (53% of female teachers as opposed to 44% of male teachers)\(^\text{50}\). Chapter 3 showed that many women find that their family responsibilities are not compatible with the workload in teaching, especially in more senior roles.

Race and ethnicity was selected by 46% of teachers overall. Answers to this section were in line with answers given in the first part of Question 11 relating to pupils, and showed similar patterns of priorities. Minority ethnic teachers selected race/ethnicity much more often (83% selected this as important) than white teachers (39%)\(^\text{51}\). Teachers with less than five years service selected race/ethnicity (45%) more often than those with longer experience\(^\text{52}\). Race was again an important issue for teachers in schools with high linguistic/socioeconomic challenge. It was selected by 55% of secondary teachers in the highest quartile, compared with 36% in the lowest\(^\text{53}\), and a similar pattern was found among primary teachers. It was also more often selected by teachers in London than those in other regions (53% in London compared with 40% overall)\(^\text{54}\). This reinforces earlier findings in relation to pupils that teachers in multicultural settings place a higher priority on race/ethnicity as an aspect of equality than teachers working in more monocultural contexts.

Disability was selected by 33% of teachers; this was particularly significant to teachers working in special needs related roles either in terms of setting (special schools, nurseries, pupil referral units etc) or teachers whose roles have been categorised as ‘other’, many of whom work across schools supporting pupils with particular needs. (41% of ‘other’ teachers selected disability compared to 28% of class teachers\(^\text{55}\) and 41% of teachers in other settings (special schools, PRUs and nurseries) selected disability as important in relation to teacher employment compared to 28% in primary and secondary schools\(^\text{56}\).

\(^{48}\) Chi-squared = 16.099, df = 5, p=0.007  
\(^{49}\) Chi-squared = 38.320, df = 8, p=0.000  
\(^{50}\) Chi-squared = 21.978, df = 1, p=0.000  
\(^{51}\) Chi-squared = 88.071, df = 1, p=0.000  
\(^{52}\) Chi-squared = 22.234, df = 8, p=0.004  
\(^{53}\) Chi-squared = 42.922, df = 3, p=0.000  
\(^{54}\) Chi-squared = 47.651, df = 9, p = 0.000  
\(^{55}\) Chi-squared = 16.009, df = 5, p =0 .007  
\(^{56}\) Chi squared = 14.923, df=3, p=0.002
5.2.3 Equality training

Question 12a asked teachers whether they had experienced training in these aspects of equality. Half the sample did not indicate that they had had training in any of these areas, 18% in just one aspect, and the remaining 32% in more than one aspect (Table 5.7).

### Table 5.7: Have you participated in training addressing different aspect of equality? (N = 3665)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% of respondents</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no training</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training in just 1 aspect</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 aspects</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 aspects</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 aspects</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 aspects</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 aspects</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all 7 aspects</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this very basic question we cannot say anything about the length or depth of the training, but it seems astonishing that so few teachers reported that they had experienced training. There were no significant differences in this by age or length of service. Some respondents wrote notes indicating that the training they had experienced was not recent:

- Not in last 15 years.
- Only at university.

There were differences by professional role, with headteachers the most likely to have received training. This pattern was the same in each school phase (Figure 5.3).

### Figure 5.3: Participation in training addressing aspects of equality: the number of aspects addressed by professional role (N = 3502)

There were also significant differences by school phase. Teachers working through LEAs or supply agencies had had the least training, and those in special schools,

---

57 Chi-squared = 205.542, df=16, p= 0.000
58 Chi-squared = 66.584, df=12, p = 0.000
PRUs and nurseries the most. More of the primary teachers than secondary had had some training\textsuperscript{59} (Figure 5.4).

**Figure 5.4: Participation in training addressing aspects of equality: the number of aspects addressed by school phase (N = 3502)**

Those in primary schools in the higher quartiles of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge were more likely to have had equality training than those in the lower quartiles\textsuperscript{60}; however, this did not apply to those working in primary schools with high attainment/socioeconomic challenge, or to those working in challenging secondary schools.

The aspects of equality in which teachers had most often participated in training were disability (30%), gender (30%), and race/ethnicity (28%). Fewer teachers said that they had taken part in training addressing social class (9%), age (6%) and sexual orientation (6%) (see Figure 5.5). These overall findings are in marked contrast to teachers’ stated equalities priorities that placed social class as most important in relation to pupils, and age as most important in relation to teacher employment.

**Figure 5.5 Have you participated in training addressing each aspects of equality listed? (N=3665)**

The patterns of who had experienced training in each specific aspect of equality were generally similar to those for who had experienced any training at all, described above: Headteachers were the most likely to have participated in training and supply

\textsuperscript{59} Chi-squared = 238.147, df = 35, p = 0.000

\textsuperscript{60} Chi-squared = 27.404, df=12, p = 0.007
teachers the least. Similarly, a higher proportion of teachers in other settings (special/PRU/nursery) have generally participated in training in each different aspect of equality in comparison with primary and secondary teachers.

A much higher proportion of teachers in other settings have received training in disability (56% of them have participated in training compared with 24% of secondary school teachers).\textsuperscript{61} Additionally a higher proportion of the longest serving teachers have received training in disability than those with less than five years service (39% of teachers with 30-34 years service had received training compared with 27% of teachers with less than 5 years service).\textsuperscript{62}

In terms of race and ethnicity, a higher proportion of both the shortest serving and the longest serving teachers have participated in training (32% of teachers with less than five years service and of those with 35 years or more years of service, compared with 24% of teachers with 20-24 years service).\textsuperscript{63} This may represent changes in patterns of initial teacher training and CPD.

Teachers in schools with high levels of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge more often reported participated in training in race/ethnicity. In the secondary sector, 40% of those working in the highest quartile of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge had had training, in comparison with 18% in the lowest quartile.\textsuperscript{64} Similarly, in primary schools, 46% of those in the highest challenge quadrant had participated in training compared with 26% in the lowest.\textsuperscript{65} A higher percentage of those in secondary schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge had participated in race/equality training (32%) than in all other quartiles (21-22%).\textsuperscript{66} However, this was not the case in primary schools with high attainment/SEN challenge. Teachers in London were more likely to have experienced race equality training than those in other regions (44%, compared with 28% overall).\textsuperscript{67}

\textbf{5.2.3 The implications for classroom practice}

Question 12b asked teachers to select from the options ‘yes’, ‘to some extent’ and ‘no’ to indicate whether they understood the implications for classroom practice of each aspect of equality.

A third of the respondents did not respond ‘yes’ in relation to any aspect of equality. This included 18% of headteachers and 49% of supply teachers, with those in other roles in the stepped pattern related to seniority that we have described elsewhere.\textsuperscript{68} Clearly overall, the headteachers were the most confident of their understanding, but it is worrying that 18% of headteachers did not feel sufficiently confident to say ‘yes’ in relation to any aspect (i.e. they selected ‘no’ or ‘to some extent’, or did not respond).

\textsuperscript{61} Chi-squared = 82.978, df = 6, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{62} Chi-squared = 42.233, df = 16, p = 0.003
\textsuperscript{63} Chi-squared = 48.383, df = 16, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{64} Chi-squared = 57.557, df = 6, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{65} Chi-squared = 61.978, df = 6, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{66} Chi-squared = 16.318, df = 6, p = 0.012
\textsuperscript{67} Chi-squared = 76.811, df = 18, p = 0.000
\textsuperscript{68} Chi-squared = 170.278, df = 28, p = 0.000
That the supply teachers indicated the least confidence in their understanding of the implications for classroom practice is consistent with the general picture of lack of professional development activity for this group.

Just 7% of respondents answered ‘no’ or gave no response in every case (this included 5% of headteachers, 7% of class teachers and 16% of supply teachers).

At the other extreme, 17% of the respondents answered ‘yes’ in relation to all the listed aspects of equality, indicating an understanding of the implications for classroom practice of each aspect of equality. This included a third of the headteachers in the sample, and just 12% of supply teachers.

Figure 5.6 shows responses in relation to each aspect of equality.

**Figure 5.6 Do you understand the implications for classroom practice in relation to each aspect of equality listed here?**

![Figure 5.6](image)

There were significant differences by school phase: the teachers in other settings (special/PRU/nursery) indicated that they understood the implications of more aspects of equality than those in primary, who in turn indicated understanding more than secondary; LEA/supply teachers indicated the least understanding. Even in relation to sexual orientation where the fewest teachers indicated that they understood the implications for classroom practice, more teachers in other settings selected ‘yes’ than other teachers (38% of teachers in other setting ticked ‘yes’ compared to 23% in primary).

In both primary and secondary schools, a higher proportion of women than men indicated that they understood the implications for classroom practice of each of the aspects of equality, with the exception of sexual orientation among primary teachers (Figure 5.7).

---

69 Anova, p = 0.000
70 Chi-squared = 41.493, df=9, p=.000
In relation to each aspect of equality, the responses to this question showed that the percentage of those in each professional role indicating that they understood the implications for classroom practice increased with seniority: a higher proportion of headteachers indicated understanding than of assistant and deputy heads than of supply teachers. Figure 5.8 illustrates this.

A similar pattern was found relating to school phase: a higher proportion of those in other settings (special schools, PRUs and nurseries) indicated understanding than of primary teachers and secondary teachers, with the lowest proportion indicating understanding being among the LEA and supply teachers.

Gender and disability were the aspects that teachers felt that they most understood (90% said that they understood the implications of each at least ‘to some extent’) followed race/ethnicity (89%) (see Figure 5.6). The aspects that teachers felt that they least understood were age (79%) and sexual orientation (71% with only 25% saying ‘yes’ rather than ‘to some extent’). However, these overall differences in responses to
the various aspects of equality are generally less than the differences by professional role shown on Figure 5.8.

Once again, the patterns of response reflect the teachers’ personal characteristics and their school contexts. Women teachers have more confidence in their understanding of gender’s implications on classroom practice than male teachers (57% of women selected ‘yes’ and 33% answering ‘to some extent’ compared with 50% of male teachers who answered yes and 37% who answered to some extent)\(^71\)

Minority ethnic teachers were more confident about their understanding of the implications of race/ethnicity with a higher proportion of them selecting ‘yes’ (58%) than white teachers (45%)\(^72\). The TDA survey of newly qualified teachers also found that teachers from minority ethnic backgrounds were more positive about the extent to which they were prepared to teach pupils from minority ethnic backgrounds. This is possibly because white teachers have less experience teaching in multi-cultural settings and with multi-cultural pupils.

Linked to this were the differences in responses by school challenge. Teachers in both primary and secondary schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socio-economic challenge were more likely to indicate that they understood the implications of race/ethnicity for classroom practice (primary: 59% in the highest quartile, 46% in the lowest; secondary: 50% in the highest and 38% in the lowest)\(^73\). The same was true of teachers in London (56% compared with 46% overall). Again, this is consistent with research that suggests that the teachers who are least confident and feel least prepared to deal with issues of multiculturalism are those in predominantly white schools\(^74\).

This same pattern of responses was also found in relation to religion/belief. A higher proportion of minority ethnic teachers and of teachers in schools with high linguistic socioeconomic challenge indicated that they understood the implications for classroom practice.

**The relationship between training and understanding**

We have seen that in relation to each aspect of equality, less than 30% of teachers indicated that they have had training. We have also seen that a higher percentage than this (generally between 40% and 50%) reported that they understood the implications for classroom practice in relation to each aspect. The data presented above suggest that they have developed this understanding partly as a result of their life experience as, for example, women or members of minority ethnic groups. In addition, their professional experience in particular school contexts contributes to this understanding. But an important question to address is whether having experienced training makes any difference in relation to responses about understanding.

Among those who said they did not understand the implications of any specific aspect of equality for classroom practice, less than 10% had experienced training in relation to that aspect. Among those who said they understood the implications of each aspect of equality ‘to some extent’, a higher percentage indicated that they had had training; however, this was not more than 20%. In contrast, of those who responded that they

---

\(^{71}\) Chi-squared = 17.104, df=3, \(p=0.000\)

\(^{72}\) Chi-squared = 7.917, df=3, \(p=0.048\)

\(^{73}\) Primary: Chi-squared 34.224, df=9, \(p=0.00\); secondary: Chi-squared = 22.874, df=9, \(p=0.006\)

\(^{74}\) Teacher Education and Multiculturalism project, www.cice.londonmet
understood the implications for classroom practice (ie responded ‘yes’), in very case a higher percentage had experienced training, and this rose to over 40% in relation to disability, gender and race (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8: Training and understanding: the of those giving each response to ‘Do you understand the implications for classroom practice?’ who have experienced training (N = 3665)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% of those who indicated no understanding who have had training</th>
<th>% of those who indicated ‘to some extent’ who have had training</th>
<th>% of those who indicated ‘yes’ who have had training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/ ethnicity</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual orientation</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An alternative way of looking at this relationship is to consider how many of those who say that they have experienced training then indicated that they understood the implications for classroom practice. Table 5.9 shows this in relation to race/ethnicity and gender. In each case a far higher percentage of those who have received training indicated an understanding of the implications for classroom practice.

Table 5.9: Training and understanding: cross-tabulation of responses for race/ethnicity and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>race/ethnicity (N = 3659)</th>
<th>gender (N = 3654)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no training</td>
<td>training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you understand the implications for classroom practice?</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘no’ / no response</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to some extent’</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>66.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.4 Equalities policies relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions

Question 12c asked teachers to select from the options ‘yes’, ‘no’ and ‘unsure’ to indicate whether their school had policies addressing each aspect of equality in relation to pupils and adult-pupil interactions.

Of course, it is not possible to tell from a ‘yes’ response how specific the school policies were. Moreau et al. (2005) collected examples of school opportunities policies, and reported that they often contained very general statements such as:

Students should be treated as individuals, regardless of racial origin, colour, religion, sex. All students are held to be of equal value…. (secondary school policy quoted in Moreau et al., 2005)
Thus the polices identified as existing by teachers in this survey may simply include lists of aspects of (in)equality.

Moreover, as a few respondents pointed out, having a policy does not necessarily impact on practice:

*We have policies in place but equality is in the practice not on paper!*

A few respondents indicated that in their context, they did not consider some of the aspects listed to be relevant:

*These are not relevant in my white middle class area.*

Several supply teachers wrote comments indicating that the question was not applicable to them:

*As a supply I don't have anything to do with policies*

A quarter of the respondents did not indicate that their school had any policies in relation to aspects of equality (either they indicated ‘no’ or ‘unsure’ in each case or they did not respond). Of these, 19% were supply teachers to whom the question was not really applicable; the bulk of the rest were class teachers (57%). At the opposite end of the scale, 14% of the whole sample indicated that their school had policies in relation to every aspect listed, and a further 8% said that they had policies relating to six out of the seven aspects. Those in special schools/PRUs and nurseries more often indicated that their schools had policies, and those in secondary schools least often. Figure 5.9 shows percentage of those in each professional role who responded that their school had policies relating to at least six of the seven aspects.

**Figure 5.9: Respondents who indicated that their school had polices relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions in relation to at least six of the listed aspects of equality, by professional role (N = 3225)**

What Figure 5.9 suggests is that many respondents did not know whether their schools had polices. If we assume that the headteachers were in the best position to know whether there was a policy or not, then it would appear that 18% of all class teachers are not aware of policies that exist. This is confirmed by the responses in relation to each aspect of equality, shown on Figure 5.10. At least a quarter of the group indicated uncertainty in each case, and this rose to almost half the respondents in relation to sexual orientation.
Moreau et al.’s research sheds some light on this uncertainty. They reported, for example, one headteacher who, in response to their request for a copy of the equal opportunities policy, said:

We do have an equal opportunities document. I have to say, I couldn’t tell you what was in it. We did write it some time ago. (Primary headteacher quoted in Moreau et al. 2005)

School policies tend to be produced and then in some cases are simply filed away. In line with this, we found that even some headteachers did not know what aspects of equality their school policies addressed: thus, for example, 6% were uncertain whether their school polices addressed gender, 6% race, 16% sexual orientation, and 15% social class. If some headteachers did not know, it is unsurprising that many teachers expressed uncertainty.

Those teachers who had less than five years service more often indicated that they were not sure whether their school had policies; this was a statistically significant pattern found in relation to each aspect of equality. For example, 40% of the group with less than five years service indicated that they were ‘unsure’ whether their school had a race equality policy, whereas only between 21% and 28% of each other length of service group indicated this.

In reviewing these data, then, it must be recognised that what we are measuring is awareness of policies, and that we cannot tell how many of the responses match the reality of the polices in their schools.

Figure 5.10 shows the responses in relation to each aspect of inequality.

**Figure 5.10: Is this aspect of equality addressed in your school through policies relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions (N=3665)**

Teachers were most confident that their school had a policy on race/ethnicity in relation to pupils and adult-pupil interactions (64% of teachers indicated that their school had a policy in this area). Disability attracted a similar number of positive responses (63% were confident that there was a school policy in this area), followed by gender (58%). However, when it came to social class, age and sexual orientation there was a greater degree of uncertainty.

---

75 Chi-squared = 127.856, df = 32, p = 0.000
Race was again an important issue for teachers in secondary schools with high linguistic/socioeconomic challenge (72% of those in the highest quartile indicated that their school had polices addressing race/ethnicity, compared with 58% in the lowest quartile\(^76\)). This pattern was similar in primary schools\(^77\). Teachers in London were more likely than those in other regions to indicate that their schools had such policies (72% indicated that they had).

Similar proportions of white and minority ethnic teachers indicated that their schools did have race equality policies, but minority ethnic teachers were significantly more likely to say that the school did not have a policy (12% of minority ethnic compared with 4% of white teachers)\(^78\).

5.2.5 Equalities policies relating to staff employment

We have shown that there was considerable uncertainty in relation to school policies relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions. Previous research suggests that this will be even greater when it comes to issues of teacher employment. Moreau et al. found that some of the policies that they examined made no references to staff employment. Even those that did tended to be in very general terms. For example, one simply said:

> We are therefore committed to equality of opportunity as an employer of people and as a provider of children’s education. (Primary school policy quoted in Moreau et al. 2005)

Unsurprisingly, then, the survey showed that teachers knew less about the policies that related to their own employment than about those concerning pupils. Figure 5.11 shows their responses.

Figure 5.11: Is this aspect of equality addressed in your school through policies relating to staff employment?

The policies that most teachers were aware of in their schools were to do with race/ethnicity (46% said it was addressed in their school policies) followed by gender (43%) and religion (43%). Teachers were least certain about policies relating to

---

\(^76\) Chi-squared = 32.434, df = 12, p = 0.001

\(^77\) Chi-squared = 25.057, df = 9, p=0.020

\(^78\) Chi-squared = 20.439, df = 4, p = 0.000
sexual orientation (56% said that they were unsure about policies in this area) social class (55%) and age (51%). The aspects teachers felt were least addressed in school policy were age (9% said that this was not addressed by school policy), social class (8%) and sexual orientation (8%).

Significantly more headteachers than those in other professional roles said that their schools had policies addressing each aspect. For example, 86% of headteachers said that their school had policies addressing race/ethnicity in relation to teacher employment, compared with 40% of class teachers\textsuperscript{79}. Fewer headteachers than other types of teachers said that they were unsure about whether each aspect of equality was addressed in the school through policies; nevertheless, between 5% and 16% of headteachers were unsure in relation whether their school had policies in relation to each aspect of equality.

Although age was the area of equality that teachers were most concerned about in relation to their employment in Question 11, this does not seem to be reflected in school policies. Only 32% of teachers said that their school had a policy on age relating to teacher employment and 52% were unsure whether their school had such a policy. Headteachers were the group that was most confident that their school had a policy on age (73% answered yes compared with 27% of class teachers) but a significant number of headteachers (11%) were unsure whether their school had a policy in this area\textsuperscript{80}.

5.3 Equality: Summary

- The three most frequently selected areas of equality for the GTC to focus on in relation to pupils were social class (61%), race/ethnicity (59%), and gender (56%). These were consistently the top three priorities for primary and secondary teachers in different professional roles. However, for the group of teachers in special schools, PRUs and nurseries, disability was the top priority.

- In relation to teacher employment, the three most frequently selected areas of equality for the GTC to focus on were age (69%), gender (59%) and race/ethnicity (46%). There was remarkable unanimity across different groups that these were the main priorities, and in that order.

- Within the responses to each of these questions there were patterns that related to the respondents’ personal characteristics (gender, ethnicity, age) and to the school contexts in which they were teaching. Thus minority ethnic teachers and those teaching in ethnically diverse schools (identified in this survey as having high levels linguistic/socioeconomic challenge) or schools in London tended to give greater priority to both race/ethnicity and religion. Female teachers were more likely to prioritise gender, and teachers working in special schools, PRUs and nurseries (which were grouped together for analysis) to prioritise disability.

- Fifty percent of teachers have had no training in any of the listed aspects of equality. Thirty percent had received training addressing equality in relation to disability, 30% training relating to gender, and 28% had received training in equality in relation to race and ethnicity. While social class was identified as the

\textsuperscript{79} Chi-squared = 553.358, df = 20, p = 0.000

\textsuperscript{80} Chi-squared = 539.631, df = 20, p = 0.000
highest priority for the GTC, only 9% of teachers indicated that they had had any training in this area.

- A higher proportion of headteachers had taken part in training in all the aspects of equality listed than other teachers. The training experienced related to the context in which teachers worked: those in special schools were more likely to have had training in disability, those in multiethnic schools and in London were more likely to have experienced training in race/ethnicity.

- Over 70% of teachers indicated that they understand the implications for classroom practice of each of the elements of equality fully or ‘to some extent’; 56% of teachers said that they understood the implications of gender for classroom practice, 48% of disability and 46% of race/ethnicity. Only 25% of teachers indicated full understanding of the implications of sexual orientation on classroom practice. Headteachers were more likely to report understanding than other teachers.

- A higher proportion of teachers who have had training on each aspect of equality understand its implications on classroom practice.

- Teachers know more about school policies relating to pupils and adult-pupil interactions in their school than they do about policies relating to teacher employment.

- Sixty-four percent of teachers responded that their school had a policy on race/ethnicity in relation to pupils and adult-pupil interactions; 63% reported their school had such a policy on disability and 58% on gender. Only 30% of teachers responded that there was a policy on social class, 29% knew of a policy on age and 22% knew of one on sexual orientation. At least a quarter of the teachers did not know whether each aspect of equality was addressed in school policies; this included around 6% of headteachers (rising to 15% in relation to social class and sexual orientation).

- Teachers were more often unsure about the existence of school policies relating to equality in teacher employment. The policy that most teachers were aware of in their schools were to do with race/ethnicity (46% said it was addressed in their school policies) followed by gender (43%) and religion (43%). The aspects of equality that teacher report are least frequently addressed in policies related to their employment are sexual orientation, social class and age.
Chapter 6: Teaching and learning

6.1 Introduction
Chapter 5 focused on equality. Following on from this, Chapter 6 is mainly concerned with how inequalities should be addressed in schools, and in particular, addresses the GTC research questions, ‘What is teachers’ understanding of underachievement?’ and ‘How do teachers believe that underachievement in particular groups can best be tackled?’ Teachers were asked what aspects of achievement should be prioritised in their school or setting. They were also asked what they considered to be important in addressing underachievement. Also in relation to teaching and learning, the GTC wanted to know whether there was sufficient flexibility in being able to implement the curriculum in teachers’ particular contexts. This research question is also addressed in this chapter.

6.2 Findings
6.2.1 Achievement and underachievement

Achievement
Question 4a asked teachers to select, from the listed statements, the aspects of achievement which they considered should be the main priorities in their school or setting. Respondents were invited to tick as many of the 12 aspects listed below as they considered to be relevant (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Aspects of achievement listed in Question 4a

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The school should meet national target levels (e.g. in SATs and/or GCSEs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Individual pupils who are borderline in terms of national target levels should reach them (e.g. those borderline D/C GCSE should be supported to achieve a C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Individual pupils should achieve as well as others of the same gender, ethnicity and social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Boys should achieve as well as girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Specific minority ethnic groups should achieve as well as other pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Individuals should meet the targets set for them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>The personal achievement of every individual should be maximised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Individuals should achieve as well as other pupils in the same class or set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>The school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake (pupil background and prior attainment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>The school 'value-added' should be at or above the national average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Pupils should achieve in line with parental expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Parents’ expectations of their children should be raised</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.1 shows their responses. In summary, teachers selected aspects of achievement relating to the individual pupil more often than those related to school-level or national targets.

The number of statements that teachers selected varied from one (selected by 205 teachers) to all twelve (selected by 68 teachers). The mean and median number of
statements that teachers selected was five. Of those who selected just one statement, the vast majority (84%) selected G, ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximised’. This statement was by far the most frequently selected overall (by 91% of respondents).

Fifty-seven percent of teachers indicated that a main priority for achievement should be that ‘individuals should meet the targets set for them’ and 57% selected ‘boys should achieve as well as girls’. Other frequently selected statements included, ‘Individual pupils should achieve as well as others of the same gender, ethnicity and social class’ (48%) and ‘The school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake’ (47%). Both these statements suggest that individuals or schools should achieve as well as others with ‘shared’ characteristics. The statement which was chosen least often as a priority was that ‘pupils should achieve in line with parental expectations’ (9%).

**Figure 6.1 In your view, what aspects of achievement should be the main priorities in your school or setting? Percentage selecting each option (N = 3665)**

As well as considerable agreement across all teachers, answers showed statistically significant variation by phase and school context. Figure 6.2 shows responses by phase (excluding LEA/supply teachers), and groups the statements into those to do with school or national targets; those to do with the attainment of specific groups (boys, minority ethnic pupils etc.); those to do with individual achievement; and those relating to parents. A higher percentage of teachers working in the secondary phase selected statements which related to national targets, while slightly more primary
teachers focused on specific groups (by gender or ethnicity) and on individual attainment.

**Figure 6.2: What aspects of achievement should be the main priorities in your school?**

Primary, secondary and other (special/PRU/nursery) responses (N = 3354)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National and School Attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A The school should meet national target levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Pupils who are borderline in terms of national target levels should reach them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I The school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J The school ‘value-added’ should be at or above national average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attainment of Specific Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C Individual pupils should achieve as well as others of the same gender, ethnicity and social class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Boys should achieve as well as girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Specific minority ethnic groups should achieve as well as other pupils</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F Individuals should meet the targets set for them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G The personal achievement of every individual should be maximised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H Individuals should achieve as well as others in the same class or set</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Expectations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K Pupils should achieve in line with parental expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L Parents’ expectations of their children should be raised</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To take account of the multiple-response nature of the data, we constructed 95% confidence intervals for proportions of primary and secondary teachers’ answers. For example, 30% of secondary teachers agreed that ‘the school should meet national target levels (e.g. in SATs and or GCSEs)’ compared with 22% of primary and 13% of teachers in all other settings (LEA/supply and special/PRU/nursery).

---

81 We collapsed categories into primary, secondary and All Other responses to test for significance. All Other responses included the category 1) LEA/supply and 2) Other settings, which included nurseries, Special schools, and some PRUs. However, there were statistical differences in the responses of 1) and 2), and where these are notable (as in footnote 22) we refer to the original categories.

82 95% confidence intervals: primary 21-24%; secondary 28-33%; 10-16% All other settings
Similarly, 49% in secondary said that ‘individual pupils who are borderline in terms of national target levels should reach them (e.g. those borderline D/C GCSE should be supported to achieve a C)’, compared with 27% of primary. More secondary teachers selected the statement that ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’ (41%, compared with 30% in primary), whilst more primary teachers indicated that ‘boys should achieve as well as girls’ (60% primary compared with 53% secondary). Also, whilst there was notable consensus amongst all teachers that ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximised’, primary teachers were slightly more likely to agree that this aspect of achievement was a priority (93% primary compared with 89% secondary).

Responses varied in relation to the school context, using the measures of challenge that we have constructed. Teachers in the highest quartiles of both attainment/SEN challenge and linguistic/socio-economic challenge were less likely than others to select the statement ‘the school should meet national targets e.g. in SATs and/or GCSEs’ (Figures 6.3 and 6.4). A higher percentage of those teaching in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge selected ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’ (Figure 6.3).

By contrast, teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socio-economic challenge more often ticked that ‘specific minority ethnic group should achieve as well as other pupils.’ (Figure 6.4)

---

83 95% confidence intervals : primary 25-29%; secondary 46-51%; 18-26% All other settings
84 95% confidence intervals : primary 28-32%; secondary 39-44%; 29-38% All other settings
85 95% confidence intervals : primary 58-63%; secondary 51-56%; All other settings 50-59%
86 95% confidence intervals: primary 92-94%; secondary 86-90%; All other settings 87-93%
87 Attainment/SEN challenge: Chi-squared = 13.907, df=3, p=.003; linguistic/socioeconomic challenge Chi-squared = 10.318; df=3, p=.016
88 Chi-squared = 126.913 df = 3, p=<.0005
89 Chi-squared = 13.940, df=3, p=.003
Figure 6.4: What aspects of achievement should be the main priorities in your school?
Secondary teachers’ responses to selected statements by quartiles of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge (N = 1420)

These trends were mirrored in primary school responses. Forty-nine percent of primary teachers working in the top quartile of attainment/SEN challenge selected ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’ (compared with 18% in the lowest quartile). Fifty percent of teachers working in the highest quartile of linguistic/socio-economic challenge indicated that ‘specific minority ethnic group should achieve as well as other pupils’, compared with 37% of those in the lowest quartile. The distinctive nature of these responses would seem to suggest that teachers’ thinking about achievement is sensitive to the particularity of their pupils’ circumstances and needs, and the school’s socioeconomic and cultural context.

There were also some differences according to teachers’ professional roles. Those in senior leadership roles (assistant heads, deputy heads and headteachers) more often selected ‘the school value-added should be at or above the national average’, and ‘the school should achieve as well as others with a similar intake’ (pupil background and prior attainment) (Figure 6.5). Their particular focus was on attainment in relation to the school intake, not attainment per se. This is shown by the fact that the percentage of those in various roles indicating that ‘the school should meet national target levels (e.g. in SATs or GCSEs)’ showed little variation by professional role, and was much less frequently selected than those relating to value-added. Another difference by professional role was that senior leaders in both primary and secondary schools were more likely than those in cross-school roles and class teachers to suggest that parents’ expectations of their children should be raised.

On Figure 6.5 we have included responses from those in the settings grouped together as ‘other’- special schools, PRUs and nurseries. There are fewer differences related to professional role in their responses, but (with the exception of meeting national targets), a similar emphasis on the need for attainment to be related to the school intake and the importance of value-added.

90 Chi-squared = 114.084 df=3, p = <.0005
91 Chi-squared = 19.012, df=3, p= <.0005
92 95% confidence intervals: class teachers 34-38%;asst/deputy head 50-61%; headteachers 46-58%
93 95% confidence intervals: class teachers 39-50%;asst/deputy head 52-62%; headteachers 48-60%
94 Secondary: Chi-squared = 17.121, df = 2, p = 0.000 (primary not significant)
Figure 6.5: What aspects of achievement should be the main priorities in your school?
Selected responses by professional role and school phase (N = 3199)

The school value added should be at or above the national average

The school should achieve as well as other schools with the same intake (pupil background and prior attainment)

Parents’ expectations of their children should be raised

The school should meet national target levels (e.g. in SATs and GCSEs)

Notes: * ‘Other’ setting includes special, PRU and nursery.
** Senior leader includes assistant heads, deputy heads and headteachers.

In the data we have been reviewing so far, respondents were invited to select as many aspects of achievement as they liked. In an additional question (Question 4b), we asked them to select the statement that they considered to be ‘the most important priority’ for achievement. Responses are set out in Figure 6.6. It seems that a number of teachers were unable or unwilling to choose one particular statement, as non-response rose from 1% in Question 4a to 8% in Question 4b.

The statement that was most frequently selected as the most important priority was ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximized’ (64%). The next most frequently selected was ‘individuals should meet the targets set for them’, chosen by 10%. Both of these statements focus on individual rather than school or national achievement. As Figure 6.6 shows, each of the other statements was selected by less than 5% of respondents.
Figure 6.6 In your view, which of these aspects of achievement should be the main priority in your school or setting? Percentage selecting each option (N = 3665)

- A. The school should meet national target levels
- B. Individual pupils who are borderline in terms of national target levels should achieve them
- C. Individuals should achieve as well as others of the same gender ethnicity and social class
- D. Boys should achieve as well as girls
- E. Specific minority ethnic groups should achieve as well as other pupils
- F. Individuals should meet the targets set for them
- G. The personal achievement of every individual should be maximised
- H. Individuals should achieve as well as other pupils in the same class
- I. The school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake
- J. The school 'value-added' should be at or above the national average
- K. Pupils should achieve in line with parental expectations
- L. Parents’ expectations of their children should be raised

However, although the numbers selecting each option are small, there was some variation relating to school phase and context. A smaller percentage of those in secondary schools selected ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximised’, but a higher percentage chose one of the two statements relating to national target levels, or ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’ (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Which statement do you consider the most important priority? Responses to selected statements by school phase (N = 3350)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>primary %</th>
<th>secondary %</th>
<th>other (special/PRU/nursery) %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The personal achievement of every individual should be maximised</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ expectations of their children should be raised</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school should meet national target levels OR Individual pupils who are borderline in terms of national target levels should reach them</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In secondary schools, those in the lowest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge were more likely than those in other quartiles to indicate that ‘the personal achievement of each individual should be maximised’, while those in the highest quartile were the most likely to select ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’ as their main priority.\(^95\) (Figure 6.7).

**Figure 6.7: Which statement do you consider the most important priority? Secondary teachers’ responses to selected statements by quartiles of attainment/SEN challenge (N = 1420)**

In summary, this question showed considerable agreement about the main priorities for achievement across the whole sample, with aspects relating to individual pupils most frequently selected. However, there were also differences of emphasis according to the teachers’ roles, phases and the challenges in their schools or settings. The questionnaire then went on to ask teachers’ views about how underachievement should be tackled.

**Underachievement**

Question 5 asked teachers to rate the importance of factors in addressing underachievement in their schools or settings. Answers were given on a 4-point scale of ‘very important’ to ‘not important’, with an option for ‘not relevant/not applicable’. Responses are shown on Figure 6.8 overleaf.

Ten of the 20 factors listed were rated as ‘very important’ by more than 40% of respondents. This may suggest that teachers think multi-faceted approaches are important in addressing underachievement. The factors that teachers most often rated as ‘very important’ were ‘working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self confidence’ (chosen by 79% as ‘very important’) and ‘developing an inclusive school ethos which in which all pupils and their achievements are valued’ (69% ‘very important’).

\(^95\) After inspection to see where differences occurred, the categories have been collapsed to statement G, statement L and ‘all other statements’ due to low numbers in some cells. Chi-squared = 32.097, df = 8, \(p = 0.000\)
Figure 6.8: How important are the factors listed below in addressing underachievement in the school or setting in which you work? (N = 3665)

- working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self-confidence
- developing an inclusive school ethos in which all pupils and their achievements are valued
- support staff working in the classroom
- smaller classes
- adapting the curriculum to meet pupils’ interests
- recognition/provision for different learning styles
- assessment for learning
- working with parents
- focusing on pupils’ individual targets
- a strong focus on literacy
- a strong focus on numeracy
- professional development for teachers focusing on underachievement
- multi-agency approaches (e.g. social services, health, police, probation service, housing officers)
- grouping or setting by ability/attainment
- adapting the curriculum to celebrate pupils’ culture(s)
- more vocational courses for pupils
- small group teaching away from the classroom
- extra tuition (e.g. out of hours learning, booster classes, homework clubs)
- recruiting teachers to reflect the diversity in the local community
- parents or other volunteers working in the classroom

[Bar chart with rating categories: very important, fairly important, fairly unimportant, not important, not relevant/not applicable, no response]
Teachers in different phases tended to respond differently to this question. In general, those in primary schools and in other settings (special/PRU/nursery) were more likely to give ‘very important’ ratings, whilst secondary teachers were more likely to give mid-range ratings such as ‘fairly important’. Eight factors received ‘very important’ ratings by more than half the primary respondents, compared with three factors rated ‘very important’ by more than half the secondary teachers (Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Addressing underachievement selected by more than 50% of primary and secondary respondents  (N = 3187)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>primary</th>
<th>secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self-confidence</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>68.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>developing an inclusive school ethos in which all pupils and their achievements are valued</td>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>support staff working in the classroom</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils in the school</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognition of and provision for different learning styles</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment for Learning (AFL)</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smaller classes</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working with parents</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Every cross-tabulation by phase was significant (p = 0.000). Figure 6.9 shows the pattern of responses by phase. There were just four factors that were rated as ‘very important’ by a higher percentage of secondary than of primary teachers:

- more vocational courses (secondary 36%, primary 13%)
- extra tuition (secondary 18%, primary 7%)
- grouping or setting by ability (secondary 33%, primary 24%)
- smaller classes (secondary 59%, primary 53%).

Those in other settings (special/PRU/nursery) generally responded in a similar pattern to those in primary schools. However, in most cases a much higher percentage of those in other settings than those in primary indicated that the factor was ‘very important’. The factors where their responses differed most from those of primary and secondary teachers were

- multi-agency approaches (other settings 69%, primary 30%, secondary 22%)
- focusing on pupils’ individual targets (other settings 65%, primary 46%, secondary 38%)
- adapting the curriculum to meet pupils’ interests (other settings 77%, primary 61%, secondary 44%)
- recognition/provision for different learning styles (other settings 73%, primary 60%, secondary 39%)
- working with parents (other settings 64%, primary 51%, secondary 35%).

For details of responses for other factors, see Figure 6.9.
Figure 6.9: Addressing underachievement: factors selected as ‘very important’ by school phase (N = 3354, LEA/supply teachers not included)
When responses were analysed by school context, there were some differences of emphasis in teachers’ answers regarding important ways of addressing underachievement. Table 6.4 shows the factors where responses differed significantly in relation to degree of challenge. Only the ‘very important’ responses are included on this table, though clearly these were not the only ones taken into account in calculating statistical significance. In the vast majority of cases, the higher the level of challenge, the more teachers identified the factor listed as important. The only exception to this is in the primary teachers’ responses about vocational courses. Here the teachers in less challenging schools were more likely to see this as very important.

Table 6.4: Addressing underachievement: percentage of teachers selecting various factors as ‘very important’ by school context (Only those factors where there were significant differences are shown)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1 lowest quartile %</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4 highest quartile %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary attainment/SEN challenge</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils in the school</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A strong focus on literacy</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More vocational courses for pupils</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support staff working in the classroom</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with parents</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-agency approaches</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra tuition (eg out of hours learning, summer schools, booster classes, homework clubs)</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting teachers to reflect the diversity in the local community</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents or other volunteers working in the classroom</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small groups</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary linguistic/socioeconomic challenge</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting teachers to reflect the diversity in the local community</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-agency approaches</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary attainment/SEN challenge</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils in the school</td>
<td>53.9</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>64.8</td>
<td>66.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting the curriculum to celebrate the culture(s) of pupils in the school</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-agency approaches</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary linguistic/socioeconomic challenge</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapting the curriculum to celebrate the culture(s) of pupils in the school</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More vocational courses for pupils</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-squared significance: *** p<0.001; ** p <0.01; * p <0.05
It is important to stress that these are not the only factors which groups of teachers rated as ‘very important’. But here, we draw out what was distinctive in the answers of teachers in less and more challenging schools.

There were a number of significant differences by professional role, all with a stepped pattern with class teachers and headteachers at the extremes. (Supply teachers are not included in this analysis because the question focused on the school or setting in which the respondent worked, and so it is less clear what context they would have had in mind).

There were fewer significant differences among secondary teachers by professional role than among primary. In each case we have indicated which phase the difference was found in, and given the percentage of class teachers followed by the percentage of headteachers selecting ‘very important’, and indicated the level of significance (* p<0.05; ** p <0.01; *** p < 0.001). A higher percentage of class teachers than of headteachers (or for secondary schools, headteachers and assistant deputy /heads) indicated that the following factors were important:

- grouping or setting by ability/attainment (primary class teachers 27%, headteachers 20% ***; secondary class teachers 38%, heads and assistant/deputy heads 27%*)
- smaller classes (secondary 62%, 52%*)
- small group teaching away from the classroom, (primary 31%, 27% **).

This suggests that class teachers give more priority than those in promoted roles to the teaching groups and how they are organised. A higher percentage of headteachers (primary) or headteachers, assistant and deputy heads (secondary) selected the following strategies:

- developing an inclusive school in which all pupils and their achievements are valued (primary class teachers 77%, headteachers 91% ***; secondary class teachers 53%, heads and assistant/deputy heads 79%***)
- assessment for learning (primary 52%, 73%***; secondary 34%, 54%***)
- adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils in the school (primary 61%, 69*, secondary 42%, 60%**)
- working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self-confidence (primary 85%, 91%*; secondary 67%, 84%***)
- professional development for teachers focusing on underachievement (primary 30%, 48%**; secondary 28%, 36%*)
- working with parents (primary 50%, 64%**)
- multi-agency approaches (primary 29%, 37%*).

From this it appears that in comparison with class teachers, headteachers and others in senior leadership roles are more concerned about the school’s ethos and curriculum, and that they have a more outward looking perspective (to parents, other agencies, and wider knowledge and skills available though professional development).

Finally in Question 5, teachers were invited to add comments about other ways in which underachievement is addressed in their school or setting. Of the whole sample, 674 respondents (18%) outlined a range of factors and strategies used in their schools. Their comments were coded into categories derived from the data.

The largest group (N = 100) included comments about curricular strategies. These gave details of adapting or extending the curriculum, providing cross-curricular and
extra-curricular opportunities, and making the curriculum ‘enjoyable’ and ‘fun’. Some mentioned specific teaching strategies (‘precision teaching’, ‘coaching techniques’, ‘excellent mixed ability teaching’), or a particular curricular focus:

- Alternative learning programmes using FE colleges and training providers.
- Focus on the Arts, Sports and PE. We hold Arts Mark Silver and Active Mark Gold Status.
- Strong emphasis on enjoyment in all areas of the curriculum. Strong cross-curricular planning to enable all to achieve.
- Problem solving and thinking skills through extra-curricular activity.
- Redesigning the curriculum to make it interesting at KS3 – rich task development.
- Creative partnership – drama, role play to support speaking and listening.
- Extra-curricular activities which target pupil strengths other than academic.

The next group of comments focused on pastoral approaches (N = 91). These detailed whole-child approaches focused on children’s social or emotional development, or their motivation. Comments also related to developing a caring, celebratory or inclusive ethos in the school:

- Focus on PSHE using SEAL materials.
- Using effective reward systems which include rewards for effort as well as achievement.
- Addressing social learning, emotional literacy then circles of friends.
- Improving attendance, liaison with feeder primary schools.
- Recognising and building on children’s strengths. Happy caring staff in a positive atmosphere.

A third group included comments about targeting, grouping or tracking particular pupils or groups and their achievement (N = 90):

- Boys groups.
- Quiet girls groups.
- Summer-born pupils.
- Students with EAL needs.
- Basic skills groups.
- Key marginal group (GCSE C/D borders).
- Close-to-exclusion groups.
- Underachieving children are identified in KS1 and then tracked throughout the school and given extra booster sessions where required.

- Additional literacy and numeracy programmes for small groups at borderline levels.

Other comments described detailed mentoring by peers, older pupils, teachers, Heads of Years, learning mentors and community workers (N = 75):

- We use peer mentors organised by a group of adult mentors who work with individuals and groups of pupils. These are not qualified teachers and have a slightly different relationship with pupils which [they] respond to.
Use of a mentor (ex-teacher employed specifically for the purpose) to work one to one with underachieving disaffected pupils.

Pupils at KS4 will be attached to a teacher who will help them to become organised towards course work and exam revision.

Mentoring to boost confidence and understanding.

Some teachers wrote comments which combined the a range of approaches (N = 66):

Nurture groups, SEAL project, precision teaching. Parent workshops. Good training. Some peer observations (critical friends).

Use of bilingual teaching in the early years. Working closely with parents, using children’s own interests as a focus for learning and teaching.

Rigorous bi-annual tracking of progress. Using county advisors to show practical ways to teach problem areas. Analysing test data – informs layered targets.

Tutor mentoring, pupil voice, recognising gifted and talented, work-related courses.

Some comments (N = 36) focused on the important role of teachers, teaching assistants and support staff:

Significant use of support staff-budget allocation in this area. Highly motivated staff.

Quality of support staff is an issue - where high, makes a massive difference to underachievement.

Recruitment and relation of good teachers.

Another 33 comments centred on behaviour, often highlighting behaviour as a factor in or influence on underachievement, and noting strategies in use:

Underachievement has been linked to poor behaviour in our school. We have introduced a new reward system for good behaviour and a new sanctions system for bad behaviour. They have had a positive impact.

Some 26 comments referred to specific programmes, systems or named interventions, for example Intensive Support Programmes (ISPs), London Challenge targeting borderline pupils, PAT, ELS, one-to-one reading recovery.

In addition, some comments (N = 24) discussed the applicability of underachievement as a concept and in practice in the teacher’s school/setting:

Being a special needs school we have small classes, and set small, regular and achievable targets to ensure pupils progress and achievements are recorded to boost confidence and willingness to attempt future tasks and therefore enhance learning.

I teach in a grammar school: underachievement is fairly rare, and is usually a matter of motivation and learning styles. Also in supporting the girls emotionally who are struggling in that setting but would be top of class in many comps.

There were also comments focusing on a wide range of issues including the monitoring and support of pupils with Special Education Needs; how schools involved, provided for or made links with parents or the wider community; and pupils’ involvement in or responsibility for their own progress.
6.2.2 Curriculum flexibility

Question 6 asked ‘Is the curriculum sufficiently flexible for you to adapt it to meet the needs and interests of the pupils you teach?’. Teachers could select from four graduated statements, or say the statement was not applicable to their situation (an option chosen by almost half of those working in LEA roles and supply).

Figure 6.10: Is the curriculum sufficiently flexible for you to adapt it to meet the needs and interests of the pupils you teach? (N=3665)

As Figure 6.11 shows, the response of more than half the teachers was that the curriculum has ‘some flexibility’ such that it can be adapted to meet pupils’ needs and interests, whilst another quarter responded that there was ‘little flexibility’.

There are statistically significant differences by phase in teachers’ responses96. The group who were most likely to indicate that they had sufficient flexibility were those who taught in other settings (special schools, PRUs and nurseries). Primary teachers were more likely to indicate flexibility than secondary.

Figure 6.11: Curriculum flexibility: primary teachers by school phase (N = 1695)

96 Chi-squared = 227.021, df = 9, p = 0.000
These differences were further explored by looking at the key stages in which teachers said they were currently working. As we have noted, those in secondary schools generally indicated more than one key stage, while those in primary more often indicated just one. In each key stage, the most frequent response was that there was ‘some flexibility’. However, odds show that teachers working in Foundation Stage were most likely of all key stages to say there was ‘a great deal of flexibility’ in the curriculum. A teacher currently working in Foundation was 3.75 times as likely to give this answer as a teacher currently working in KS3, whilst a teacher working in KS1 was 1.8 times as likely to say ‘there is a great deal of flexibility’ as a teacher working in KS4.

Table 6.7: Is the curriculum sufficiently flexible for you to adapt it to meet the needs and interests of the pupils you teach?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Stage ticked</th>
<th>Percentage of each group indicating ‘There is a great deal of flexibility’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foundation (n=733)</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 1 (n=1038)</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 2 (n=1348)</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 3 (n=1502)</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Stage 4 (n=1447)</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-sixteen (n=755)</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among primary teachers, those in promoted roles were more likely to perceive the curriculum as flexible than supply teachers or class teachers (Figure 6.12).

Figure 6.12: Curriculum flexibility: primary teachers by professional role (N = 1723)

This was not the case in secondary schools, where responses were more similar across all roles (Figure 6.13).

---

97 Ninety respondents gave no answer to any part of Question 2 on Key Stage.
98 Chi-squared = 28.141, df = 9, p = 0.001
Figure 6.13: Curriculum flexibility: secondary teachers by professional role (N = 1373)

Figure 6.14 uses the same format shows responses from the teachers in other settings, special schools, PRUs and nurseries. They have not been divided by professional role as the numbers were too small. But what stands out is that in comparison to both primary and secondary teachers, they were far more likely to indicate that there is a great deal of flexibility in the curriculum in their settings.

Figure 6.14: Curriculum flexibility: teachers in special schools, PRUs and nurseries (N = 167)

There were no significant differences related to age, length of service or school challenge.

6.3 Teaching and learning: summary

- Almost all teachers (91%) selected ‘the personal achievement of every individual should be maximised’ as a main priority for achievement in their school or setting. The other most frequently selected priorities were that ‘individuals should meet the targets set for them’ and ‘boys should achieve as well as girls’.

- Secondary teachers’ responses in relation to priorities for achievement more often focused on national and school-level targets, while primary teachers tended to more often respond in terms of the individual and their needs. Teachers in senior leadership roles were more likely to agree that the school’s value-added was an important priority, and that ‘the school should achieve as well as schools with a similar intake (pupil background and prior attainment).’ However, they were no
more likely than those in other roles to indicate that national targets should be met.

- Teachers working in schools with a higher level of attainment/SEN challenge more often said that ‘parents’ expectations of their children should be raised’. Teachers working in schools with high linguistic socioeconomic challenge were more likely than other groups to indicate that ‘specific minority ethnic groups should achieve as well as other pupils’.

- A number of factors were seen as ‘very important’ in addressing underachievement. The most highly rated by all teachers were: ‘working to raise pupils’ self-esteem and self-confidence’ and ‘developing an inclusive school ethos in which all pupils and their achievements are valued’.

- In relation to addressing underachievement, there were some differences in responses of teachers with different professional roles. Class teachers more often selected strategies that were to do with teaching groups and how they are organised (e.g. grouping or setting), while senior leaders were more concerned about the school ethos and curriculum, and generally had a more outward looking perspective (to parents, other agencies and professional development opportunities).

- There were considerable differences by phase in the strategies that teachers saw as important in addressing underachievement in their own school or setting. Primary teachers tended to prioritise support staff working in the classroom, whereas secondary were more likely to opt for extra tuition. Primary teachers also focused strongly on the pupils’ needs; they more often selected ‘adapting the curriculum to meet the interests of pupils’ and ‘recognition of and provision for learning styles’. These factors were selected by even more of those teaching in special schools, PRUs and nurseries; they also indicated the importance multi-agency approaches.

- Those in schools with high levels of attainment/SEN challenge were more likely to prioritise adapting the curriculum to meet pupils’ interests, and those in school with high linguistic/socioeconomic challenge to respond in terms of celebrating the culture of the pupils and multi-agency approaches.

- Teachers were asked to give additional details of ways in which underachievement was addressed in their schools; these included curricular strategies, pastoral approaches, targeting and tracking, and mentoring.

- Most teachers (53%) said there is ‘some flexibility’ in the curriculum to ‘adapt it to meet the needs and interests of the pupils’. Teachers of younger age-groups – particularly in Foundation Stage – were most likely to say there was ‘a great deal of flexibility’, as were headteachers.
Chapter 7: National initiatives

7.1 Introduction

The research topics and questions identified by the GTC included a range of questions focusing on current national initiatives in education. These included the use of Planning Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time; the use of the Professional Standards framework; the extent to which teachers work in multi-agency teams, and the contribution they make in these; the groups or organisations that teachers would like to see having a greater influence over teaching and learning; the extent to which teachers themselves are able to bring about change; and the effectiveness of a wide range of government initiatives.

The final section of the questionnaire (Questions 13-20) explored teachers’ experiences and views in relation to these research questions.

7.2 Findings

7.2.1 PPA time

Section 4 of the School Teachers Pay and Conditions document 2003 states that ‘With effect from 1 September 2005 all teachers at a school (including headteachers) with timetabled teaching commitments, whether employed on permanent, fixed term, temporary or part-time contracts, will have a contractual entitlement to guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time within the timetabled teaching day’. At the time of the 2005 survey (March 2005) 40% of teachers indicated that PPA was already in place or knew about plans for its implementation in their school.

As this survey took place in March 2006, PPA time should have been in place across all schools. Question 13 asked respondents to choose the statement that best described their experience of allocation of PPA time. Question 14 then asked them to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with five statements about the outcomes of PPA time. They were also asked to write in any other outcomes of having PPA time.

Allocation of PPA time

Figure 7.1 illustrates the statements selected by teachers to describe their experience of PPA time.

Figure 7.1: Planning Preparation and Assessment time: tick one statement that is nearest to your experience (N=3665)
Sixty-five percent of teachers in the survey reported that they received their full allocation of PPA time every week, and 6% said that they received their full allocation of PPA time in blocks of time less often than every week. However, 12% of teachers indicated that they did not get all of the PPA time to which they were entitled, and 8% that they rarely got PPA time. There were considerable differences in the proportions of teachers selecting these options across the different professional roles (Figure 7.2).

**Figure 7.2: Experience of PPA time by teachers’ role (N=3665)**

This is partly because only teachers with a timetabled teaching commitment are entitled to PPA time. Therefore, a non-teaching headteacher or deputy head would not be entitled to PPA time, although they would be entitled to leadership and management time, and headteachers to additional headship time (from September 2005); however the amount of leadership or headship time to which a teacher is entitled is at the discretion of the school or governors. Twenty-eight percent of headteachers gave no response to the question about PPA time, and half of these commented explicitly that PPA was not applicable to them, while often stressing that their staff received PPA time:

*As a head, PPA time does not exist.*

*I do not teach on a regular basis. All my staff have their full allocation of PPA time each week.*

*Because it is not so applicable to my role as a largely non-teaching head.*

Similarly, 28% of headteachers selected ‘I rarely get PPA time’, and one-quarter of these indicated in comments that they were not entitled to PPA time. Some also used the opportunity to make comments about leadership time, either that they got this instead, or that they wished that they did:

*As a headteacher I ensure my staff all get their full allocation each week. I take dedicated headship time one day a half term.*
I do not receive my dedicated headship time, partly as a result of PPA for all staff but I do agree it is useful for them!

As head I do not get PPA time. This idea of 'dedicated headship time' and what it works like has not been fully explored. There are few guidelines on it.

Four percent of assistant/deputy heads did not respond to this question and 9% indicated that they rarely had PPA time. Of these, three indicated that they were non-teaching, however other responses indicated that for a variety of reasons they did not have any PPA time

Not applicable at present as we are a split site school.

I do not get any PPA time - as dictated by the headteacher.

As department head, I don’t have PPA time.

Although headteachers and assistant/deputy heads in primary schools are more likely to have teaching responsibilities, significantly fewer of them reported that they had PPA time compared to their counterparts in secondary schools: 74% of headteachers and deputy heads in secondary schools indicated they got their full allocation, compared to 49% in primary schools99. As we will show, some primary headteachers reported that they were covering for class teachers while they had their PPA time, and it may be that they were making a point about this situation when answering the question.

Very few of the supply teachers (20%) indicated that they received their full allocation of PPA time. The majority (47%) gave no response to the question. Of these, half wrote in comments suggesting that PPA time was not applicable to supply teachers, or that they were not eligible for it. However, this is not necessarily the case; the School Teachers Pay and Conditions document 2003 (Section 4, Paragraph 71) states that ‘Those [supply teachers] who are not casual (i.e. not employed on a day to day basis) have … an entitlement to pro-rata terms and conditions enjoyed by other teachers at the school.’ This might be assumed to include a pro rata entitlement to PPA time. One supply teacher noted experience of this:

When I was on contract at this school in summer 2005, I did get some time for PPA in advance of the National Directive, so will be sure to get it again.

However, the responses suggest that the principle that supply teachers on longer placements should have a PPA entitlement is not widely understood among supply teachers or those headteachers responsible for their deployment in school.

However, even among class teachers, whose entitlement to PPA time is certain, 15% indicated that they did not get their full entitlement. There was some indication that not all teachers were sure what they were entitled to:

Part time – PPA time is my own time, class teachers have weekly PPA time.

Not applicable since part time.

Unsure of my entitlement with only working part-time.

I do get some but don’t know if it’s the full allocation.

I don’t know how much I should get.

Is this applicable to centrally employed teachers?

---

99 Chi-squared: 26.6, p=0.000, df=1 (N=515 headteachers and assistant/deputy heads)
Others were sure of their entitlement, but were not getting it:

As a PPA cover teacher I am still entitled to 10% of that two days teaching. ... I still do not get anywhere near 10% of it.

PPA time is not in use at [my school] despite repeated written requests.

One teacher commented that the full entitlement of PPA time was allocated ‘until Easter when budget is too low’.

Outcomes of having PPA time

Question 14 asked teachers to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with five statements about the possible outcomes of having PPA time. This question used the same statements as had been used in the 2005 survey in asking what outcomes teachers anticipated from PPA time, and thus allows us to compare teachers’ expectations in 2005 with their experience in 2006.

As in 2005, respondents were generally positive about PPA time (see Figure 7.3). The two statements with which the largest number of teachers agreed were the same as in 2005; that ‘PPA time enables me to reflect on my assessment of children’s needs and target lessons more precisely’, and that ‘PPA time enables me to teach better as I feel more prepared’. For all statements a lower percentage of teachers have selected ‘strongly agree’ in 2006 compared to 2005, and the percentage disagreeing has risen. This suggests that in 2005 some teachers may have been over-optimistic about the potential benefits of PPA time.

The greatest difference between expectation and outcome is for the statement ‘PPA time will allow/allows me to become better acquainted with my subject area of responsibility’. In 2005 76% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, compared to 56% in 2006, a drop of 19%. This perhaps indicates that while teachers have been able to use PPA time for their immediate concerns (short term planning, assessment etc) it has not allowed the time for broader study that they hoped or expected it might.

Figure 7.3: Percentage of respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing that PPA time will allow them to (2005) OR that PPA time enables them to (2006) do the following things (N=4065 to 4075 in 2005, 3405 to 3431 in 2006)

As we have shown, there was some lack of clarity about whether some respondents were or were not entitled to PPA time (particularly headteachers, assistant and deputy
heads, those in cross-school roles and supply teachers). Their responses in relation to outcomes of having PPA time may muddy the general picture, so we focus on the class teachers, all of whom undoubtedly had an entitlement. It is evident from their responses that the vast majority had benefited from at least one of the possible outcomes; 96% of class teachers agreed or strongly agreed with at least one of the statements, while 62% agreed or strongly agreed with all five statements.

Figure 7.4 shows the responses of class teachers about the outcomes of PPA time.

**Figure 7.4: Outcomes of PPA time: Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (N=1772, class teachers only)**

There is some patterning in the opinions of PPA time by school phase. A higher proportion of primary class teachers strongly agreed that PPA time allowed them to reflect on assessments and to reduce the time spent at home on school work than secondary class teachers. The statement agreed or strongly agreed with by the greatest percentage of primary class teachers was that PPA time enabled them to reflect on assessments of children’s needs and target lessons more precisely (81%). In contrast, the statement agreed or strongly agreed with by the highest percentage of secondary class teachers was that PPA time enabled them to teach better because they feel more prepared (74%). Fewer secondary class teachers agreed that PPA time enabled them to reduce the amount of time spent on work at home than primary teachers (61% secondary, 72% primary).

We had hypothesised that the ways in which teachers received their PPA time (every week, or in less frequent blocks of time) might impact on their opinions of PPA time. There was no particular evidence of this, although there were only a few teachers who received their allocation of PPA time in blocks of time less often than every week.

---

100 40% of primary class teachers who answered the question strongly agree that PPA time enables them to reduce the amount of time they spend at home on school work compared to 27% of secondary class teachers Chi-squared = 51.2, df=12, p=0.000 (due to the small volume of responses in certain categories, this test excluded ‘no response’ and ‘not applicable’).
However, comments do indicate that receiving PPA time in very small blocks is sometimes found to be unhelpful:

*The PPA time has been broken down into smaller units - ½ hour of Assembly time, ¾ hour music session etc. This does not allow for any really useful blocks of time and is often more detrimental to children’s learning.*

*The time would be of greater value if taken in one slot or even better one day a fortnight.*

**Other outcomes of PPA time**

In addition to asking teachers how far they agreed with each of the given statements, they were also asked to write in any other outcomes of having PPA time. In all, 1226 respondents (33% of the sample) added comments, which have been coded. Not all of these directly responded to the request to write in any other outcomes of having PPA time; instead a wide range of issues around PPA time were noted. These included comments in the following broad categories:

- comments indicating that the time was used for PPA (8% of all respondents)
- positive outcomes other than those on planning preparation and assessment (7%)
- comments about the way the time was allocated (or not allocated) and structured (10%)
- concerns about some more negative impacts, arising largely from budgetary constraints (8%)
- comments stating that PPA time being used for non-PPA activities, including administrative and clerical tasks and pastoral and curricular responsibilities (10%).

Each group is discussed in turn.

The first broad group of comments, made by 294 respondents (8%), were those indicating that the time was indeed used for planning preparation and assessment, and/or describing the positive outcomes that this has produced. Many of these comments repeated or enhanced the statements in the previous part of the question, which, as we have shown elicited a very positive response from class teachers.

*Better quality lessons, more detailed pupil assessments (marking). Better resources. We would all be better teachers with more PPA time.*

*A great idea - know it has cost implications for head but it has made a big difference to workload. I have mine in one block and it has rescued my Sunday afternoons!*

Some comments emphasized the benefits of being able to plan with colleagues (including teaching assistants) (N = 87), and of being able to work in school where resources are available (N = 19).

*Joint marking, joint planning, time when year team can meet.*

*Hugely beneficial having dedicated time with colleagues to plan collaboratively. Also allows time to research resources - for example websites.*

*Enable me to access a wider range of resources for planning in school, i.e. time to look through equipment and books.*
Such comments were more likely to be made by primary class teachers (13%) who had not previously had ‘free’ periods, in comparison with secondary teachers (6%).

The next set of comments, made by 261 respondents (7%), indicated a variety of positive outcomes of having PPA time other than direct impacts on planning, preparation and assessment, and hence quality of teaching. The majority of these referred to positive impacts on teachers (N = 158):

*I feel more human and less stressed. I feel much more able to do my job properly. I also feel I am gaining more in my home life, and, which obviously is good for my well being!*

*More willing to investigate and thus take on new initiatives and organise activities and opportunities for the pupils.*

*Feel valued/motivated. More prepared to spend time at home if also given time in school.*

*I feel I have gained a little in status.*

A number of teachers referred to better relationships with other staff in their schools;

*Able to build better personal relationship with colleague (who has PPA at same time).*

A particularly important aspect of PPA time was that it is guaranteed, and could not be taken up with cover; the vast majority of these comments came from secondary teachers (7% of secondary, but only 0.2% of primary, respondents).

*PPA is predictable so you can plan marking time.*

*It allows me to have some peace of mind. e.g. I know that I will definitely have a lesson free to allow me to do something specific. Before I would plan to do something in a free period, but could never guarantee that I could get something done.*

Only a very small number of comments noted any positive outcomes for pupils (N = 13) (though obviously this was implicit in some that mentioned improvements in planning or better assessment):

*Children in my school benefit from our PPA time, as they are taught by other skilled and experienced staff in Music and Drama. This reflects the way the curriculum is adapted and the creative ethos of the school.*

*Happier teachers, better lessons, higher pupil achievement, better exam results. Watch exam results go up.*

Just two teachers made comments about the positive impact of using teaching assistants to cover classes during PPA time.

*For the staff in my school it has increased the quality of teaching and learning and enhanced the status of the TA’s.*

There were also 88 other positive comments:

*The best initiative I have seen in primary teaching for a long time. Very valued time, much needed and much appreciated.*

The third broad group of comments were about the time allocated (or not allocated) for PPA, and the way it was structured. Such comments were made by 379 respondents (10%). Some of the issues that were noted here were the same as those mentioned in relation to Question 13, which asked teachers whether they received their full allocation of PPA time. Thus some respondents noted that they did not have any PPA time, and it was not clear in all cases whether this was simply because of
their role, or whether they were missing out on their entitlement. Some supply teachers noted that on long placements they should be allocated PPA time, but were not.

Other comments pointed out that PPA time was regularly cancelled, or teachers were called on to cover other classes:

*It is unreliable if someone is away then the PPA teacher takes the sick teacher class and you miss PPA time. It can be taken away at a moment’s notice or given to you with no notice so you do not always have all the resources you need.*

This is the converse of earlier comments from teachers who identified the guarantee of PPA and the fact it could be relied upon as extremely positive and highlights the particular value to teachers of routine, timetabled, dependable PPA.

Sixteen teachers commented that while they had PPA time on their timetables, the time they had previously been allocated for other responsibilities had now been removed, and so they did not feel that they were benefiting from ‘extra’ time.

*By getting PPA time lost out on co-ordinator's time - but still expected to do teacher observations - and in 2008 lose out on pay as TLRs introduced!*

Others argued that although they now had PPA time, there was little impact because the total volume of work continues to increase. Forty teachers specified that their headteachers were now demanding more detailed planning, or extra paperwork, which took up additional time, and cancelled out the positive potential impact of PPA time.

*Senior members of staff now tell as what has to be done in PPA time.*

*We have been given PPA time, but our workload has increased. It seems that management can ask for any piece of assessment and the expectation is that, because of PPA time, the teachers should produce it. If anything, my working week has increased this year.*

*Lots of extra meetings have been set up during teachers’ PPA time with management claming they are part of PPA and therefore not cover time.*

Fifty-three teachers wrote comments about the way that their PPA time was structured. In general these were people who were allocated a number of short blocks of time, and felt that it would be more effective to have a single block each week.

*I would prefer PPA time in my school to be given in a complete half day block. We have one hour then 2 half hours - can't really get on with much in half an hour - I often end up setting up for next lesson which I had to do anyway.*

Finally in this group, 30 teachers commented that the impact of PPA time was limited because there was no available space in the school in which to work.

*No quiet workplace to carry out PPA. Frequently interrupted with other peoples/pupils issues etc.*

*There is no area in school where I can comfortably work during PPA. So I often feel that I have wasted an afternoon moving from room to room trying to find somewhere to work without being interrupted.*

A fourth broad group of comments expressed concern about some more negative impacts, arising largely from budgetary constraints (306 comments from 8% of respondents). The majority of such comments (N = 248) were made by primary respondents. Almost a third of the headteachers (31%) in the survey wrote comments highlighting the negative impacts of PPA time. They particularly highlighted the
effects on pupils (96) teachers (67), teaching assistants (52) and the school as a whole (91). While overall the numbers of comments in this group is small, we explore them in some detail because they give clear indications of where improvements are needed to ensure that the very positive outcomes of PPA, which so many respondents described, are felt equally in all schools.

Some headteachers and deputy heads indicated that as a result of budgetary constraints, they now provided cover for PPA time themselves, and this had a detrimental effect on their other work:

_I have lost much of my time as head because of the need to do more supply as PPA was not funded._

_As a headteacher my workload has increased as I have to cover some PPA time due to insufficient budget. PPA time also has an adverse effect on the school as pupils are unsettled by the arrangements introduced to ensure that all the teachers have their allocated time. For PPA to work effectively schools need to be funded properly. To ensure that pupils receive good quality teaching when class teachers are receiving their allocated PPA time._

A number of teachers made the point that they had to prepare in more detail for the work that the class would be doing with the teaching assistant, and that this took up much of their PPA time:

_To spend two hours preparing lessons for the cover teacher to teach my class while I 'enjoy' PPA time seems, at the very least, counter-productive. PPA = waste of money and time! It puts 2 hours on my workload every week, at least!!_

Ninety-six comments identified a range of negative impacts on pupils:

_Having a negative impact on pupil attainment and behaviour because they do not respond to cover in the same way as to class teacher. Takes CTs time to then resolve issues on return to classroom._

_In our school is has led to a drastic reduction in the number of trips and activities for students during the school working day._

_Where to start? Whoever decided to impose this on schools without funding it should be strung up. The result this year is doubling up of classes in the afternoon to release a teacher for PPA. There have also been cases where teaching assistants have been left in charge of classes without themselves having assistance - and inadequate planning._

_Lack of continuity for pupils. This has a major negative effect in pupils with SEN and behavioural difficulties._

_From head's perspective, huge disruption to the pupils’ learning. Increase in behavioural issues. Increase in admin. time to organise cover for absence. Huge increase in time commitment to ensure time-tableing is effective._

_Less contact with class has led to a loss of continuity in children’s learning. I’m not managing to teach what I normally do - and feel frustrated. Issues of picking up behaviour/social problems after PPA. I just don't know which bit to tackle !_

_Government must expect a lowering of standards as schools are employing non-qualified staff (TAs) to cover for teachers during PPA time. Teachers’ professional status is being eroded and morale is low!_

_More pressure during rest of week as we manage PPA by covering for each other. As a result I teach 90 children 2 afternoons a week (Years 5 and 6). Children experience a secondary style of movement as no money is provided to support PPA._
Negative consequences for schools included increased pressure on teachers, pressure on budgets and loss of staff, extra work for headteachers, and a decrease in CPD activities. Again, these comments came more often from primary teachers and particularly headteachers, and again, the focus was not on the PPA time itself, but on the inadequacy of the budget to enable schools to cover the costs. This in turn had a knock-on effect on other school activities:

*We have lost crucial staff to cover cost of providing PPA time.*

*Smaller schools in the family cluster are restricted to release staff for training/support, and for SENCO meetings, which I organize - retrograde step for this initiative*

*PPA time is provided 'on the cheap’ in Primary schools. ... I am very concerned CPD is suffering as I can't afford to release staff from their teaching community.*

There were also concerns that PPA time was affecting the ethos of teaching:

*Has negatively affected teachers’ attitudes e.g. insisting on right to PPA rather than the welfare of pupils.*

The final broad category of comment indicated that the time was not used for planning preparation and assessment. Such comments were made by 354 teachers (10% of the sample). More secondary than primary teachers commented in this category (14% of secondary, 7% of primary). Of these, 93 noted that they used the time to do administrative tasks, the vast majority of which feature on the list of tasks that should now be undertaken by support staff. A few of these explained that, because the teaching assistants were now taking classes, the teachers had to do their own photocopying etc:

*There is no longer a person employed to do displays - teachers must do during PPA. It also means that I lose my member of support staff 3 afternoons a week so: a) SEN provision is squeezed; b) we can't run interventions such as ELS; c) I find myself doing tasks such as photocopying, laminating, etc. which I could normally ask my assistant to do in the afternoons, which seems to defeat the object of having PPA time.*

*PPA time unfortunately allows me do simple but time consuming activities such as photocopying/displays and extra booster groups - this is because we do not have TAs in the afternoons due to them leading PPA time -*

Seventy-eight teachers said they used PPA time to deal with behaviour and contact parents:

*Time to phone parents, talk to individual pupils/teachers, time to follow up on tutor group issues, time for filing, etc. Unfortunately PPA time often becomes swallowed up by chasing up 'behavioural' issues, discussing one individual, or corresponding with parents. All of these tasks are important but leave little time for PPA work. Planning trips.*

The time was used for curricular or other responsibilities by 101 teachers, most often those secondary teachers identified as having a cross-school role and assistant and deputy heads:

*The main problem as a HoY is that the non-contact time gets consumed by the pastoral needs and analysis of individual student targets/ records. Creating a balance using non-contact time as time to devote to the teaching aspect of the job is a dream. The majority of time, try as I might, is dominated by the pastoral.*

*As SENCO I spend most of my non-contact time undertaking admin. related to SEN.*
Thirty teachers said the time was used for working with small groups or individuals who needed additional support, or for mentoring ITT students:

*Time available to spend with children who need more support.*

*My PPA time is used to monitor my ITT trainees.*

Finally, teachers listed a whole range of non-PPA activities that took place in PPA time (107 teachers):

*Also, I get to eat lunch.*

*PPA time is sometimes used for meetings with other staff including the headteacher. Recently PPA time was used for extra play rehearsals.*

*To go on NQT courses.*

*Spend time worrying about what is happening in my classroom during PPA time.*

**PPA: summary**

Overall, then, the comments that teachers wrote, in conjunction with the responses to the previous question, indicate that primary class teachers are generally positive about PPA time and feel it has had positive impacts on their lives and work. However, a few also expressed concern about lack of continuity for pupils, and poor behaviour arising from this. A third of primary headteachers highlighted concerns about the impacts on pupil behaviour and learning, on their own work (both in terms of time spent organising PPA and time spent providing cover) and other activities such as CPD; these issues were generally seen as being caused by the inadequacy of the school budget to make satisfactory provision. A few primary teachers commented that they were now undertaking work that was previously undertaken by teaching assistants (such as photocopying and putting up displays), while the teaching assistants took their classes.

Secondary teachers particularly appreciated having time that is guaranteed and cannot be suddenly taken up with cover. However, some comments indicated that in terms of overall time available, PPA time has had a more limited impact. Secondary teachers in promoted roles also commented that the time is often taken up with a wide range of non-PPA activities, such as pastoral work and curricular responsibilities.

### 7.2.2 Working with others

Professionals working with children now have a statutory duty to collaborate to secure the well-being and development of children and young people (Children Act 2004). Extended schools are one context in which teachers will be involved in new inter-professional teams, and teachers everywhere will be working with new procedures around information sharing and the assessment of children at risk.

The GTC has recently updated its Statement of Professional Values and Practice in light of the restructuring of the children's workforce. In particular the revised statement addresses the particular contributions that teachers can bring to multi-agency working. The GTC is working with some of the other children’s workforce regulatory bodies to define the values that might form a common platform for inter-professional work with children and young people. Questions 15 and 16 were designed to provide baseline data on the frequency with which teachers work with others, and the contributions that they believe they make when working in teams with other professionals.
Who do teachers work with?

Question 15 asked teachers to indicate how frequently they worked with a selection of other people such as other teachers, support staff, parents and volunteers, trainees, and other professionals. They were also asked to indicate any others they worked with, who were not listed in the question. Question 16 then asked teachers to evaluate the ways in which they were able to contribute when they worked in teams made up of professionals from difference agencies, and the overall impact on teaching and learning of working in these teams.

Figure 7.5 illustrates the responses to Question 15, and Table 7.1 sets out the ‘other’ roles that teachers wrote in.

**Figure 7.5: How often do you work with each of the people listed? (N = 3665)**

**Table 7.1: Other categories of people that teachers work with (N = 3665)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEN and medical support (e.g. speech and language therapists, occupational therapists)</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching and learning support (including school staff such as technicians, peripatetic teachers, sports coaches and LEA advisors))</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupil support, behavioural and pastoral, including EWO</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>administrative staff, site manager, school meals staff</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other community members including visiting speakers and vicars</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careers service, Connexions etc</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGCE tutors, students not listed elsewhere</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most striking finding from Question 15 was the diversity of people with whom teachers work, and the different experiences of the individuals and specific groups of teachers. For example, one headteacher indicated working daily with other teacher(s), senior leader(s)/manager(s), learning mentor(s), teaching assistant(s), bursar/business manager, social worker, school governor(s), parents/other volunteers and trainee teachers/support staff. In addition, this headteacher worked with the following: Education Welfare Officer, inclusions manager, home-school liaison workers, site manager, cook, cleaner, school crossing patrol, road safety officer, work experience, MDAs, secretary. On average, headteachers indicated working daily with four other people/groups of people, compared to fewer than two for class teachers and supply teachers.

Tables 7.2 and 7.3 illustrate the different groups of people worked with daily by teachers with different roles in primary and secondary schools.

**Table 7.2: The people that primary teachers work with daily: those selected by more than 20%, by professional role of teacher**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supply teacher</th>
<th>Class teacher</th>
<th>Cross school role</th>
<th>Asst/ deputy head</th>
<th>Headteacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teaching assistant (57%)</td>
<td>teaching assistant (84%)</td>
<td>teaching assistant (87%)</td>
<td>teaching assistant (86%)</td>
<td>other teachers (90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other teachers (33%)</td>
<td>other teachers (56%)</td>
<td>other teachers (55%)</td>
<td>other teachers (74%)</td>
<td>senior leaders/ managers (81%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senior leaders / managers (20%)</td>
<td>senior leaders / managers (29%)</td>
<td>senior leaders / management (74%)</td>
<td>teaching assistants (79%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nursery nurses (24%)</td>
<td>bursar (35%)</td>
<td>bursar/ business manager (68%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher level teaching assistants (20%)</td>
<td>higher level teaching assistants (29%)</td>
<td>parents (44%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (26%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>nursery nurse (35%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parents (25%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>higher level teaching assistant (29%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7.3: The people that secondary teachers work with daily: those selected by more than 20%, by professional role of teacher**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supply teacher</th>
<th>Class teacher</th>
<th>Cross school role</th>
<th>Asst/ deputy head</th>
<th>Headteacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>other teachers (45%)</td>
<td>other teachers (62%)</td>
<td>other teachers (76%)</td>
<td>senior leaders /managers (91%)</td>
<td>other teachers (96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching assistant (31%)</td>
<td>teaching assistant (29%)</td>
<td>teaching assistant (34%)</td>
<td>other teachers (89%)</td>
<td>senior leaders/ managers (96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (23%)</td>
<td>senior leaders /managers (33%)</td>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (31%)</td>
<td>bursar/ business manager (75%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senior leaders /managers (21%)</td>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (31%)</td>
<td>teaching assistants (45%)</td>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (30%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>trainee teachers and support staff (43%)</td>
<td>teaching assistants (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bursar (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>learning mentors (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>parents (21%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Figure 7.5 and Tables 7.2 and 7.3, teachers most frequently work with other teachers, teaching assistants and senior leaders/managers. More than 80% of teachers said that they work with other teachers daily or at least once a week, and a similar number indicated that they work with teaching assistants daily or at least once a week. Fifty-eight percent said that they work with senior leaders or managers daily or at least once a week. A third of teachers reported working daily or at least once a week with trainee staff (trainee teachers or support staff) and parents or other volunteers in school.

Of the options listed on the questionnaire, probation officers, educational psychologists and police were worked with least frequently, and a high proportion of respondents indicated that they never worked with these groups (see Figure 7.5). Factor analysis showed that these options together formed a group of responses with the addition of social workers and nurse/health visitor. We refer to this group as ‘external professionals’.

The second group indicated by factor analysis was made up of: other teachers, senior leader/manager(s), trainee teachers and support staff, bursar/business manager and learning mentor(s). We refer to this group as ‘teaching, management and administration staff’. The third group was made up of parents and other volunteers working in school, teaching assistants, nursery nurses and HLTAs. This group is referred to as ‘support staff and volunteers’. There were patterns in the extent to which teachers in different roles and school phases worked with these groups, and these are examined in more detail below.

Headteachers indicated working with other groups of people more frequently than those in any other role\(^{101}\). Figure 7.6 compares their responses with those of class teachers. Regression analysis of the scores from the factor analysis also illustrated this; headteachers and assistant/deputy heads had higher scores for the first two groups, ‘external professionals’ and ‘teaching, management and administration staff’.

![Figure 7.6: Percentage of class teachers and headteachers indicating that they worked daily with selected roles](image)

\(^{101}\) ANOVA F(6, 3658)=158.8, p=0.000. Post hoc Tukey’s tests show headteachers working daily with a mean of 4.4 groups. This is higher than any other group (0.05 significance).
There were also differences between phases in the patterns of working with others. Sixty-nine percent of teachers in secondary schools and 65% of teachers in other settings reported working daily with other teachers, while only 59% of primary school teachers and 39% of LEA/supply agency teachers did so.\footnote{Chi-squared 156.2, df=12, p=0.000 (due to the small volume of responses in certain categories, this test collapsed the categories ‘once a month’ ‘once a term’ and ‘occasionally’).}

Figure 7.6 also illustrates the contrast between primary and secondary class teachers in the numbers who said that they worked with parents and other volunteers in the school (more frequent for primary class teachers) and with trainee teachers and support staff (more frequent for secondary class teachers). The regression analysis again illustrates this.

For the first factor ‘external professionals’, teachers in special schools/nursery schools/pupil referral units and primary and secondary teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge and of linguistic/socioeconomic challenge have significantly higher scores; that is, they work more frequently with social workers, health visitors, educational psychologists, and so on.

For the second factor ‘teaching, management and administration staff,’ secondary teachers have a significantly higher score. For the final group of responses, ‘support staff and volunteers’, teachers in secondary schools and supply/LEA settings have a lower score than teachers in primary schools, and teachers in special schools/nursery schools/pupil referral units have a higher score.

These data illustrate particular patterns in the use of support staff by sector. Thirty-seven percent of teachers in other settings (which includes nurseries) said that they worked daily with nursery nurses. Primary teachers and teachers in other settings worked more frequently with teaching assistants (over 80% of teachers in each of these settings work daily with teaching assistants, compared to 32% of secondary teachers).\footnote{Chi-squared 943.7, df=12, p=0.000 (due to the small volume of responses in certain categories, this test collapsed the categories ‘once a month’ ‘once a term’ and ‘occasionally’).} Secondary teachers worked more frequently with learning mentors (59% of secondary staff have worked with learning mentors, compared to only 44% of primary). In both primary and secondary schools, teachers in schools in the highest quartile of attainment /SEN challenge work most frequently with learning mentors (primary: 12% in lowest quartile compared with 24% in highest; secondary 16% in lowest and 39% in highest).\footnote{Chi-squared=61.3, df=15, p=0.000 (primary) Chi squared=72.0, df=15, p=0.000 (secondary)} The same pattern was seen in schools with high linguistic/ socio-economic challenge. Working with higher level teaching assistants remained relatively infrequent, although this can be expected to rise over the next year.

How do teachers contribute in teams of professionals from different agencies?

The GTC was particularly interested to know what particular contributions that teachers bring to multi-agency working. Question 16 asked those who work in such teams to indicate from a list provided the ways in which they regularly or occasionally contributed. This question was preceded by a filter question, so that only those who had worked in teams of professionals from different agencies were asked to respond. Only 1500 teachers (41% of all respondents) answered any part of this question, suggesting that almost 59% of teachers do not work in such teams.
A higher percentage of headteachers indicated experience of working in teams of professionals from different agencies than of other teachers; however 29% of headteachers apparently had no experience of this. While the percentage of primary and secondary headteachers who had worked in teams of professionals was similar, a higher proportion of class teachers and teachers with a cross-school role in primary schools had done so in comparison with their counterparts in secondary schools\textsuperscript{105}. In both primary and secondary schools the proportion of teachers who had worked in such teams was higher in the schools with higher attainment /SEN challenge (in primary schools, 43% of teachers from the lowest quartile of attainment /SEN challenge, compared to 54% from the highest quartile, and in secondary 22% in the lowest quartile compared to 37% in the highest), indicating that multi-agency work may be better developed or more common in these schools\textsuperscript{106}.

Later on in the survey (Question 20) teachers were asked to indicate which of a list of initiatives were helping to improve education; the list included Every Child Matters. Given the strong emphasis on multi-agency working in Every Child Matters, it was interesting to see that a greater percentage of those who indicated some experience of multi-agency working in Question 16 also selected Every Child Matters as an initiative that was helping teachers to make a difference (64% of those who answered some part of Question 16 also selected Every Child Matters in Question 20 compared to 45% of those who indicated no experience of working in teams of different professionals).

One of the challenges highlighted by multi-agency work in a variety of settings (e.g. the evaluation of Sure Start (Turnstill \textit{et al.} 2005) has been clarifying the roles and contributions of different professionals within multi-agency teams. For this reason, we were interested in investigating the ways in which teachers had been able to contribute to the work of teams in which they had worked. The responses to this question are shown in Figure 7.7. In discussing this question we refer to percentages of those who had experienced working in teams of professionals from different agencies, rather than of the whole sample.

The most common contributions reported by teachers were sharing information about individual pupils (95% indicated that they did this regularly or occasionally) and offering a perspective on children’s experiences in school (89% regularly or occasionally). The least frequent contribution was leading or managing the team; only 40% of the teachers answering the question indicated that they had any experience of leading or managing a team of professionals from different agencies.

Finally teachers were asked what they believed to be the impact on teaching and learning of working in teams of professionals from different agencies. Of the teachers that answered this question, 84% selected ‘a positive impact’, 12% ‘no impact’ and 1% ‘a negative impact’. The remainder selected ‘not applicable’. Several people gave a conditional response, suggesting, for example, that the impact varied between different agencies and different staff.

\textsuperscript{105} Class teacher primary 42.9%, secondary 19%, Chi-squared 143.5, df=3, p=0.000, Cross-school role primary 50.5, secondary 34.7%, Chi-Squared= 19.3, df=3, p=0.000.

\textsuperscript{106} Chi squared = 9.5, df=3, p=0.023 (primary) Chi squared=23.6, df=3, p=0.000 (secondary)
7.2.3 Influences over teaching and learning

One of the research questions posed by the GTC was ‘What would teachers most like to see having a greater influence over how schools (and/or their own school) develop for the benefit of children’s development and learning?’ Question 17 asked teachers to select from a list who or what they would like to see having a greater influence in the future over teaching and learning in their school. An open question asked respondents to give details if they selected ‘religious groups’ or ‘other’.

Figure 7.8 shows that the majority of teachers indicated that they would like to see ‘the whole staff of the school’ and ‘the teachers’ having a greater influence over teaching and learning in their school; 90% of all respondents selected one or both of these options. Fifty-eight percent indicated that the pupils should have a greater influence. ‘Evidence from research’ was selected by 37%, and parents by 32%. None of the other options were selected by more than 30% of the teachers. The options selected by fewest teachers were religious groups (5%), Specialist Schools and Academies Trust (7%) and Ofsted (7%). Of the 187 teachers who selected religious groups, the majority wrote in comments that referred to groups in the local area (Christian and other faiths). Ten teachers added negative comments about the involvement of religious groups, including ‘Absolutely not’, ‘God forbid!’ and ‘Not at all, totally inappropriate!’

There were 138 teachers who did not select any of the groups and organisations listed. Some of these added comments to explain their non-response. Many of these indicated that no more influences were needed in schools:

*Already influenced by all.*

*Good balance already*

*None really - I think our current balance is about right.*

*We have lots of positive influences already.*
Nevertheless, of the various organisations listed, the GTC was the second most frequently selected (DfES 17%, GTC 14%, QCA 14%, TDA 12%, NCSL 8%, SSAT 7%).

Figure 7.8: What or who would you most like to see having a greater influence in the future over teaching and learning in your school? (N = 3665)

There were also a number of comments written in next to certain options, for example, business interests, ‘depends upon interests’, ‘never, these people should never influence education’; DfES, ‘no! world’s biggest producer of paperwork’; and Ofsted, ‘definitely not’. Perhaps because the questionnaire came from the GTC, the option attracting the most comments was the GTC (N = 15):

If it listens to us.
I still fail to see the influence of the GTC in my working life and resent the obligation to subscribe.
What do they do ?!!!

The mean number of options selected was 4.6 (median 4), although there was a wide variation. Regression modelling suggests that, controlling for other variables, headteachers and assistant/deputy heads selected more options than class teachers, and supply teachers selected fewer than class teachers. Longer-serving teachers selected fewer options than teachers more recently entered into service.
Of the most commonly selected eight options, the first five were common to all types of teachers across all schools. Teacher unions were selected by a higher percentage of supply teachers, class teachers and teachers with cross-school roles (28 -29%) than of headteachers (9%) and assistant/deputy heads (13%). In contrast, a higher percentage of headteachers (32%) and assistant/deputy heads (21%) selected the National College for School Leadership, compared with class teachers (4%). Similarly, the school governing body was more often selected by headteachers (51%) and assistant/deputy heads (39%) than of supply teachers, class teachers and teachers with a cross school role (24%).

A few options were chosen more frequently by teachers in challenging schools. Those working in schools in the highest quartile of attainment/SEN challenge more often selected parents (primary: 43% in the highest quartile, 24% in the lowest; secondary: 39% in highest quartile, 21% in the lowest107), and community groups (primary, 24%, 12%; secondary 19%, 9%108). A higher proportion of secondary teachers in the highest quartile selected the local authority (16% compared to 10%109). Those working in primary schools in the highest quartile of linguistic/socio-economic challenge more often selected community groups (22% in the highest quartile, 16% in the lowest110) and the DfES (19%, 15%111).

7.2.4 Opportunities to innovate

The GTC’s research questions included: ‘What do teachers think/feel about their own capacity to innovate and lead change?’ Question 18 therefore asked teachers to indicate how far they agreed or disagreed with three statements about their ability to innovate in the classroom, bring about change in the school and influence change in national level policy. Responses are shown on Figure 7.9.

Figure 7.9: To what extent do you believe that teachers in your school have opportunities to innovate and lead change? (N=3665)

Most teachers agreed or strongly agreed that teachers have the opportunity to innovate in their classroom. However, fewer teachers agreed that teachers have the opportunity

107 Primary: Chi squared=36.7, df=3, p=0.000, Secondary Chi squared=29.5, df=3, p=0.000
108 Primary: Chi squared=19.7, df=3, p=0.000 Secondary: Chi squared=16.2, df=3, p=0.001
109 Chi squared=8.7, df=3, p=0.033
110 Chi squared=7.9, df=3, p=0.048
111 Chi squared=8.1, df=3, p=0.044
to bring about change in the school, and fewer still that teachers have the opportunity to influence change at national policy level. Each of these is discussed in turn.

Innovation in the classroom
Thirty-nine percent of teachers strongly agreed that teachers in their school have opportunities to innovate in their own classrooms, and an additional 45% agreed with this statement. Only 5% either disagreed or strongly disagreed.

There was considerable variation related to the professional role of the teachers (Figure 7.10). A higher percentage of supply teachers disagreed with the statement, and the highest percentage of agreement among headteachers and assistant/deputy heads agree. Thus 19% of supply teachers strongly agreed, compared to 37% of class teachers, 54% of assistant/deputy heads and 57% of headteachers. In addition, a high percentage of supply teachers did not give a response to this question, indicating that they did not see this as relevant to them, or they were not sure whether teachers could bring about change or not.

A higher proportion of teachers in other settings (59%) (special schools/nurseries/pupil referral units) strongly agree that ‘teachers in my school have opportunities to innovate in the classroom’ compared with teachers in primary and secondary schools and LEA/supply teachers (between 26 and 41%).

Bringing about change in the school
Compared to the statement about innovation in the classroom, fewer teachers strongly agreed that ‘teachers in my school have opportunities to bring about change in the school’. Just over half of the sample (53%) agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. Again, a smaller percentage of supply teachers and class teachers strongly agreed than did assistant/deputy heads and headteachers (Figure 7.11).

---

112 Chi-squared=197.6, df=15, p=0.000 (due to the low levels of response in certain categories, the disagree categories have been collapsed, and no response excluded in this test)

113 Chi squared = 105.3, df=9, p=0.000 (due to the low levels of response in certain categories, the disagree categories have been collapsed, and no response excluded in this test)
There was also a difference between the phases. A higher percentage of primary school teachers and teachers in other settings agreed that teachers have the opportunity to bring about change in the school compared to teachers in secondary schools or working for LEAs/supply agencies\textsuperscript{114}. In particular, a higher proportion of class teachers in these settings gave a positive rating to this question.

Several teachers also wrote in additional comments highlighting how both opportunities to innovate in the classroom and to bring about change in the school were dependent on factors within the school, such as the school management:

\textit{Varies greatly in schools – depends upon headteacher.}

[indicating agreement with statements about innovation in the classroom and change in the school] \textit{Only under old management - all changed now - I’m not staying in that job.}

In the primary sector, school size was related to responses to both this question and the previous one about the classroom. Teachers working in smaller primary schools were significantly more likely to indicate that they could bring about change and innovate\textsuperscript{115}. However, there was no relationship between secondary school size and responses to these questions.

\textit{Influencing change at national policy level}

Very few teachers agreed with the statement ‘Teachers in my school have opportunities to influence change at national policy level’ (strongly agree 1%; agree 4%). The majority of teachers either disagreed (35%), or strongly disagreed (36%).

There were very slight differences between the responses of teachers in different roles. However, these were more to do with the strength of the disagreement than any essential difference of opinion. Thus it is clear that teachers do not believe that they are able to influence change at national policy level. One teacher who strongly disagreed wrote:

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{114} Chi squared = 469.2, df=16, p=0.000 (due to low frequencies, the disagree and strongly disagree category has been collapsed)
\item \textsuperscript{115} Anova, p = 0.000
\end{itemize}
Most of the time they are so scared of the govt./LEA that they won’t do either of these.

Another simply wrote ‘A real problem’ next to this answer.

It is interesting to note that those teachers who strongly disagreed with the statements about bringing about change in the school and influencing change at national policy level were also the teachers who ticked the fewest opinions when asked who or what they would like to have a greater influence over teaching and learning (Question 17). This is in the main because headteachers ticked the most options and were also most positive about teachers having the opportunities to bring about change in the school and at national policy level. However, it may suggest that those teachers who feel in control of their work and able to influence change in their school are more open to others also having influences in schools.

Clearly it is unlikely that teachers can have much influence over government policy at an individual level, but there are channels through which they can have a collective voice. These include teacher unions and associations, and the GTC. One of the GTC’s principles is that it is ‘a professional voice on teaching’, which advises the government on the basis of research evidence and ‘teachers’ experience and expertise’. This is the way in which ‘teachers’ professional knowledge and concerns can influence education policy and the GTC can promote solutions that teachers believe can work’ (GTC website).

7.2.5 Professional Standards Framework

The Professional Standards Framework (PSF) sets out the expectations of ten different dimensions of teaching and leadership (e.g. the standards for QTS, induction, Advanced Skills Teachers, threshold, headship etc). The Teachernet website explains that the aim of the PSF is to show teachers how they can develop at different stages in their career by taking on new roles and recognise both their existing expertise and skills they would like to build on. Thus the PSF is intended to have a role in promotions and appointments (for example, to AST and headship) and in performance management including the threshold assessment. Teachers are advised to develop a professional development portfolio in which they record CPD activity undertaken, and collect evidence towards specific standards.

Question 19 was designed to explore how the PSF is being used; respondents were asked to indicate how often it is used in specific contexts in their school. Teachers were asked to select from the options: ‘always’, ‘occasionally’, ‘not at all’ and ‘I don’t know’. In addition, following the piloting of the questionnaire, we also included the option, ‘I don’t understand how the Professional Standards Framework would be used in this context’. Responses are shown on Table 7.4.

It is somewhat reassuring to see that only around 7% of teachers said that they did not understand how the PSF would be used in the various contexts listed. Supply teachers were more likely than other groups to indicate this (around 12% did so for each context). Around 8% of class teachers and those in a cross-school role said they did not understand how it would be used, and so, astonishingly, did a few assistant and deputy heads and headteachers. (Two headteachers did not understand how it would be used in relation to recruitment, and eight in relation to training and school improvement).
Table 7.4 In your work context, to what extent is the Professional Standards Framework being used in each of the following areas? (N=3665)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>always %</th>
<th>occasionally %</th>
<th>not at all %</th>
<th>don’t know %</th>
<th>I don’t understand how it would be used in this context %</th>
<th>no response %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>performance management</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recruitment of teaching staff</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional development portfolios</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promotions</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-school professional development activity</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training and school improvement delivered by external agencies</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most frequently selected response was ‘don’t know’. Again, supply teachers were more likely than other groups to indicate that they did not know the extent to which it was used, while the majority of assistant and deputy heads and headteachers did know. Nevertheless, three headteachers did not know the extent to which it was used in their school in relation to recruitment, 18 in relation to professional development portfolios, and 35 in relation to training and school improvement delivered by external agencies. When all the responses in the ‘don’t know’ and ‘don’t understand’ categories are put together with the non-responses, it is apparent that around half the sample were unclear about the use of the PSF in every context except performance management, where 37% were in this category (Figure 7.12).

Figure 7.12: ‘To what extent is the Professional Standards framework used ...’ by professional role. ‘Don't know’ and ‘don't understand how it would be used’ and no response (N = 3323)

The two most frequent uses of the PSF reported were in performance management (31% ‘always’, 26% ‘occasionally’) and recruitment of teaching staff (29% ‘always’, 17% or ‘occasionally’) (Table 7.4). Most teachers have experience of performance management, particularly in relation to threshold assessment (however, this would not necessarily be the case for supply teachers); however, their responses suggest that the PSF has not been explicitly used. Responses varied considerably by professional
role\(^{116}\); this resulted in some interesting contradictions. For example, while 26% of class teachers indicated that the PSF was always used in performance management, 63% of headteachers (who were presumably responsible for carrying out the performance management) said the same.

It is interesting that while 64% of headteachers indicated that the PSF was ‘always’ used in recruitment of teaching staff, only 40% indicated that it was ‘always’ used in promotions, suggesting that different standards may be applied in relation to internal and external appointments.

The contexts in which the fewest respondents indicated that the PSF was ‘always’ or ‘occasionally’ used were professional development activity in school (15% ‘always’, 30% ‘occasionally’) and training and school improvement delivered by external agencies (10% ‘always’, 25% ‘occasionally). Thus the link between professional development activity performance management and career progression did not seem to be fully established.

### 7.2.6 Government initiatives

The final research question posed by the GTC was ‘What national initiatives are perceived to be effective?’ This has been addressed in all the GTC surveys to date. Each questionnaire has included a list of initiatives that are current at the time, and has asked teachers to select those that ‘are helping teachers to make a difference in improving education in England’. For the 2006 survey it was decided that it might be helpful to also include a column in which teacher could indicate if they had no experience of a particular initiative. In this way it was hoped that we could assess whether the small numbers responding in some cases were simply a reflection of their lack of experience of particular initiatives. Thus Question 20 consisted of a list of 18 government initiatives and policies; teachers were also invited to write in any others they considered were helping teachers to make a difference to improving education.

A large minority of teachers wrote a wide variety of comments on and around this question. Most wished to indicate the complexity of their views on particular initiatives. For example, they wrote things like ‘if used properly’, ‘if funded properly’, ‘too soon to tell’, ‘not always’, ‘if you have the money’, ‘in principle’. This was particularly the case for inclusion, where comments included ‘would help if funding was more forthcoming for SEN pupils’ ‘not for all pupils’ and ‘depends on the need of the pupil’.

In addition, some teachers gave responses indicating that policies or initiatives were not making a difference, or were having a negative effect on education. At least 110 teachers wrote in comments about the wording of the question.

\[\text{Why have you not included a ‘not helping’ box? You’ve clearly written the question to get the answers you want.}\]

More than 200 teachers found some way of giving an explicit negative response: by adding an additional column, writing ‘no’ next to particular initiatives, using both

---

\(^{116}\) Binary logistic regression modelling of the probability that teachers would respond always or occasionally showed the largest odds ratios for headteachers and deputy/assistant heads (Appendix C).
ticks and crosses or changing the question wording to allow negative answers\textsuperscript{117}. Where negative responses were indicated, the most frequently selected initiatives/policies were inclusion, national statutory tests, performance tables and the creation of Teaching and Learning Responsibility posts.

Table 7.5 sets out the responses to this question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>This is helping teachers to make a difference (%)</th>
<th>I have no experience of this</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment for Learning (AfL)</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National strategies for teaching and learning</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every Child Matters</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School workforce remodeling</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalised learning</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiatives relating to information and communication technologies in schools</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes to the inspection framework in September 2005</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statutory teacher assessment</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of Teaching and Learning Responsibility posts</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Schools for the Future</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion in mainstream schooling of pupils with special needs</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist schools</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National statutory tests</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation partnerships (enabling schools to work together)</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funded networks of schools</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National non-statutory tests (e.g. Year 5 tests)</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance tables</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended schools</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academies</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textit{No experience of initiatives}

Teachers were able to tick to indicate if they had no experience of particular initiatives or policies. Overall, more than one third of teachers indicated that they had no experience of academies, funded networks of schools, initiatives relating to information and communication technologies in schools, extended school and foundation partnerships.

This question again illustrates the very different experiences of teachers in different roles and settings. In all named initiatives and policies, the percentage of supply teachers indicating no experience of an initiative was higher than the percentage of

\textsuperscript{117} The variety of ways in which teacher altered this question mean that without a complete re-entry of the data, we cannot be completely sure that all negative responses have been noted. For this reason we can only give the minimum number who responded in this way, not a precise figure.
class teachers, which was higher than the percentage of teachers with a cross school role, which was higher than the percentage of assistant/deputy heads and headteachers. Similarly, for all initiatives except national statutory and non-statutory tests, the highest percentage of teachers ticking ‘I have not experience of this’ worked for LEA or supply agencies. In the case of national tests, a higher percentage of teachers in other settings had no experience than teachers working in mainstream primary or secondary, or for LEA/supply agencies. Other differences were as might be predicted by the nature of the initiative: for example, 45% of primary teachers indicated that they had no experience of specialist schools compared to 18% of secondary school teachers.

Interestingly, 35% of class teachers indicated that they had no experience of workforce remodelling (though no headteachers indicated this). This may reflect the way in which changes that affect class teachers are not always labelled or understood as part of particular initiatives.

Initiatives that make a difference

Figure 7.13 shows that the government initiatives and policies that teachers most often identified as helping teachers to make a difference to improving education were Assessment for Learning and national strategies for teaching and learning (both selected by 58% of respondents). Over 50% of teachers selected Every Child Matters. The three initiatives selected by the fewest teachers were academies (2%), extended schools (12%) and performance tables (12%). This may in part be due to the fact that many teachers had no experience of academies. Forty-six percent of teachers indicated that they had no experience of academies and 34% no experience of extended schools.

The mean number of initiatives or policies selected as helping to make a difference was 5.6 (median 5). Regression modelling showed that, controlling for other variables, supply teachers ticked approximately one less initiative, and assistant/deputy heads and headteachers ticked approximately two more initiatives than classroom teachers. Longer-serving teachers ticked fewer initiatives than teachers who had more recently entered into service.

As previously noted, not all initiatives were present in all sectors to the same extent and these differences can be seen in the percentages of teachers in different settings who selected different initiatives (e.g. specialist schools were more frequently selected by secondary teachers, national strategies by primary teachers). One other difference between settings was particularly marked: inclusion was more frequently selected by teachers in other settings (41% compared to 24% in primary schools and 20% in secondary schools).

This question was not the same as in previous years, with the addition of extra initiatives and the addition of the ‘I have no experience of this’ category, and so is not directly comparable, in that the existence of an extra column may have impacted on responses about what had made a difference. However, Table 7.6 compares the percentages of teachers who indicated that specific initiatives and polices were helping teachers to make a difference’ with those from previous surveys.
Figure 7.13: Percentage of teachers indicating that various initiatives are helping teachers make a difference to education, or that they have no experience of the initiative.

This is making a difference
I have no experience of this
Table 7.6 Comparison of percentage selecting different initiatives as helping teachers to make a difference in improving education 2004 - 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School workforce remodeling</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiatives relating to information and communication technologies in schools (eg Harnessing Technology, ICT Mark, Hands on Support)</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National strategies for teaching and learning</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalised learning</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National statutory tests</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statutory teacher assessment</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance tables</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation partnerships</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academies</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist schools</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funded networks of schools</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion in mainstream schooling of pupils with special needs</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building Schools for the Future</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N                                           4370  4184  3665

ICT was the most commonly selected initiative in 2005. However, in 2006 the wording was changed to list specific funded ICT initiatives (Harnessing Technology, ICT Mark, Hands on Support). This change probably accounts for the decrease from being selected by 60% of respondents in 2005 to 34% in 2006. National strategies remain in second place, having been selected by 45% of respondents in 2005 and 58% in 2004. There were also increases in the percentages of teachers selecting national statutory tests, performance tables and inclusion as helping teachers to make a difference.

7.3 National initiatives: Summary

PPA time

- Seventy-one percent of teachers were getting their full allocation of PPA time. Fifteen percent of class teachers, 19% of teachers with a cross school role, 23% of assistant/deputy heads and 37% of headteachers were getting some PPA time, but not all their entitlement, or rarely had PPA time.

- Respondents were mainly positive about PPA time: over 50% agreed that it enabled them to reflect on their assessment of children’s needs and target lessons more precisely, and enabled them to teach better because they feel more prepared. Compared to 2005 the percentages agreeing with all the statements about PPA time have decreased, perhaps indicating that not all expectations have been met.

- Comments suggested that primary class teachers are positive about PPA time and feel it has had positive impacts on their lives and work. Many primary
headteachers, are concerned about the impacts on pupil behaviour and learning, on their own work (both in terms of time spent organising PPA and time spent providing cover), and impacts on the school budget and other activities such as CPD. Some primary teachers commented that they are now undertaking work that was previously undertaken by teaching assistants (such as photocopying and putting up displays), while the teaching assistants take their classes.

- Secondary teachers also made positive comments about guaranteed PPA time that cannot be suddenly taken up with cover. However, many comments indicated that in terms of overall time available, PPA time has had a limited impact. Secondary teachers also commented that the time is often taken up with a wide range of non-PPA activities, such as pastoral work and curricular responsibilities.

**Working with others**

- Over 50% of teachers work daily or at least once a week with other teachers, teaching assistants, senior leaders/managers.
- Headteachers and assistant/deputy heads work more frequently with others, and with a wider range of others than teachers with other roles.
- Very few teachers work frequently with probation officers, police, social workers, nurse/health visitors and educational psychologists. Those who do generally work in more academically challenging primary or secondary schools, or in other settings (special schools, PRUs or nurseries).
- Secondary staff work more frequently with other teachers, trainee teachers or support staff, bursars and learning mentors than primary teachers; primary staff work more frequently with parents and other volunteers, teaching assistants, higher level teaching assistants and nursery nurse than do secondary teachers.
- Forty-one percent of the sample had worked in teams of professionals from different agencies. Their most frequent contribution to these teams was sharing information about individual pupils and offering a perspective on children’s experiences in school.

**Influences over teaching and learning**

- Ninety percent of respondents selected either ‘the teachers’ or ‘the whole staff of the school’ (or both) as the group that they would most like to have a greater influence over teaching and learning in the school.
- Approximately three fifths of teachers selected ‘the pupils’ and over one-third ‘the parents’ as who they would like to have a greater influence over the school.
- There were slight differences between teachers with different professional roles; assistant/deputy heads and headteachers on average selected more responses, and chose different options (the governing body and the NCSL instead of teacher unions and associations).

**Opportunities to innovate and lead change**

- Over 80% of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that teachers have the opportunity to innovate in their classroom, over 50% that teachers have the opportunity to
bring about change in the school, but only 5% that they have the opportunity to influence change at national policy level.

- A higher proportion of headteachers and deputy/assistant heads agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to innovate in the classroom and bring about change in the school than do classroom teachers or supply teachers.

- A higher proportion of teachers in other settings agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to innovate in the classroom compared to secondary, primary or supply/LEA teachers and a higher proportion of teachers in other setting and in primary schools agree that teachers in their school have opportunities to bring about change in the school compared secondary of LEA/supply teachers.

**Professional Standards Framework**

- The two most frequent uses reported by teachers were in recruitment of teaching staff and performance management. However, in all of the questions the largest group of respondents were those indicating that they did not know how frequently the PSF was being used or did not understand how it might be used.

- A higher percentage of headteachers and deputy/assistant heads indicated that the PSF was ‘always’ used in each of the contexts listed, in comparison with classroom teachers.

**Government initiatives**

- The government initiatives most teachers identified as helping teachers to make a difference to improving education are Assessment for Learning and national strategies for teaching and learning (each selected by 58% of respondents). Over 50% of teachers also selected Every Child Matters.

- The three initiatives selected by the fewest teachers were academies (2.5%), extended schools (12.1%) and performance tables (12.3%).

- More than one third of teachers indicated that they had no experience of academies, funded networks of schools, initiatives relating to information and communication technologies in schools, extended school and foundation partnerships.

- A lower percentage of respondents selected ICT than in 2005. However, national strategies was the second most frequently selected initiative in both 2005 and 2006.
Chapter 8: Discussion

In the previous chapters, we have reported in considerable detail both the broad pattern of responses to each survey question, and the variation in response across different groups of teachers. In this concluding chapter, we review what all this information has told us about the teaching profession and the views and experiences of the various groups within it.

The very wide variety of responses has highlighted the diversity within the profession. This is not simply in relation to professional role, school phase and personal characteristics of teachers, though the diversity in relation to all of these variables is considerable. There is also diversity relating to the school contexts in which teachers are working, and to the motivations and priorities of the teachers themselves. In this chapter, we attempt to draw out some of the key points relating to specific groups.

Throughout the report we have indicated that the greatest differences in response related to professional role, and we have shown in relation to many of the questions, that there was a neat pattern in which supply teachers were at one extreme and headteachers at the other, with class teachers, those with a cross-school role and assistant and deputy heads ranged in between these two extremes.

There was also considerable diversity within each group. For example, there were differences between supply teachers relating to age and experience; the most recently qualified were keen to get permanent posts and to engage in more professional development, while the older supply teachers tended to be ‘winding down’ into retirement. But the responses of the supply teachers as a group gave a consistent impression of being marginal to the profession as a whole. Many of the questionnaires they returned were only partially filled in, generally because they indicated that some of the questions were not applicable to them. This included questions that focused on policies, practices and priorities within the school, questions about professional development, PPA time, ability to innovate, and the Professional Standards Framework. Yet supply teachers play a considerable role in many schools, and it is worrying that more than half indicated that their professional development needs are not being met, and they feel so marginal.

Of the regular teachers in a school, class teachers and headteachers tended to be the two groups with the most contrasting responses. This appeared to be partly because they had very different perspectives on their careers. Many of the older class teachers prioritised their family responsibilities, and did not want to progress up the career ladder. The differences also suggested that headteachers have greater opportunities to meet and work with other professionals and colleagues from other schools, while class teachers often have a more restricted perspective. This was very evident in responses relating to strategies for tackling underachievement, where, in comparison with headteachers, class teachers gave greater emphasis to organisation of teaching groups. The headteachers more often responded in terms of school ethos, professional development and multi-agency approaches and working with parents. The class teachers were not necessarily content with their rather limited focus; like those in other professional roles, more than 60% of them indicated that they would like more opportunities to work with other schools and to observe other teachers.
In comparison with those in promoted roles, class teachers indicated that their professional development needs were less well met, and that they had less professional development in the last year. They were less likely than those in other roles to feel that professional development was valued in their school, or that there were clear procedures in which professional development activity followed evaluation and was related to need. They were also less likely to feel that they could innovate and bring about change in their classroom or in the school. They had less awareness of the school policies than those in more senior roles. In comparison with those in promoted roles, they indicated a more limited awareness of the Professional Standards Framework and how it could be used. While class teachers’ responses were often less positive than those of teachers in promoted roles, this group (and particularly those in primary schools) reported that the introduction of PPA time had had a positive impact on their work-life balance and on their planning, teaching and ability to work collaboratively with colleagues.

In contrast to the class teachers, the headteachers were more likely than those in other roles to have responded positively in all the areas listed above. In particular, they were the group that was most contented that their professional development needs had been met, and they appeared to have experienced the most professional development activity. They also had a more positive view of the school ethos and practices in relation to professional development. They were more open to outside influences on the school, and on average indicated that more government initiatives were making a difference. While this all sounds very positive, almost a third of the headteachers reported that while PPA time had benefited the teachers in their schools, it had increased their own workload and stress levels, in that they were often covering for PPA across the school, and trying to stretch budgets which they perceived as inadequate to provide proper cover arrangements.

While headteachers and class teachers were at opposite ends of the spectrum of responses, those with promoted roles (cross-school roles, assistant and deputy headships) were positioned between the two. It is not possible to say whether gaining promotion brings about a change of perspective, or whether those who seek promotion already have this; it seems likely that both factors are involved.

This survey gave us very limited information about those working part-time (most of whom we suspect are class teachers). It would be interesting to find out whether they occupy a position in this spectrum somewhere between supply teachers (who see themselves as very marginal) and class teachers.

In addition to the roles discussed so far, there were a number of teachers who worked across schools in a variety of roles. This form of work meant that, like the supply teachers, they were not always able to answer the survey questions because they did not work in particular schools. We are conscious that in writing this report we tend to have focused on the main groups, and have not always reported the perspectives of this group.

As well as differences relating to professional role, it was clear that there were considerable differences between primary and secondary teachers. The primary teachers generally seemed to be more positive in their responses. For example, more primary than secondary teachers indicated that their professional development needs were more fully met, and more of them reported that their schools were professional learning communities. There were differences by phase in relation to aspects of underachievement that should be prioritised; secondary teachers were more likely to
select options relating to national targets, while primary teachers were more likely to select those that focused on the individual.

School context was also an important aspect of the diversity of the profession. We constructed measures of school context in relation to two forms of challenge (attainment/SEN and linguistic/socioeconomic). The responses of teachers working in schools in the highest quartile of each type of challenge tended to reflect the pupils they taught. For example, those in ethnically diverse schools gave a greater emphasis to race equality policies and practices, and to adapting the curriculum to celebrate the cultures of the pupils, while those in schools with low attainment were more positive about vocational courses, and gave greater priority to social class issues.

In addition to this, there were clearly some differences that related to the location of the school. For example, the age and ethnicity distribution among teachers in London differs from those in other regions. In this survey we have not been able to analyse the differences between rural and urban schools that are suggested by the regional patterns. There are indications in the data that those teaching in small schools feel that this inhibits their career development, and clearly small schools are more often found in rural areas. But, more positively, those in small schools felt better able to innovate and bring change in the school than those in larger schools (presumably because it is difficult to ignore any individual in such small settings), and those in small primary schools were more likely than others to indicate that their professional development needs had been met.

However, these measures were not the only way in which school context appeared to impact on teachers’ perspectives. The comments that teachers wrote in about their career development indicated a very clear spectrum ranging from schools that were good places to work, with support, encouragement and even inspiration from colleagues, and good development opportunities for teachers to schools that appeared to be static and unsupportive. In secondary schools, the ethos can vary across departments; some of the reports of lack of encouragement or opportunity were at departmental rather than senior leadership level. There was no doubt that the teachers in the schools at the positive end of the spectrum felt better about themselves and their careers than those in the static and rather dull schools. The comments suggested that the school leadership was the most important factor in creating these very different ethoses. At worst, teachers worked in contexts where they were actively discouraged, bullied or subjected to prejudice. While these were a small minority of the teachers in the survey, such comments were made by one in fourteen of the respondents.

The Teacher Support Network has characterised the types of school described above as having healthy and unhealthy cultures. They define this in terms of the values and beliefs of the organisation and how these are put into practice in everyday life. Thus a healthy school is characterised by high morale, career progression, feeling that the school management is supportive, sharing concerns with colleagues, creativity and enthusiasm, and a sense of changing with the times. An unhealthy school has all the opposite characteristics: feeling that the school is ‘stuck in the past’, little support or understanding from management, and so on. These descriptions fit well with our data. Clearly the culture of a school is not only the responsibility of the senior leadership team, but they, and in particular the headteacher, have a very important role in creating this. While an effective school leader can have an enormously positive impact, it is also concerning that where a head is not doing a good job, they can have such a huge negative impact.
The key role of school leaders has long been recognised, and the creation of the National College of School Leadership was a tangible acknowledgement of the importance of this group, not only in creating the ethos within which teaches work, but the ethos within which pupils learn. This survey showed that headteachers were more satisfied that their development needs were being met than other groups of teachers, and almost a quarter of the headteachers mentioned NCSL courses as having enhanced their career development. The requirement that new headteachers have completed the NPQH ensures that those appointed to headships now must have engaged in leadership development activities. But while overall the headteachers were the most positive about their professional development, around half reported that their needs had been met only to some extent, and a few not at all. While a great deal of support is available for headteachers, there may not be sufficient mechanisms to ensure that they all avail themselves of this, and it may then be the teachers in a school who suffer the consequences of having school leaders who do not engage with professional development and the wider educational community.

In the light of the importance of headteachers in creating (or not creating) environments in which teachers can flourish, it is particularly worrying that there may not be enough teachers wanting to take on this role. Many of the headteachers were in their fifties, and a third indicated that it was highly likely that they would leave teaching in the next five years, and a further 14% that it was likely. The survey suggests that the number of headteachers contemplating leaving was equal to or greater than the number of other teachers wanting to move into headship. The best scenario suggested just enough candidates to fill posts (but not to have a good field of applicants), while the worst suggested not enough candidates.

In this context, the survey offers some interesting data about the relationship of teachers to other professionals. We have suggested that headteachers enjoy a wider perspective than class teachers because they work with other professionals and network with other headteachers. The Every Child Matters agenda aims to bring about closer links between a wide range of professionals. While in this survey the impact of this seemed to be somewhat limited, the wider perspective brought by such contacts appears to contribute to teachers’ satisfaction with their school and their career development. In this account we have not mentioned the teachers in other settings: special schools, PRUs and nurseries. Their responses distinctive in many ways. They were more likely to work in teams of other professionals and more likely to feel that they could innovate and bring about change. Their comments also suggested a strong sense of vocation. While in many of their responses they seemed to be the most positive group, they also expressed concerns about the ongoing reorganisation of special education, and the impacts of this on their career development.

What we seem to have, then, is a suggestion that teachers in schools that with a more positive ethos also tended to be outward looking, in terms of working more with other professionals, engaging in more professional development activity, and feeling positive about their career development. In contrast, some teachers worked in schools that were static and often actively negative, where they felt that they had little chance to bring about change and to develop. They were less likely to work with other professionals or to want outside groups to influence the schools.

It was interesting to note that teachers identified working in a school in special measures as both enhancing and limiting career development. One explanation of this could be that the schools in special measures do have an increased level of
engagement with outside influences (consultants, advisers etc.). Similarly, it was interesting to note that those in the more challenging schools engaged with a wider range of other professionals. Thus the challenge that comes from the pupil intake is not necessarily a factor in the ethos of the school.

In this context, many of the current policies seem to be positive – not just in terms of their potential impact on pupils, but in offering a wider perspective to teachers, and making it less feasible for a school to remain a small enclosed community. These include school networks, Foundation Partnerships, multi-agency working, leadership development. However, it is important for teachers’ well-being, as well as for pupil learning, that ways are found to enable all schools and teachers to be involved in these. However, there is clearly a balance to be struck between giving schools autonomy to decide what initiatives to take on, and employing a degree of coercion. The comments made in this survey included a number about having too many changes too fast, and wanting time to assimilate change. It is also important to ensure that all teachers feel that they are a part of the profession, and that their professional and career development are of importance; the extent to which supply teachers (and some part-time teachers) feel marginal is a concern.

This analysis suggests some areas that might be addressed in future research. These include

- Research addressing the perspectives and needs of particular groups of teachers. Examples would include: those who work part-time; those that work across schools; those in small/large schools; special school teachers.
- Research addressing particular issues, for example: what is deterring potential applicants for headship, the attitudes and perspectives of the potential future leaders.
- Research addressing the concerns that primary headteachers set out in relation to PPA time.
- Research around how CPD needs are determined in schools and by individuals, and good practice in this respect.
- Research into good practice in cross professional working.
- School cultures and how negative cultures can be improved.
References


DfES (2006c) *Advanced Skills Teachers: Promoting Excellence*, available online at www.teachernet.gov.uk/ast


Teacher Support Network (no date) *Healthy and unhealthy cultures at work*, available online at http://tsn.custhelp.com/cgi-bin/tsn.cfg/php/enduser/cls_alp.php