Self-Managing Schools in New Zealand: The Fifth Year

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ABSTRACT

Presented in this report are the results of a survey undertaken in 1993 of principals, trustees, and teachers at a national sample of 239 primary and intermediate schools, and of parents at a representative sub-sample of 26 of these schools. The aim of the study was to find out what changes had occurred at schools since the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms shifted substantial administrative and financial responsibilities from the Department of Education and Education Boards, to school staff and trustees at individual schools. Comparisons were made with the results of 3 surveys of people at the same schools, undertaken in 1989, the first year of the reforms, 1990, and 1991.

The surveys have aimed to find out the strengths of the new system, and its pressure-points. This latest survey indicates that some of the continuities from the old system, such as staffing schedules, and funding for historic costs at individual schools, have helped smooth the passage of such major reforms. It also finds that some schools have been more affected by the reforms than others.

Other major findings include:

■ 41% of teachers and 46% of principals surveyed said the quality of children's learning had improved since the shift to school-based management.

■ Parent satisfaction with the quality of their child's learning remains high: 81%. Most parents are also satisfied with the quality of information they receive about their child's progress, and their role in school life.

■ Most schools continue to enjoy good relations between teaching staff and trustees. Around 15% of schools at any one time will have some problems, but those that do arise are generally able to be solved by people at schools, with the advice and support of NZSTA, NZEI, and the Ministry of Education.

■ Most trustees are confident about their work, but show little interest in increasing their responsibilities: only 14% favour the introduction of teacher salary bulk funding. Funding and property maintenance continue to be the major issues which take board time.

■ 55% of principals now find their school funding inadequate, up from 21% in 1990. Only 16% did not apply for any additional Ministry funding in 1993.

■ More schools were raising money through business sponsorships or grants, but the total amount raised by schools was much the same as in 1991. Many schools may have reached a plateau in the amount of money they are able to raise, and the amount of parental support they can draw on for fundraising and voluntary time.

■ Apart from the board of trustees, the pattern of parental involvement has changed little since 1989.

■ Although people who were not parents could stand for election to school boards in 1992, most trustees are still parents of children at the school.

■ Schools in low income areas experience greater resource problems than others. They are also more likely to be losing students to other schools.

■   There has been an increase in the provision of programmes for children whose learning needs were not being met under the old system, but around half of the country's primary and intermediate schools have made no changes.

■   Schools with high Maori enrolment also face greater resource problems than others.

■   Schools facing competition with other local schools increased their marketing of their school, but were unlikely to make changes to their curriculum. Local curriculum innovation was rare. School marketing may come too late in any event: 63% of parents of 5 year old children had already decided which school they wanted their child to attend next.

■   Workloads are a major issue for people in schools. Principals were working on average 59.85 hours a week, teachers 48.18 hours. Teachers report that the reforms have had major negative effects on their job satisfaction.

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THE ACHIEVEMENT OF SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT IN NEW ZEALAND

In August 1988 the New Zealand government published a policy document on education administration, *Tomorrow's Schools*, which shifted responsibility for budget allocation, staff employment, and educational outcomes from government departments and education boards to individual schools. The devolution it proposed began in May 1989, and took the New Zealand education system further and faster down this route than any other Western country. This makes the New Zealand reforms of considerable interest worldwide, for such devolution of responsibility to school level was being promoted and piloted elsewhere in the 1980s (e.g. Alberta, pilots of local school management in Cambridge and Solihull in England). By now, 1994, local school management is the norm in England, looks likely to emerge in Australia, and has entered the 'reform agenda' in the United States.

In New Zealand as elsewhere, the reasons for shifting many resource decisions to school level are complex, and even contrary. Hopes of inspiring diversity appropriate to different communities, to improve parental and community involvement in education, or to make schools centres of community development, rubbed shoulders with the intention of making schools more accountable for their spending of public money, and their activities more measurable in terms decided by government. The architects of the New Zealand reforms certainly thought that educational expenditure could be made more efficient, and that savings could be made by reducing the 'bureaucracy' involved in central government departments, the inspectorate, and support services.

A variety of different shapes can be found in systems where many decisions are devolved to schools acting as individual entities. There are several dimensions where differences can occur: funding formulae, staffing formulae, property responsibilities, delegation of responsibilities (for example, to school staff only, joint staff and parental boards, boards composed of people appointed by local authorities, central government, or school districts). If there is a 'pure' model of school self-management, where all funding comes to the school, with the school taking full responsibility for its property development and staff numbers, then the English grant-maintained schools come closest to it. But like all other schools in education systems using devolution of responsibility to school level, they are not fully autonomous: government decides the curriculum, assessment and accountability frameworks within which they must operate. This is a crucial and often overlooked point in the debates about the value of school self-management. It is why the term 'self-government' is in many ways inappropriate, and why it is not used in this report.

The New Zealand reforms now offer a model of school self-management which is more balanced than the English experience. There are several reasons for this. First, the Tomorrow's Schools reforms put great stress on equity, and on improving the educational provision available to children who had historically not been as well served by the New Zealand education system as others. This means that there has been a greater emphasis on community involvement, and on providing equity funding (its adequacy is another matter). Concern to ensure equal access to educational opportunities has also been a strong factor in the opposition from both schools and educationalists to the inclusion of teacher salaries in school operational grants since this is likely to widen the resource gaps between schools serving different income groups in the long-term; it has probably also played a part in the retention of nationally set staffing schedules.

Second, there has been great emphasis on parental involvement in schools: parents form the majority on school boards.

Third, a guiding principle in the initial implementation of school self-management in New Zealand has been **partnership**: between parents and professionals at school level,

and between schools and central government.

Fourth, reviews of the support services receiving central funding have shown that the viability of such services is likely to depend on such funding, and that shifting their funding to schools on a per capita basis, or, as with the NZSTA field officer support for school boards, expecting schools to fund a new cost from their operational grants, is unlikely to provide comparable levels of service. Nonetheless, there remains pressure within government circles to move toward a more pure model of school self-management, under the rubric of offering schools more choice, by making such services contestable, or to bring them into the sphere of school responsibility.

It should also be noted that in contrast to other Western countries, New Zealand schools already enjoyed some decisionmaking powers: school staff could choose textbooks and other curriculum materials, there was a reasonably flexible national curriculum, and school boards at the secondary level had the power to appoint the school's principal. Nor did New Zealand schools have to grapple with layers of competing government (local, state, federal). Local government played no part in New Zealand administration and funding of education since education was removed from the variable provision afforded by provincial governments in the nineteenth century. Parent involvement in schools, and communication between school and parents, were also already high by overseas standards[1], though there had certainly been calls since the 1975 Educational Development Conference for more community involvement in schools and educational policymaking (Barrington 1990). Interestingly, a national opinion poll conducted for the Department of Education just before the inception of the reforms found only 15% of primary school parents, and 26% of secondary school parents dissatisfied with the current level of involvement parents could have with their child's school (Heylen 1989a).

The New Zealand reforms did not arise out of widespread dissatisfaction with the education system. The four main problems identified in a November 1987 public opinion poll (Heylen 1987) were about shortage of resources, not quality of curriculum or delivery: shortage of funds, too few teachers, inadequate buildings, and inadequate equipment.

Nonetheless, the shift to school based management which began in 1989 was a radical change for New Zealand. There were high hopes and excitement; considerable cautions and fears were also expressed.

Hopes & Fears

What were the hopes? In introducing the *Tomorrow's Schools* policy document, the then Minister of Education, David Lange, said:

> The Government is certain that the reform it proposes will result in more immediate delivery of resources to schools, more parental and community involvement, and greater teacher responsibility. It will lead to improved learning opportunities for the children of this country. The reformed administration will be sufficiently flexible and responsive to meet the particular needs of Maori education.
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> (Minister of Education 1988, iv)

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[1] For example, reports to parents on their children's progress are taken for granted in New Zealand: in contrast to the very recent introduction of the requirement that English schools provide such reports.

Other hopes were that:

■ the savings identified by the original ('Picot') working party report (Taskforce to Review Educational Administration 1988) would provide additional money for schools;

■ school charters (contracts between schools and government linked to approval for funding) would make schools more accountable for improving their provision for students from disadvantaged groups, through their mandatory components;

■ innovation in curriculum and teaching methods would be encouraged; and

■ more people would take an interest in education (Minister of Education 1988, Wylie (ed) 1988).

The fears expressed at the time were that:

■ existing resource disparities between schools would increase;

■ it would be harder to achieve equal educational and employment opportunities for members of previously disadvantaged groups in education;

■ there would be increased competition between schools, and within schools, without any educational benefits;

■ devolution would increase school workloads;

■ there would be more parochialism and insularity in schools;

■ schools would be opened to narrow interest groups;

■ voluntary boards and school staff would lack the necessary skills to take on their new responsibilities;

■ assessment and accountability would eventually drive the curriculum;

■ there would be a gradual cutback of state funding for education, with parents asked to pay more of the cost of education; and

■ there would be a gradual dissolution of a national system of education to a patchwork of variable provision. (Khan 1990, Lauder et al 1990, Wylie (ed) 1988).

These fears were not just held by educationalists, teacher unions, and quite a number of educational researchers, many of whom were in favour of the stated aims of the reforms. In the Heylen opinion poll of parents done for the Department of Education in early 1989, 73% agreed with the statement that 'Schools in different areas will not be equal as a result of the new system', 70% that 'Boards of Trustees could be taken over by parents with extreme views', 54% that 'Too many changes are taking place too quickly', and 50% that 'The Government is avoiding its responsibilities by making these changes'. Only 42% thought that 'the new system will improve standards of education' (Heylen 1989a).
     These survey results appear to have been fed into the initial implementation phase

of the changes. One reason for the wide media campaign on the initial trustee elections was to encourage wide parental participation to counter the fears of small group 'takeovers'. Staffing allocations for schools in disadvantaged areas were continued, and a separate pool of 'equity funding' established, for schools meeting set criteria. Operational grants were also based on historical costs which acknowledged regional and school size differences in prices and costs (for example, in electricity and heating), rather than nationally averaged costs.

Monitoring the Change

From a researcher's point of view, the ideal time to start the national surveys which lie behind this current report would have been a year or two before the reforms began. But policymaking does not move at a researcher's pace, or with research goals in mind! 1989 was the first year in which the New Zealand Council for Educational Research could begin its monitoring of the implementation of decentralization, and the policy's long-term effects on schools as places for learning, and on children's learning opportunities. Our first survey went out in October 1989, five months after the first boards of trustees were elected, but before they had taken on financial responsibility for school operating grants.

We have returned to the same schools again in October 1990, October 1991, and October 1993.

Trends from the first 3 NZCER Surveys[2]

Our initial report provided base-line data on curriculum provision, parental involvement and contact and some aspects of school resources and staffing which could be expected to change with the shift to school-based management. We also gathered data on workloads, relationships between people at the school, existing patterns of decisionmaking, provision for those groups of learners whom research had identified as needing more attention in the education system (Benton 1988, NZCER 1988), and existing levels of parental satisfaction.

In terms of the hope that the reforms would unleash a wave of innovation in schools it was unsettling to find in that first survey in 1989 that though people in schools were working hard to make the reforms work, they were often sceptical about their long-term effects, and were more interested into holding on to what they already had, rather than brimming with previously thwarted initiatives.

The hard work required at school level to make school self-management a reality came through again in the results of the 1990 survey. There were also tensions between people in schools and those in the newly created government departments, who were also engaged in learning new roles. The first and second years of the reforms produced a constant stream of deadlines, and changing of deadlines and requirements in the development of the charters which were to define the responsibilities of school and government, and in the development of school budgets in relatively standard public finance forms allowing government department analysis. Such a wave of paperwork, and government interest in giving schools unwanted and unsought responsibilities (mainly for teachers' salaries), created some suspicion and cynicism amongst trustees and school staff

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[2] Previous reports and articles drawing from the results of the first 4 surveys are listed in the Reference section at the end of the report.

about the reality of partnership between schools and government. At school level, partnership was more often than not the reality, with perhaps more overlapping of roles and relationships between boards and school staff ('governance' and 'management') than the reform architects had envisaged.

Those who worked in schools during this time developed some understandable confidence in the process they had pioneered. There were few who called for a full return to the old system: principals and trustees enjoyed making decisions concerning their school. The initial misgivings about adequate resourcing and growing inequity between schools did not go. There were indications emerging in the 1990 survey that schools in low income communities, or with high Maori enrolment, were less able than schools elsewhere to draw on the parental and community financial, time, and skill resources called for by the devolution of responsibility to school level.

The 1991 survey showed that the pace of reform had settled - but that the high workloads reached in 1990 remained. Financial and administrative systems were in place. The centre held off implementing the inclusion of teacher salaries into operational grants, thus seeming to heed the resistance to this which came from trustees and teachers alike. Some of the original fears voiced at the start of the reforms were receding. Professionals could work in partnership with parents who had greater powers than before. People with narrow educational views did not dominate boards of trustees, though there were pockets of difficulty. Arguably because teaching salaries were kept separate from operational grants, teachers continued to work co-operatively, and to enjoy good relations with trustees. There was still little sign of innovation or growing diversity in the work of schools, teaching and learning, however, and the indications grew stronger that school resourcing was becoming more dependent on the economic circumstances of school communities.

What Now?

What do we find in the midst of the fifth year of school self-management in New Zealand, in the results reported here of the 1993 NZCER survey?

There are 5 strands which thread through the various facets of school life reported here.

First, the very real **partnership and general goodwill between professionals and laypeople** has allowed the reforms to bed in without widespread friction. People do run (or run themselves and others) into trouble, but most of this (other than inadequacies of government grants and large or recurring problems with property) is shown to be capable of resolution within the school - often with the help of outsiders, particularly the national organizations for teachers and trustees. Recent legal cases where disputes between board and principal have come to court and the public eye are the exception, not the rule. Nonetheless, schools remain in need of support, information, and training.

Second, **workloads** are an impediment to effective partnership, and effective school self-management. Principals show more signs in this survey of some concern with the ability of their boards to cope with their workloads. There are also indications stirring within the results presented here of a growing distance between principals and their teaching staff which can undermine the principal's necessary role of educational leadership. Teacher morale is not high; and many principals grow weary of continuing high workloads.

Third, the reforms are beginning to show **positive impact in the classroom**, where people have made changes to curriculum and teaching style. It could be argued that this would be the case in any situation of curriculum change where the people involved have

seen a need for change - that this is not dependent on school self-management. But it can also be argued that the changed context of teaching has spurred, albeit indirectly, reflection on what is taught, how, and why.

Fourth, it is clear that school self-management cannot on its own salve the **differences in educational opportunities and achievement** which were two of the spurs for the reforms. The gaps continue, and they deepen.

Fifth, there is a growing sense that **resources** available to schools are not adequate. The parental concerns found in the Heylen 1987 poll were just as pronounced for people in schools, and parents, in late 1993. Parents are certainly giving more money to schools, but this is not enough to make a major difference in many schools.

Sixth, there are **limits** to what people in schools feel able to do, or decide. Sometimes they wish to set their own limits, for example, on taking responsibility for teaching salaries, or owning the school property. The desire for a pure self-management model is rare amongst those in New Zealand schools. At other times they feel powerless in the face of government desires for further change, or government action to bring schools (and voluntary boards) into line with the accountability frameworks which have been introduced over the last 7 - 8 years into the public sector.

All these strands merge into the most crucial and difficult questions of a national government funded education system which uses school self-management. What allocation of relationships and roles is most desirable and workable between government and self-managing schools? What responsibilities does the national level have for ensuring what is beyond individual schools to provide? In the fifth year of school self-management, these are the abiding questions.

SURVEY SAMPLE

Each of the four surveys carried out by NZCER in this longitudinal project on school self-management has been on the same sample of 239 schools, a 10.5% sample of all New Zealand's non-private primary and intermediate schools in 1989. The sample is a stratified random one, proportionally representative of the overall national totals - for 1989 - for type of school, school location, roll size, proportion of Maori enrolment, and whether state or integrated. The school characteristics of the sample base are set out in tables 70-72 in Appendix A, which show the representativeness of each year's survey for trustees, principals and parents in relation to both the original sample, and to 1993 Ministry of Education figures for all New Zealand non-private primary and intermediate schools. Table 73 in Appendix A shows responses in terms of the socio-economic composition of the school community, as described by principals.

For each survey round, separate questionnaires with some common questions have been sent to the principals of the sample schools, two randomly chosen trustees at each school, and between one to three teachers at each school, depending on its size. Replacement names were randomly drawn for trustees and teachers who had not returned questionnaires in the 1991 survey, or whose names no longer appeared on Ministry of Education payroll lists.

For largely practical and economic reasons, the parent sample was drawn from a subsample of 26 schools chosen to match the school characteristics of the total sample as closely as possible. Parents' names were randomly chosen on a 1 in 4 basis from class lists supplied by the schools concerned. Table 74 in Appendix A compares parental responses with national roll figures categorized by the school characteristics used in this survey.

Representativeness of the Responses

Principals

The overall response rate for principals was 79%, from 189 of the 239 schools in the survey sample. Of the survey sample schools, 101 had changed principals since the 1991 survey - 42%. Principals responded in much the same proportions, with 41% of the response coming from these 'new' principals.

Responses from principals of schools with different characteristics have been largely consistent and representative throughout the four rounds of the survey, with some continuing slight under-representation of full primary schools, and over-representation of contributing primary schools.

Teaching principals comprised 59% of those responding (1990 Ministry of Education figure was 65%). Twenty-seven percent were female (Ministry of Education 1993 figure was 28%). Most (88%) were Pakeha/European, 7% were Maori, 2% 'New Zealander', and 1% Asian. Comparable figures from the 1990 school staff census were 82% Pakeha/European, 9% Maori, less than 1% each Pacific Island and Asian.

Seventeen percent of the principals responding had become principals in the last 2 years. A further 17% had served between 3 -5 years, 22% between 6 to 10 years, 13% between 11 and 15 years, and 30% for more than 15 years. There were very few significant differences however in the responses of new and more seasoned principals to the survey questions.

A fifth of the principals (almost all teaching) were aged less than 40. Forty-three

percent were in their forties, 35% in their fifties, and 2% were 60 or more.

Trustees

The response rate for trustees was 62%, 293 of the 474 approached (2 trustees were randomly selected for each of 238 schools - 1 less than the survey sample, after a decision at 1 school not to take part after 1989). Sixty-eight percent of those responding were new to the survey; this reflects the changes in boards since the 1991 survey. The response rate was similar for those who had previously taken part in the survey (65%), and those who were new to boards (60%). Eighty-four percent of the schools in the survey sample were represented in the responses (201 of 239).

There has been a consistently slight under-representation of urban areas (and over-representation of rural), over-representation of very low Maori enrolment schools, and under-representation of very high Maori enrolment schools in these surveys.

Teachers

The response rate for teachers in 1993 was 336 (62%). Thirty percent of the teachers responding were new to the survey; their response rate was 53%, compared to 65% of teachers who had taken part in the 1991 survey.

Because sole-charge teachers filled out principal rather than teacher questionnaires, we have had a consistent under-representation of teachers from full primary schools, namely those with fewer than 35 students, in rural areas. As with principals, the school characteristic of Maori enrolment shows changes since the 1989 survey in line with national roll changes - but also an over-representation of those in moderate Maori enrolment schools, and an under-representation of those in high Maori enrolment schools.

Over half of the teachers responding to the survey had been teaching for more than 15 years. Twenty-one percent had taught for 11-15 years, 16% for 6 - 10 years, 6% for 3 - 5 years, and 2% for 2 years or less. All but 8% had been teaching at the time the shift to school self-management began in 1989.

Most had also taught for more than 5 years in their school: 24% for more than 10 years, and 31% for 6 - 10 years. Thirty-two percent had taught in the school for 3 - 5 years, and 12% for 2 years or less.

Forty-one percent of the teachers held positions of responsibility - a substantial over-representation given the 29% of such positions (excluding relieving and part-time positions) reported in the 1990 Ministry of Education census of school staff. Fourteen percent of all teachers responding were deputy principals, 4% assistant principals, and 14% were senior teachers.

Eighty-two percent of those responding were female (1993 Ministry figures were 88%).

Comparison of ages with Ministry figures for regular teachers in mid 1993 show some under-representation of younger teachers (9% of survey respondents compared to 16% overall), and some over-representation of those aged over 50 (31% of survey respondents compared to 23% overall).

Ninety-one percent of the teachers described themselves as Pakeha/European, 3% Maori, 3% 'New Zealander' and 1% Pacific Island. Comparisons with the Ministry of Education's 1990 census show over-representation of Pakeha/European (79%), and under-representation of other groups (Maori were 6%, and Pacific Island 2%).

Parents

Sixty-two percent (634) parents of the 1030 sent questionnaires responded to the survey. This is much the same as the 64% in the 1991 and 1990 surveys, from slightly higher roll numbers, 1102. The majority of the parents who replied were women: 76%. Most were Pakeha/European (76%), 11% were Maori, 3% 'New Zealander', 5% Pacific Island, and 5% Asian. These figures are close to the ethnic composition for the 30-49 age range found by the 1991 census, with a slight over-representation of Asian parents (77% NZ European, 9% Maori, 4% Pacific Island, and 2% Asian).

It is more difficult to get representativeness of the school population with a sub-sample of 26 schools. In 1993, more rural parents responded to the survey than previously, over-representing this sector, but fewer from provincial towns, leading to under-representation of parents in those towns. Survey responses have previously consistently over-represented parents of children in very low Maori enrolment school. Representation of those in high Maori enrolment schools improved over previous surveys in 1993 - but slipped for those with low Maori enrolment. Contributing primary school parents are over-represented, and those from full primaries, under-represented.

The mean socioeconomic status on the Elley-Irving scale of 1-6 was 3.01 for female parents responding, and for males, 2.89. While socioeconomic status and education qualifications of parents responding were close to those for trustees (see table 17 in chapter 6), both were markedly higher than the overall population.

Thirty-one percent of the female parents responding were full-time at home, 19% worked part-time in the paid workforce, and 50% worked full-time in the paid workforce. These are reasonably comparable to 1991 census figures for 25 - 45 year old women: 31% not in paid workforce, 23% working part-time, and 46% working full-time, in the paid workforce).

Eight percent of the male parents responding were unemployed and/or receiving a state benefit - close to the 6% of males aged 30 - 49 years old in the 1991 census, and 7% of the female parents were unemployed and/or receiving a state benefit.

Analysis

Because the aim of this project has been to provide a comprehensive picture of the reforms and their impact at school level, the questionnaires used in this survey are comprehensive, and therefore lengthy, though, we are told, otherwise user-friendly. Copies are available from NZCER.

Many of the questions asked were in the form of closed questions, with boxes to tick. Open-ended questions and comments have been coded. As well as reporting frequencies of the answers on their own, they have also been cross-tabulated with a set of school characteristics: size, location, proportion of Maori enrolment, and socio-economic status of the school's community, to find out if these make a difference to the answers.

Personal characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, education and occupation were the main variables used for analysing parental data, and were also used for some trustee questions.

Comparisons were also made between different groups' responses to the same questions.

It should be noted that it is the schools which have provided the constancy in the sample base; not particular individuals. A base assumption of this study is that school characteristics do have a bearing on the experiences people would have of the reforms. But this raises the question of whether some of the effects and changes in results since

1989 are more a function of a change in the individuals responding than indications of effects related to the reforms. There are two reasons for thinking that the latter interpretation is sound.

First, if changes between surveys undertaken in different years were mainly due to changes in the individuals filling in questionnaires, one would not expect consistent trends in the data, as we find in the material reported here. Second, inasmuch as personal characteristics such as education and gender have a bearing on individual values and judgements, there has also been consistency in the patterns of personal characteristics reported in these surveys since 1989.

The cross-tabulations were done using SAS, and the results tested for significance using chi-squares. Only differences significant at the $p < 0.05$ level are included in the results for principals, trustees and teachers, and at the $p < 0.01$ level for parents. At the $p < 0.05$ level, a 1 in 20 chance exists that a difference or relationship as large as that observed could have arisen randomly in random samples. At the $p < 0.01$ level, a 1 in 100 chance exists that a difference or relationship as large as that observed could have arisen randomly in random samples.

Tests of significance do not imply causal relationships, simply statistical association.

In this round of the survey, two additional methods of data analysis have been used. First, an inter-year comparison of responses from the same school has been done on questions in areas of key interest, particularly relationships within the school, and between the school and the Ministry of Education as the school's major source of funding. The representativeness of the data-sets used here is given in Table 76 Appendix A.

Second, because low socio-economic status and high Maori enrolment were so clearly associated with differences in resources in the 1991 survey, an additional test of their importance in explaining variability in the responses was made using analysis of variance tests available on SAS (Chapter 16).

Terms Used in the Report

Because some questions allowed multiple answers, or because figures have been rounded to whole numbers, totals in tables (reported in percentages) may add up to more than 100%.

The 3 categories used in analysing school location differences are urban, small town (corresponding to the Ministry of Education's 'minor urban' category; Balclutha is an example), and rural. The category of 'secondary urban' has been omitted from this analysis because in the sample it provided too small a number of respondents to allow comparison; similarly, in most cases, the state and integrated character of schools has not been used to analyse answers.

School size is frequently given in terms of the categories used in analysis. In addition, 'smallest' refers to schools with fewer than 35 students, and 'largest' to schools with more than 300 students.

'Very low' Maori enrolment refers to less than 8%, 'low' to between 8 and 14%, 'moderate' to between 15% and 29%, and 'high' to 30% or more of a school's roll.

Descriptions of the socio-economic status of a school's community have been required for use in charters and in making applications for equity funding: these are the most reliable descriptions available at present, until the development of census-based socio-economic indicators currently being done by the Ministry of Education. Principals ' descriptions of the socioeconomic status of the community served by their school have therefore been used to provide the categories for socioeconomic status used in this report,

using four categories: mainly middle-class, wide range, mainly low-middle, and low-income. Table 75 in Appendix A sets out the relationships between school community socio-economic status and the characteristics used to determine the survey sample. There is only one which shows a major difference: a strong association between high Maori enrolment and schools in low income areas, and conversely, between low Maori enrolment and middle class schools.

Statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years' results are shown in tables as *; a ' + ' means an increase, and '-' a decrease. An 'n' by an item in comparative tables indicates that this item was first included in the 1993 survey.

1 - STAFFING

Centrally set staffing schedules for teaching staff have remained much as they were just before the introduction of school self-management, and teacher salaries remain funded from the Ministry of Education, with some exceptions. While school boards make all personnel decisions, including appointments and dismissals, collective employment contracts remain in place for teaching and support staff, with boards and principals able to negotiate individual contracts on top of the collective contract. Support staff salaries were included in schools' operational grants at the start of the reforms, at the level they were then being paid for each school.

Additional funding went into the Ministry of Education's teachers' salary budget to allow for part-time teaching hours to give teaching principals some time for the administrative work which came with school self-management.

There have been five policy changes since the start of the reforms which one might expect to have some effect on staffing levels and composition, but none has changed the overall national picture substantially.

First, from 1991 schools were allowed to apply to the Ministry of Education to use operational grant money to employ additional teaching staff. This had been resisted during the development of the Tomorrow's Schools policy, because of the danger that it would enable more affluent communities to improve their educational provision[3], and so undermine the principle of equal opportunity according to individual ability rather than parental purse which lay at the heart of the New Zealand educational system (Renwick 1986).

Second, in 1992 the Ministry of Education shifted responsibility for the payment of relief teaching staff employed for less than 8 days to school boards. Funding went to schools' operating grants on a per teacher basis to cover this. A pool of money is held by the Ministry of Education to cover costs above 8 days, and for some remaining kinds of leave. This change caused some hardship in some schools when it was first implemented. The policy response was to switch money from a few centrally paid relief pool schemes in low income areas (which had historically found it difficult to attract suitable relievers) and redistribute this to all schools' operational grants.

Third, schools have been able to employ non-registered teachers since 1991.

Fourth, schools have had access to government employment subsidy schemes, primarily Taskforce Green, to employ additional teaching staff, and support staff.

Fifth, an interim scheme to employ supernumary teachers from teachers' college graduates stopped in 1992.

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[3] It is for this reason that the Dutch system, which supports Catholic, Protestant and state schools as three sub-systems, forbids the use of locally raised funds to employ teaching staff. (James 1984)

Teaching Staff

How Adequate is Present Staffing?

Fifty-eight percent of the principals, and 51% of the trustees considered that their staffing entitlement for 1994 would be enough to meet their school's needs, with 5% of the principals and 21% of the trustees unsure. Thirteen percent of the trustees felt they were still learning about the basis for the school's staffing entitlement.

Principals' judgements of staffing adequacy have changed little since 1989, perhaps not surprising considering that staffing entitlements have also remained relatively unchanged during this period.   At present schools with rolls under 125 are staffed on the basis of 1 teacher to every 25 students, and 1 teacher to every 31 students in schools with bigger rolls. Class sizes tend to be smaller in the schools staffed on a 1:25 basis. This difference in staffing entitlement was reflected in judgements about the adequacy of staffing entitlement. Satisfaction with staffing entitlement was greatest for principals of the smallest schools (80%), and declined as school size rose to 42% of those in schools with rolls of over 200. Rural principals (who are in many of the small schools) were also more satisfied with their staffing entitlement than others (71%, compared to 45% of urban principals).

Comments made by principals who did not think their staffing entitlement would be sufficient included dissatisfaction with class sizes or the overfull workload this meant for teaching principals (6% of all principals responding), and concerns that the school could not provide properly for remedial work, children with special needs, or children with English as a Second Language (7%). Four percent noted that their board was paying for additional staffing. Expected increases in rolls which might change present views of staffing adequacy were noted by 6% of the principals.

Use of Operational Grants to Employ Teaching Staff

There has been a marked increase in the proportion of schools receiving permission from the Ministry of Education to use some of their operational grant to pay teachers' salaries, in order to employ more staff: from 11% in 1991 to 25% in 1993. No applications from the principals responding in 1993 had been turned down, compared to 15% of the 1991 applications made by survey respondents. This increase may be due to the use of Taskforce Green schemes. The average amount on extra staffing taken from operational grants was $7,206, with a wide range from $150 to $30,000.

Urban schools were twice as likely to use their operational grants to employ additional teachers as schools elsewhere. There was no association between this use of the operational grant and principal judgements of the adequacy, or inadequacy, of their staffing entitlement. But those who had difficulty finding suitable teachers (mainly rural schools, with high Maori enrolment, or in low income areas) were only half as likely as those who had no difficulty (15% compared to 30%).

Unfortunately, we did not ask how such staff were used, though cross-tabulation with answers on applications made by schools for additional Ministry funding show a significantly higher proportion (52%) of those applying for English as a Second Language Grant using the operational grant to increase staff numbers.

The Impact of Shifting Relief Staff Responsibilities to Schools

In 1991, when responsibility for meeting relief staff costs under 8 days was shifted to

boards, 19% of the principals in the NZCER survey felt this change in funding policy would have little or no effect on their school, with another 26% unsure (in response to an open ended question).

In the comparable 1993 closed question, 60% of principals responding said the change had had little or no effect at their school. The main effect reported was that teachers were continuing to turn up for work despite being sick (30%). Fifteen percent also reported a greater workload for school staff. Nine percent said it had meant cutbacks to other school spending; and 3% commented that it had benefited their school.

Principals who found their overall Ministry funding adequate were more likely to say the shift of relief funding costs to their budget had had little or no effect (78% compared to 46% of those who found their overall Ministry funding inadequate). Conversely, those who found their overall Ministry funding inadequate were more likely to have sick teachers coming to work (43% compared to 11% who found their funding adequate) and to have cut back spending on other school budget items (14% compared to 3%).

Small town and high Maori enrolment schools were harder hit than others in having to make cutbacks to other budget items to meet relief staff costs (22% for small town schools compared to 8% for schools in other locations, and 19% for high Maori enrolment schools compared to 6% of other schools). Nine percent of small town principals and 7% of those at high Maori enrolment schools thought the need to cover relief staffing out of their operational grant had had a negative effect on children's learning (1% for other schools). Fifty-seven percent of the small town principals reported sick teachers coming to work, compared to 26% of principals in schools located elsewhere.

Middle-class schools were least affected: only 3% of their principals reported cutback to other school spending, compared to 15% of principals at schools in low or low-middle income areas. Schools in the low income areas had a high incidence of teachers coming to work while they were ill: 43%, compared to 21% of those in middle class areas.

There has been little change since 1989 in the proportion of principals reporting that none of their classes was without a teacher for a day (89%); 7% reported 1-2 days where a class had no teacher, 2% 3-5 days, and 3% more than 6 days. However, 17% of small town principals, and 12% of principals in high Maori enrolment schools or in low income areas reported 3 or more days when class had no teacher, compared to 2% for other schools.

Can Schools Find Suitable Staff?

Twenty-seven percent of the principals responding reported difficulty finding suitable teachers for their school: just the same as in 1989. The reasons remain largely the same, indicating difficulties which are beyond individual school solution. Sixteen percent noted the remote or rural location of the school, 10% a limited number of suitable applicants, 8% a shortage of teachers speaking Maori, and 7% the school's location in a low socio-economic area. One other reason noted by a couple of principals was conflict within the school.

Principals in high Maori enrolment schools were the most likely to report difficulty in finding suitable teachers (59%). They were more likely than others to mention as reasons the remote or rural location of the school (33%), the shortage of Maori speaking teachers (26%), and the low socio-economic area served by the school, or the limited number of suitable applicants. Intermediate principals were also more likely to mention these reasons, other than remote or rural location, for their difficulties in finding suitable teachers.

Principals in middle-class communities had the least difficulty finding suitable teachers, 8%, compared to 47% of those in low income areas. More small town principals also noted a limited number of suitable applicants (26%), and a shortage of Maori speaking teachers (17%).

Twelve percent of the principals reported difficulty finding properly qualified relief staff, and 40% occasional difficulty. A lack of trained teachers in the area was the dominant reason (39%, up from 24% in 1991). Three percent felt the pay was too low to attract them. Other comments noted a high demand for relievers in the area (4%), their employment in long-term relieving positions (2%), or a clash with seasonal work in horticulture and agriculture (1%). Three percent noted problems in finding enough relief staff if more than one permanent teacher took part in the same staff development course.

Thirty-one percent of high Maori enrolment school principals said they had difficulty finding properly qualified relievers, compared to 4% of other schools; with a similar picture for school community socio-economic status: 29% of principals in low income areas had problems finding properly qualified relievers, compared to 6% of other schools.

Are More Schools Employing Unregistered Teachers Now?

Teacher registration became voluntary in 1991. There has been a slight rise in schools employing non-registered teachers since 1991: 4% of the principals responding to the survey said they had employed non-registered teachers (1% in 1991), 14% had employed such teachers as relievers (a significant increase on the 6% in 1991), 2% as specialist teachers (4% in 1991).

The main reasons given for employing non-registered teachers were the difficulty of finding or attracting registered teachers (8%), and that local people with suitable knowledge were available (8%). High Maori enrolment schools were more likely than others to employ non-registered teachers (9%), to employ them as specialists (7%), and as relievers (28%).

Again, a similar pattern shows with schools in low income areas: 8% employing non-registered teachers, 4% as specialists, and 29% as relievers (compared to 8% of middle class schools).

Thirty percent of small town principals employed non-registered teachers as relievers compared to 12% of others.

Teaching Staff Stability

In 1989 only 24% of the principals responding reported that no teachers had resigned from the school that year. By 1991 this had risen to 35%, and the 36% from the 1993 responses might indicate that a stable rate in teacher turnover has been reached (all other things being equal). Forty-eight percent of the principals responding reported the loss of 1 - 2 teachers, 15% between 3 - 5 teachers, and 1% 6 or more teachers (down from 6% in 1990 and 3% in 1991). Rural schools were the most likely to report no staff losses (60%, compared to 35% in small towns, and 16% in cities).

Principal perceptions of the reasons for resignation are given below. The changes within these figures show an increase in teachers leaving because their school has been downgraded - usually because of falling rolls; a possible decline in promotions since 1991, a gradual decline in parental leave taken since 1990, and, a slightly greater interest in changing careers between 1991 and 1993 which has yet to return to the 1990 level.

Table 1
Teachers' Reasons for Leaving Their School

Reason	1990 % (n = 278)	1991 % (n = 141)	1993 % (n = 120)
New position	28	29	29
Promotion	17	18	12
Parental leave	15	13	10
Retirement	10	8	10
School downgraded	2	3	10 *+
Change of career	12	4	7
Stress	9	4	7
Travel	9	7	6
Dismissal	1	3	1

NOTES: 1. The percentages in this table are based on the number of teachers leaving the schools of principals who responded to the question.

2. Items in tables throughout this report are ordered from highest to lowest frequency for 1993 survey findings (1993 results are in the far right column in tables comparing 1993 results with those of earlier surveys).

Other reasons for teacher resignation given by a few principals were illness or occupation of a temporary position, and by one principal each: study, redundancy, and change from a part-time to a full-time position.[4]

Appointments

Principals

The turnover rate of principals is currently quite high. Using Ministry of Education payroll lists, between the 1989 and 1991 NZCER surveys, 38% of the sample schools changed principals. The rate between 1991 and 1993 was much the same, 42%.

Teachers

Further information from teachers adds to the picture of a slow-down in teacher mobility. Most of the teachers responding to this survey had been in their present school for more than 2 years (32% between 3 to 5 years, 31% for 6 - 10 years, 14% between 11 and 15 years, and 11% more than 15 years in the one school). All but 8% of the teachers responding had been teaching prior to the introduction of school self-management.

While 78% of teachers responding to the survey in 1990 said their school had made a teaching appointment that year, this decreased to 63% in 1991, and 59% in 1993. More rural teachers said their schools had made no teaching appointments that year (58% compared to 31% of teachers in other areas). Teachers at full primary schools were

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[4] The recent study of Wellington teacher workloads (Livingstone 1994) gives a figure of 38% for those (including principals) who would leave teaching if they were able to make a choice.

more likely to report that no appointments had been made at their school (45%) compared to 34% of the teachers in contributing primary schools and 21% in intermediates.

The next table shows a consistency since 1990 in teacher views of their school's appointment process, but a rise in the disadvantages perceived to exist for older applicants, which may partly explain some staff stability.

Table 2
Teachers' Views of their Schools' Appointment Process

View	1990 % (n = 298)	1991 % (n = 238)	1993 % (n = 209)
Gives advantage to people already working in the school	38	38	40
Puts pressure on principal	38	38	32
Fairer all round	26	21	24
Disadvantages older applicants for senior positions		11	24 *+
Less fair all round	19	20	11
Not sure	11	15	11
Disadvantages female applicants for senior positions		11	6
Gives advantage to people not known in school	6	4	6
About the same as previous system	6	7	6

Of the 43 teachers who commented further here, 20 thought the principal or board were not qualified to appoint teaching staff, 11 thought people who were known to the school had an advantage, 9 thought they could now get a person suited to the school, and 3 that appointments made had not been to the school's benefit. It is interesting that while 63% said their school's appointment process used the school's equal employment opportunity (EEO) policy, 24% were unsure, though only 2% said their school had no EEO policy. More intermediate school teachers thought those involved in their school's appointment process made no use of the school's EEO policy (12% compared to 2% of primary teachers).

Trustees were also asked if their board had faced problems or issues over appointments. Forty-three percent of the trustees reported that their board had had no issue or problem in making staff appointments (including the principal's position), and 22% had not made a recent appointment. The main sources of help for those who had had a problem were others within education: 49% used NZSTA field officers, 46% used the principal at another school, 34% used NZEI, 29% used the Ministry of Education, 17% used the Principals' Federation, and 14% turned to other school boards. Given that only NZSTA and the Ministry of Education received government funding to give this advice, board use of other sources is worth noting.

Other sources of advice for boards were: the Employers' Federation (11%), employment of a consultant or private firm (11%), and advice from the State Services Commission (9%). The median number of actions taken by school boards to get outside advice on appointments was 2, with 14% of the trustees reporting only 1 action taken by their board, and 16% between 4 and 8.

Support Staff

In 1989, 62% of responding principals thought that their school needed more support staff: in 1993, 58% did. In the shift to school-based management other areas of spending appear to have needed higher priority in school spending, though the level of principals' reported needs seems reasonably modest. Highest demand for more support staff time came for ordinary teacher aides, aides for special needs children, and library staff (Table 77, Appendix B).

The overall pattern of the number of support staff employed has changed little since 1990, when schools first had charge of their operating grants. Twenty-nine percent of the principals employed 1 or 2 support staff, 48% between 3 to 5, 16% between 6 and 10, and 1% 11 or more support staff. Intermediates were more likely to employ more than 6 support staff (50% compared to 14% of primary schools).

There has also been little change in the time for which support staff are employed, with most support staff other than caretakers/cleaners and clerical/administrative staff working less than 10 hours a week (Table 78 Appendix B).

Four percent of the principals reported problems getting support staff and 9% had problems finding people to work with children with special needs.

Support Staff in the Classroom

Sixty-one percent of the 1993 teacher respondents had classroom assistance from support staff; in 1989, 53% had such help. Those teaching in the smallest schools had a higher rate of support staff assistance: 82%. Support staff assistance declined with the level of class taught: from 72% of new entrant teachers, to 49% of those teaching form 1 and form 2, but it had no associations with class size.

There has been little change since 1989 also in the hours of support staff help which teachers get. In 1993 13% had less than an hour, 23% between 1 and 2.5 hours, 13% 2.5 - 5 hours, and 11%, more than 5 hours.

Twenty-seven percent of the teachers responding had help with 1 activity only, 18% with 2 activities, 13% with 3, and 4% with 4 or 5 classroom activities. The only area in which there has been an increase in classroom support since 1989 is in the assistance of children with special needs (rising from 13% to 29%). This probably reflects the move to enrol these children in regular schools which began just before the administrative reforms, and the availability, albeit limited, of additional Ministry funding for teacher aides to work with these children.

The next figure sets out what classroom assistance teachers received in 1993, and what they would like to receive.

Figure 1: Support Staff in the Classroom

Index
Teachers who have help
Teachers who would like help

Writing
Mathematics
Clerical/administration
Maori language
Preparing classroom materials
Special needs children
Reading or language

Percent of teachers
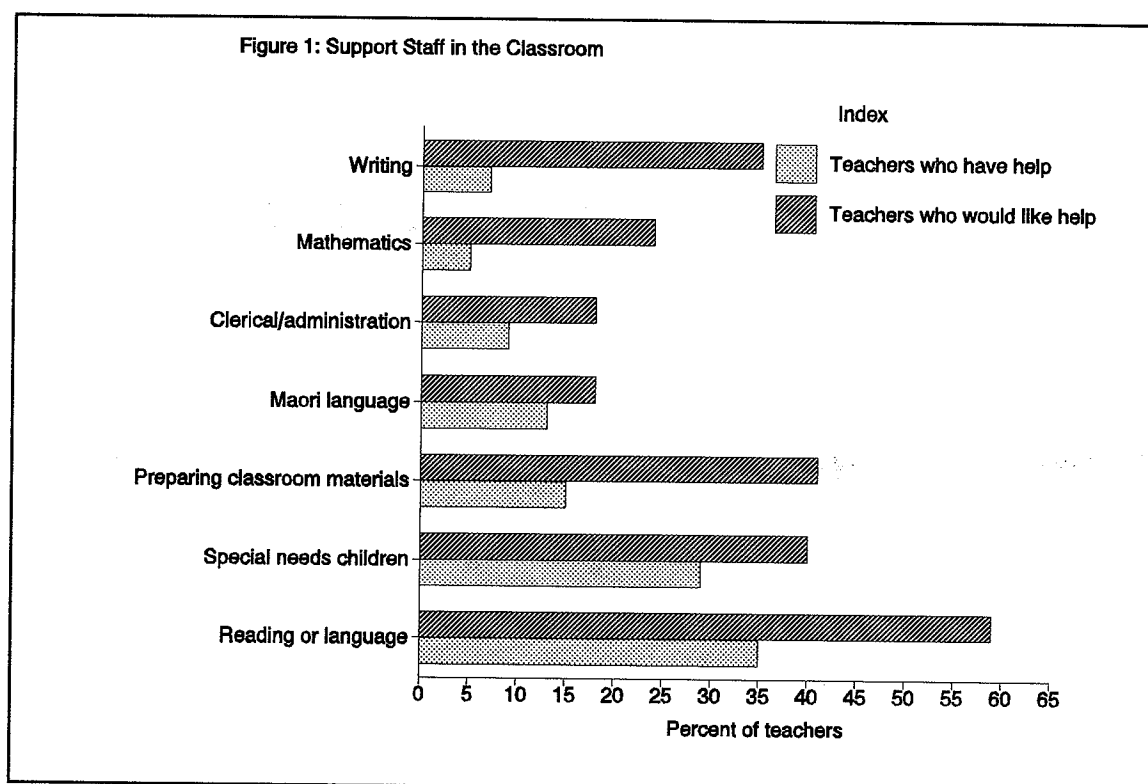
Seventy-nine percent of the teachers would like more, or some, support staff time, and 6% were unsure. Class size is the only variable which is associated with differences here: 66% of teachers with fewer than 20 students who would like more support staff time compared to 94% of those with 30 or more students in their class. Seventeen percent of the teachers responding to the survey would like more than five hours of support staff help a week, 31% from two and a half to five hours a week, and 30% less than two and a half hours. This is much the same as in 1990. Fourteen percent would like support staff to work with them in just 1 activity, 18% in 2 activities, 25% in 3, 14% in 4, and 11% in 5 or more activities.

Summary

The staffing picture that emerges from these survey findings is that while indeed little change has occurred overall, the impact is different for different kinds of school. In particular, the change to relief staff funding has disproportionately affected schools with high Maori enrolment, in small towns, or in low income areas. These are also the schools most likely to employ non-registered teachers, and to be less likely to use operational grants to employ teaching staff.

The increase in staff stability is interesting. The principals' answers on reasons for resignation suggest that declines in some school rolls and perhaps the lack of job opportunities outside schools which are the prime factors in the slowdown of staff mobility. Teachers' answers on appointments however also indicate that it may be harder to shift schools if internal applicants are more likely to be favoured and teachers feel there is a bias against older applicants.

School-based management appears unable to address pre-existing difficulties in

finding suitable staff. It has also made little impact on the improvement of the numbers of support staff available to teachers and principals.

2 - FUNDING

The formula for setting individual schools' operating grants combines uniform per-capita allowances for some items (such as cleaning), but also recognizes historic costs as they were in 1990 when schools took over their operational grants for items such as electricity. This recognition came in late 1989 after many schools protested the original budgets calculated for them. This combination of per-capita and historic costs probably provided for more stable continuity from the old system. It should also have minimized the numbers of 'winners' and 'losers'.

Operational grants cover all school costs bar teaching staff salaries, the large property maintenance needs which existed at the time of the switch to school-based management, and further capital development. 'Deferred maintenance' needs identified at the changeover, and new capital works costs are met by the Ministry of Education, using annual national priority listings compiled from district committee priority listings. The large backlog of capital works and deferred maintenance which existed at the time of the shift to local school management has meant in effect that some schools have been winners (facing fewer maintenance costs, for example, and having a more attractive school to present to prospective parents), and others losers, or certainly 'back-footers'. While government has progressively whittled down this backlog, it remains a major problem. People in schools with considerable maintenance to be done face more work in making applications for priority ranking than their more fortunate colleagues.

In the previous administrative system, additional staffing was made available through the discretionary staffing scheme to 76 primary or intermediate schools in low income areas and to schools with high English as a Second Language enrolment, unpredictable fluctuations in roll numbers, and staffing problems. Primary schools did not have to apply for this funding; recommendations were put forward by the inspectorate employed by the Education Department.

Since the switch to school self-management, this support in the form of staffing has been transformed into several pools of funding which schools can apply for. Some of the main criteria for the former scheme have been split into separate categories (each requiring a separate application[5]), and a funding pool has been created to match schools' local fundraising efforts toward capital development. More schools have been applying for such additional funding in each successive year.

The overall sum of money available in the equity and Maori Language pools have not been increased, meaning that the sum each applicant school can receive has gradually reduced. There was some increase in the 1993 budget for the English as a Second Language funding pool for intermediate and secondary schools, but not for primary schools. Intermediates' base grant is larger than primary schools, and funding for form 1 and 2 students is at a higher rate than younger students.

Schools have also been putting much effort into increasing the amount raised from parents and 'community': the Ministry of Education (1994 p. 36) notes a 23% increase from $57.42 million raised this way by primary schools in 1991 to $70.53 million in 1992.

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[5] The Ministry of Education is currently working on a formula using Census mesh-block data to provide a picture of the socio-economic status of a school's students which would allow the calculation of equity grants without the need for application if no other criteria, such as the use of standardized test results introduced in 1993 for 1994 applications, are needed.

Government Funding

Is it Enough?

In contrast to the stability of principal judgements of the adequacy of their school staffing entitlement, there has been a marked increase since 1990 in the proportion of principals who find their Ministry of Education funding insufficient to meet their school's needs. An interyear comparison of individual school responses to the survey shows the increase coming in equal proportions from those who regarded their overall Ministry funding as adequate in 1990, and those who were then unsure. Half of those in this interyear comparison sub-sample who expressed uncertainty in 1990 found their funding adequate by 1993, but only 3 of the 29 in the inter-year comparison sub-sample who regarded their funding as inadequate in 1990 reported in 1993 that it was now adequate. This suggests that the decline in judgements of funding adequacy was less to do with learning how to manage budgets than to do with meeting school costs and needs.

Figure 2: Principals' & Trustees' Views of Adequacy of School Funding
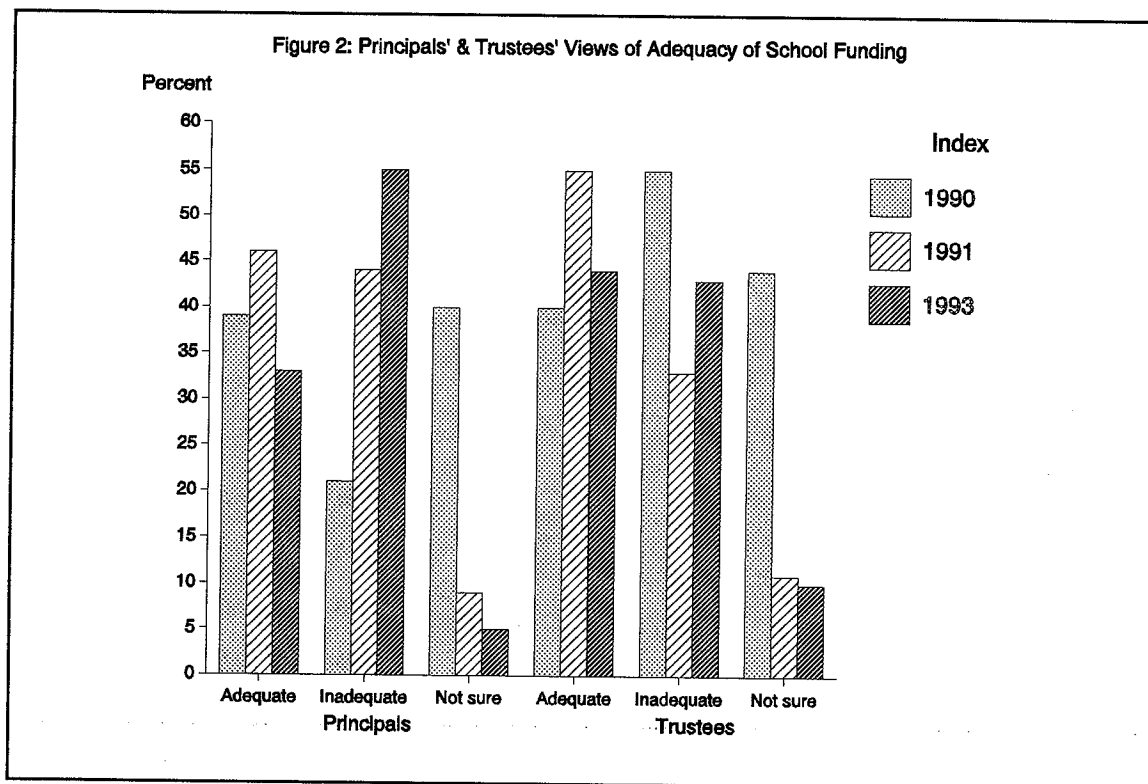
The slightly more sanguine view of trustees may be due to the 22% of trustees who replied to an additional question on whether the basis for their school's funding was clear to them that they felt they were still learning about it.

The principals of the smallest schools were half as likely to express the view that their funding was inadequate as their counterparts in larger schools. These schools were also less likely to apply for additional funding (47% did not, compared to none of the largest schools). Overall, only 16% of the principals responding had not applied for any additional Ministry funding for 1993.

The statistically significant level of satisfaction with their funding expressed by the smallest school principals correlates with actual funding levels. The Ministry of Education

analysis (1994, p. 42) of a representative sample of 199 primary schools' financial performance in 1992 found that schools with fewer than 100 students had a mean income (including teacher salaries and locally raised funds) per student of $3,333, those between 100 - 499 students, $2,418, and those with rolls above 500, $2,304. Expenditure levels followed this pattern, possibly indicating higher costs per student in small schools.

Principal and trustee judgements of government funding adequacy are clearly associated with differences in funding, and the level at which the smallest schools are funded is the most satisfactory. Any decrease in overall funding to the lower levels experienced by schools with rolls over 100 is likely to increase criticisms that government funding cannot meet the needs of New Zealand primary students.

Trustees in low income and low-middle income areas were more likely to find their Ministry funding inadequate (58% compared to 37% of trustees in wide-range or middle class schools).

Balancing the Books

Fifty-seven percent of the principals responding thought their school would balance its books at the end of the 1993 year; 21% predicted a surplus, and 15% a deficit. Seven percent were unsure. Only 3% of the principals who found their Ministry funding adequate predicted they would be in deficit at the year's end compared to 25% of those who found their Ministry funding inadequate (indicating some very careful spending or budget pruning by the other 75%). The figure for predicted deficits is striking given the Ministry of Education's figure from 1992 audited school accounts of a 6.25% surplus for the primary school sector as a whole (1994 p.36).

A Ministry of Education estimate of actual surpluses from its representative random sample of schools' audited accounts (1994, p. 40) was much higher: 69% in 1992, indicating either that actual spending is more conservative than budget estimates, or that the pattern of school spending has changed since 1992. The latter hypothesis is given some support by the increase in the proportion of principals who report that their school spending has increased in quite a range of areas.

Schools in low-middle income areas were more likely to predict a deficit (27%, compared to 12% of middle class schools, 9% of wide-range schools, and 18% of schools in low income areas).

In predicting the likely financial position of their school at the end of 1994; 48% predicted balanced books, 28% were uncertain, 12% foresaw a deficit, and those expecting a surplus were down to 11%. A quarter of those who found their 1993 funding adequate were to be found amongst those expecting a 1994 surplus, compared to 3% of those who found it inadequate. Five percent of those who found their 1993 Ministry funding adequate expected a 1994 deficit, compared to 17% who found their 193 funding inadequate. The next graph shows the relation of the expected financial position of the school at the end of 1993 to the financial position expected at the end of 1994.

Figure 3: Relationship of 1993 school financial position to expected 1994 financial position
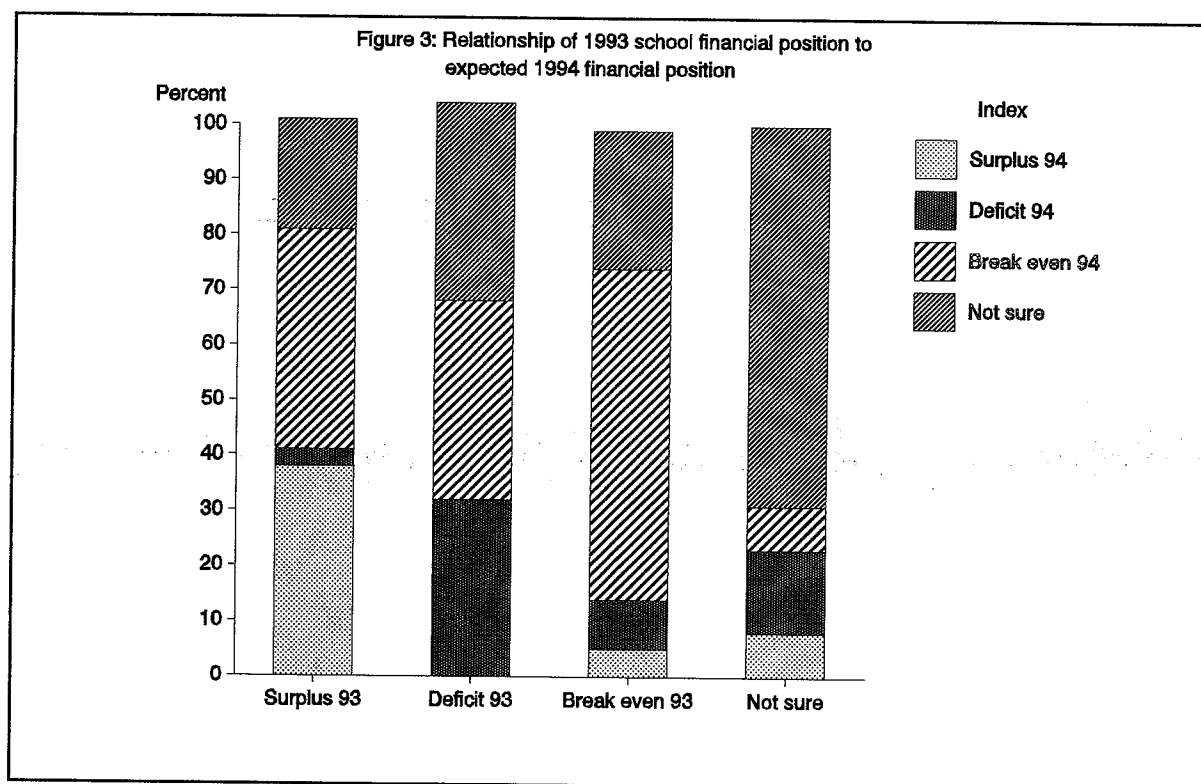
The Use of Additional Ministry Funding

Eighty-four percent of the principals responding had applied for additional Ministry funding, and 70% had received some, giving an 83% success rate.

Sixty percent had applied for special needs funding, 56% for the learning assistance allowance, 36% for equity grants, 32% for the financial assistance scheme, and 17% for the English as a Second Language Support scheme. While applications for the financial assistance scheme (for capital works) and English as a Second Language support scheme came from schools across the social range, middle class schools were less likely than others to apply for special needs or the learning assistance allowance. Not every school in low income areas had applied for equity funding: 80% did so, 35% of those in low-middle income areas, and 34% of the wide-range schools.

Schools serving disadvantaged groups were more likely to apply for and receive additional funding. Only 14% of low income area schools received no additional funding, compared to 38% of middle-class, 30% of wide range schools, and 27% of low-middle income area schools. Twenty-nine percent of very low Maori enrolment schools received no additional funding compared to 7% of those with high Maori enrolment.

All intermediate principals said their school had received additional funding (all applied), compared to 17% of the primary principals.

Thirty percent of rural schools did not apply for any additional funding. They were also less likely than schools in other locations to apply for the learning assistance allowance, special needs funding, equity grants, and English as a Second Language support scheme, but applied in the same proportions as others for the financial assistance scheme.

Of those who received additional Ministry funding, 27% of the principals responding

found it adequate, and a further 36% adequate for some areas. Thirty-four percent found it inadequate.

Local fundraising

The table below (not inflation adjusted) shows little change from the 1991 survey pattern, though 37% of the principals said their school had increased its fundraising effort, and 64% of these said they had made more money than the previous year. (Trustees' answers to the same question showed a different pattern: 58% said their school had increased its fundraising efforts, with 47% of these saying this effort had resulted in more income than the previous year.)

Schools whose principals considered their Ministry funding inadequate had no more money coming in from local sources than those where the Ministry funding was found to be adequate.

Table 3
Total Amount of Locally Raised Funds

	1989 % (n = 174)	1991 % (n = 186)	1993 % (n = 191)
$2000 or less	20	13	11 *-
$2001 - $4500	21	16	19
$4501 - $6500	20	16	10 *-
$6501 - $12000	21	27	29
$12001 - $15500	9	7	7
$15501 +	10	19	20 *+

The only source of non-Ministry funding to show some increase over the 1991 survey results was donations, grants or sponsorships from organizations or business, rising from 10% to 18%. Investment income, including investment of the Ministry grant (paid in advance each quarter), showed some decline from 28% in 1991 to 19% in 1993. This probably reflects the decrease in interest rates during this period.

The mean proportion of local funds raised by school fees/donations was 26% (22% in 1991), by fundraising 46% (58% in 1991), by hireage of facilities 11% (9% in 1991), and by subject fees 10% (not asked in 1991). Unfortunately the use of income from the acceptance of foreign fee-paying students was not asked about in the survey. Recent media stories and anecdotal evidence indicate that fees from foreign students provide a significant source of income for some primary schools.

School Fees/Donations

New Zealand education is legally still free of all charges. Schools are, however, given the right to levy activity fees, and can request voluntary fees/donations. Fifteen percent of the principals noted an increase in their school fee or donation (18% in the 1991 survey, and 28% in 1990, the first year of school responsibility for operational grants). As in 1991,

city schools were more likely to have increased their school fee/donation 44% of the rural principals still said their school did not have a fee or donation. Sixty-seven percent of the smallest schools had no fee or donation, as did 35% of those with rolls between 35 and 99. None of the smallest schools had raised their existing fee or donation, compared to 30% of the largest schools. This fits with the higher satisfaction with their government funding expressed by principals in the smallest schools.

There has been little change since 1989 in the pattern of parent payment of school fees/donations. Only 27% of principals responding were able to collect this from almost all their students' families. Nine percent of the schools were unable to collect this from more than half of their parents, 22% of the schools from 21 - 50% of their parents, and 13% from 11 - 20% of their parents.

Low income of school community and high Maori enrolment were associated with the ability of schools to raise money through fees - possibly the least time-consuming of local fundraising methods. The association with socio-economic status is shown in the next graph; and with Maori enrolment, in figure 17, Appendix C.

Figure 4: Proportion of Parents not Paying School Donation by School Socio-economic Status
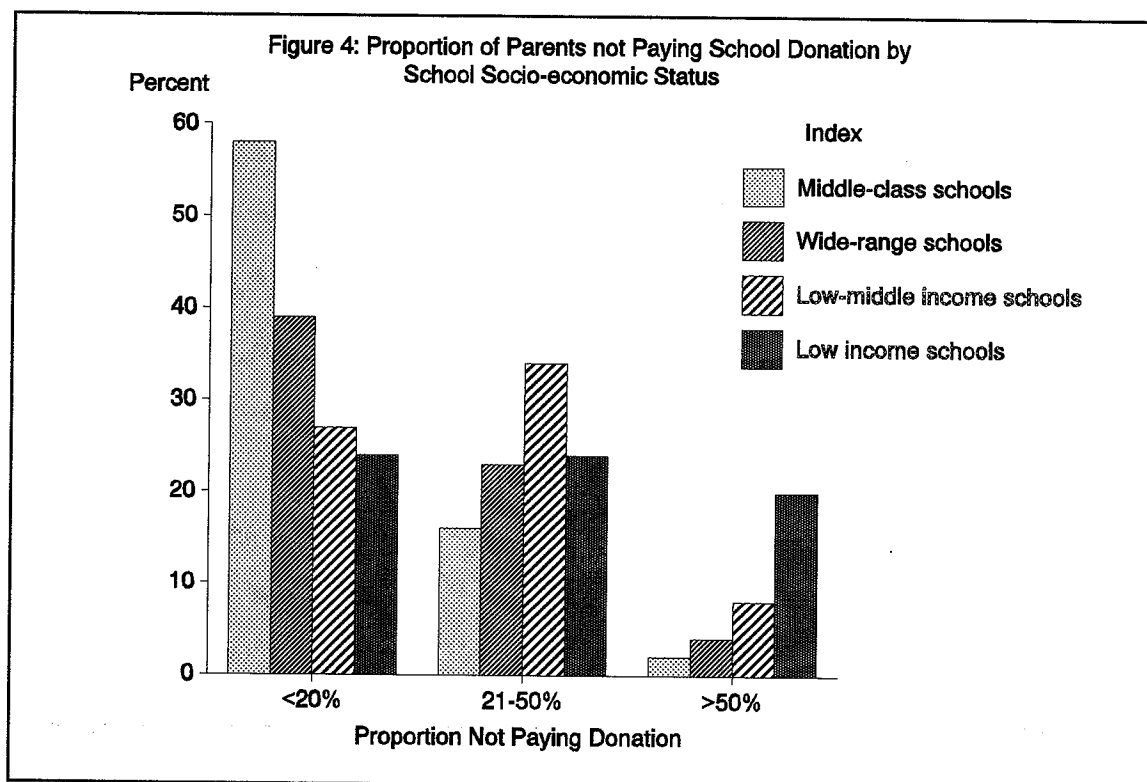
Parents' estimates of the money spent on their children's education

One of the persistent themes in parental responses to this survey through the past few years has been that more money is being sought from them by their child's school. Most parents contribute to fundraising (many over and above the school fee). Their estimates of how much they spent on their child's education in 1993 (including transport and trips) also show an increase.

Figure 5:
Parental estimates of their
educational expenditure on one child

Figure 6:
Parental estimates of their
educational expenditure on two children

Index

1991 - One child

1993 - One child

1991 - Two child

1993 - Two child

$ per year

$ per year
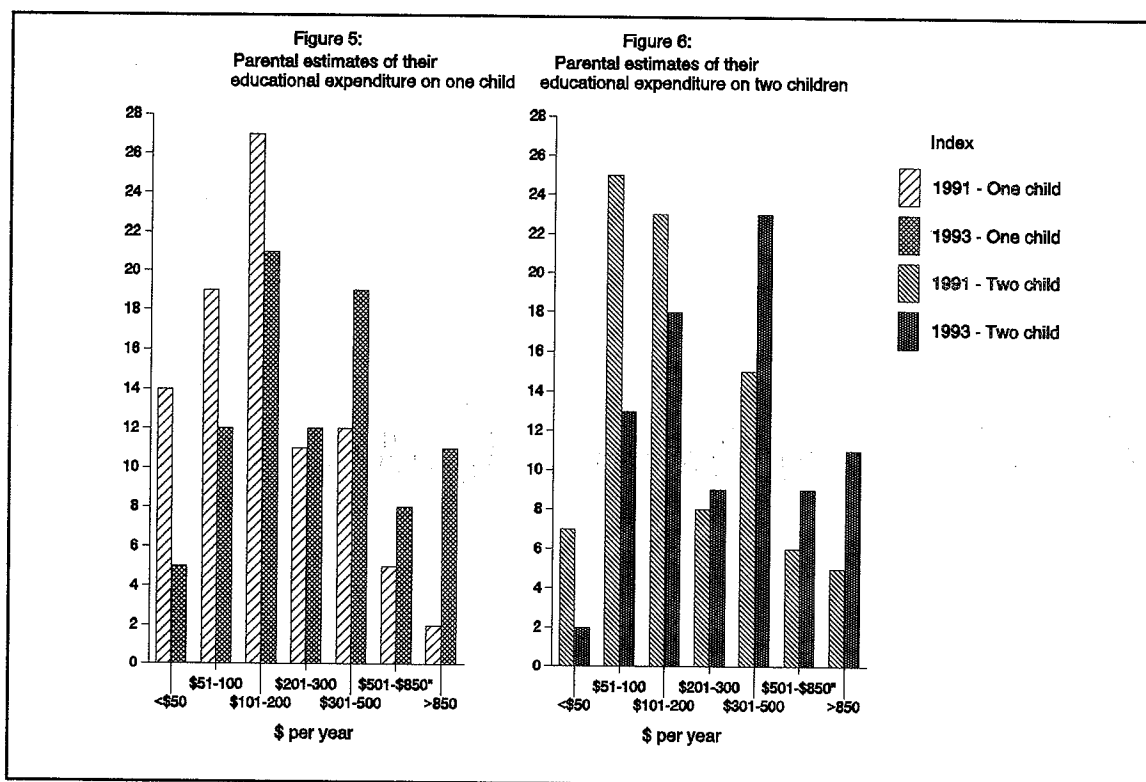
In addition, just over a third of the parents who responded (36%) were already putting some money aside for their child's future education. Lack of money to put aside (21%) was the main reason given amongst the comments made here. Parents with no qualifications were least likely to be saving (27%), and those with university degrees (48%) most likely to be putting money aside. Not surprisingly, a similar pattern was apparent in relation to work status and occupation, with only 19% of those unemployed or on state benefits putting some money aside. Asian parents were most likely to have put some money aside at this stage of their child's schooling (64%).

Allocation of budget

How did schools allocate their Ministry funding and the fruit of their own efforts? Two-thirds of the principals responding gave estimates of the proportion set aside in their overall school budget for 6 key areas, and a third gave an estimate for special needs aides. The general pattern for 1993 was much the same as reported for 1991, indicating stable patterns of allocation. The mean proportion of budget allocated for administration was 21% (16% in 1991), for property maintenance 19% (15%), for cleaning/caretaking 18% (19%), for classroom materials 16% (16%), for staff/school development, 8% (5%), and for ordinary teacher aides, 8% (9%). The mean allocation for special needs aides was 6% (5%). School size was the main characteristic associated with different patterns.

Seventy percent of the smallest schools allocated less than 3% of their school budget on staff development, compared to 24% of the largest schools, although figures for those allocating more than 6% were much the same across all school sizes. This pattern also showed for administration, with 63% of the smallest schools allocating less than a tenth of their budget to administration, gradually falling to 43% for the largest schools; and in provision of teacher aides (70% for the smallest schools, declining to 27%

for the largest schools), and classroom materials (63% declining to 22% for the largest schools). Only 3% of the smallest schools were allocating more than a fifth of their budget on classroom materials, compared to 13% of the schools with rolls of 35 to 99, and 28% of those with rolls over 300.

With cleaning and caretaking, the distinction was between schools with less than 100 students and others; 58% of small schools spent less than 5% of their budget on cleaning/caretaking, compared to 38% of those with rolls of 201 - 300, and 19% of those with rolls over 300. Only 10% of the smallest schools spent more than 20% on cleaning and caretaking compared with 26% of other schools.

Teacher aide spending rose with proportion of Maori enrolment: only 6% of those with very low Maori enrolment spent more than 10% of their budget compared to 24% of those with high Maori enrolment. Full primary schools were less likely to spend more than a fifth of their budget on their cleaning/caretaking (9% compared to 31% of contributing primary schools, and 25% of intermediates).

Fewer rural schools allocated between 3-5% on staff development (14%, compared to 39% of small town schools, and 41% of city schools). They were also less likely to allocate more than a fifth of their budget on classroom materials (9% compared to 19% of city schools and 30% of small town schools), cleaning and caretaking (11% compared to 29% of city schools), or administration (20% compared to 37% of city schools).

Spending More, and Less

The survey also asked principals whether they had spent more or less than the previous year in 11 key areas of school expenditure. Spending had generally increased, as the next table shows.

Table 4
School Expenditure

Area	Spent more			Spent less		
	1990 % (n = 207)	1991 % (n = 186)	1993 % (n = 191)	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %
Insurance/security			57			3
Property and maintenance	22	30	52 *	14	28	14
Classroom resources	36	35	50	13	26	31 *
Administration	24	24	49 *	14	12	13
Staff development	29	30	49 *	12	17	18
Support staff	17	19	45 *	12	16	9
Rates/energy charges			37			4
Special needs	18	13	32 *	14	15	9
Implementation of new school policies	11	10	23 *	8	10	13
Trustees' training/advice	11	3	17	8	13	16 *

Just over half (54%) of those who found their overall Ministry funding adequate had made no cut backs in spending compared to 11% of those who found it inadequate. Conversely,

31% of those who found their Ministry funding inadequate had made cut backs in 3 or more of the 11 areas asked about, compared to 6% of those who found their Ministry funding adequate.

Principals who found their funding inadequate were more likely to have spent less than the previous year in these areas: classroom resources, administration, implementing new policies, property maintenance, and staff development. More cuts in support staff or across the board were made, however, by those in schools whose funding was thought to be adequate. There was no difference between the two groups when it came to two areas where schools may feel they cannot cut back: insurance or security costs, or rates and energy charges. Interestingly, spending on insurance or security costs was the one area where principals who thought their Ministry funding inadequate were more likely than others to have increased their spending.

Principals of middle-class schools were slightly more likely to make no cut-backs at all, 34% compared to 20% of schools in low-income areas.

Solving Financial Problems

Trustees were asked how they had responded to problems or issues in 6 key areas of their work, including financial management. Only 27% of the trustees said their board did not have a problem or issue to resolve with regard to financial management. This is the lowest figure for all 6 areas asked about.

One percent of the trustees said their board had done nothing about their financial problem or issue. The main responses reported by trustees fell into three categories: action to improve income or control spending; changes to the actual system of accounting and reporting; and advice from various quarters.

To improve income, 38% of the trustees reported putting more effort into local fundraising, and 10% said their board sought outside sponsorship, 21% of the trustees said their board had cut spending across the board, another 29% cut spending in a few areas only, 7% had reduced support staff hours, and 1% reduced support staff pay or conditions.

Changes to accounting administrative systems were made by 44% of the trustees' boards. Fourteen percent changed the people responsible for the work, and 8% used temporary help from a private firm.

Twenty-two percent each reported that their boards had sought help regarding financial matters from NZSTA or the Ministry of Education, and 17% sought help from other schools.

While most trustees reported that they had taken 2 actions in response to a financial problem or issue, 17% reported their board took between 5 to 7 actions.

Summary

The recent Government budget made some acknowledgement of the need to improve schools' operational grants by increasing the total amount allocated to schools by 4% - though more of this is tagged to secondary than primary use. However, the material emerging through this survey suggests that this increase is unlikely to improve the ability of operational grants to meet schools' needs. It also suggests that the funding level for small schools is appropriate for larger schools as well.

While parental and community contributions have increased it is clear that the ability of schools to raise money is affected by the socio-economic composition of their

students, and the surrounding area, and links with commercial sponsorship. The 1993 survey material also suggests that many schools may have reached a plateau in what they are able to raise by themselves, and that it would be unwise to lower government funding.

The evidence from the 1991 survey was that the already existing resource gaps between schools in middle class and low income areas were widening. This 1993 survey confirms that trend, and the results of the University of Canterbury's more qualitative research in the Christchurch area (Gordon 1993). The original funding formula was designed to avoid the creation of winners and losers. Indeed, one might argue that it has achieved this aim. But it has not made co-winners of the schools in the areas in most need, contrary to the improvement of educational opportunity for already disadvantaged and educationally low achieving groups which was one of the main rationales for the reforms. Instead, it is the schools which serve these groups which are most likely to have the hardest financial rows to hoe.

3 - BUILDINGS, GROUNDS & EQUIPMENT

Boards of trustees have responsibility for the day-to-day maintenance of their school property, and all property maintenance which falls within a ten-year period. Boards may borrow money to accomplish this up to a certain sum, and can borrow beyond that if they get prior Government approval. Anything beyond this ten-year period is deemed to be major maintenance, and falls within Ministry of Education responsibilities. Such work is prioritized, and funding for major projects is often not available when the need becomes apparent. The Financial Assistance Scheme which matches sums raised by schools themselves was started in 1992, allowing schools which could raise the money to embark more readily on property development or refurbishing.

Property maintenance has been amongst the top three issues facing boards that all four groups surveyed have consistently identified during these surveys. For half the trustees responding, it takes first or second place in the time their board devotes to its work. It is also one of the areas in which principals have also consistently reported increased spending.

Last year the School Property Taskforce recommended that school boards be offered the option of outright school ownership or renting their school grounds and buildings from a new central entity concerned only with school property. Such an entity would have as its main objective "...to manage school property in an efficient and effective manner" , and would report to a different Minister than the Minister of Education (Ministry of Education 1993, p. 90). Although the Taskforce recommended that capital charging, much criticised when proposed for the tertiary sector, be introduced for schools, and suggested a gradual move from the current funding formula to one more reliant on roll changes and regional costs of property and maintenance, it was "unable to determine an objective and fair basis to reallocate existing funding among schools." (ibid, p. 75)

These recommendations were not endorsed by either the primary teachers' union, NZEI or the school trustees' national organization NZSTA. Very few of the submissions to the Taskforce favoured outright ownership, and the new entity was seen as yet another creator of paperwork and accountability measures, whose decisions were likely to reflect its financial position rather than educational needs. It seemed likely too this entity would go ahead with the school rationalizations (closures, amalgamations) which the Education Development Initiatives had not been able to deliver.

The issue was passed to the Schools Consultative Group,[6] which did not agree with the recommendations on capital changing, and itself recommended that any separate agency should report to the Ministry of Education. The government has yet to announce or its own decision on the Taskforce recommendations.

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[6] This group was set up in 1992 to provide the Government with a process to bring the major national educational organizations together with government departments and agencies to talk through and try to resolve major issues such as bulk funding of teacher salaries. Such consultation had been a feature of education administration before the reforms, and was dismissed by some as allowing the rule of 'vested interests'.

Adequacy of School Buildings and Grounds

The next table shows principal judgements of the quality of their school buildings: with significant improvement only in the number who now judge the quality of their classrooms overall to be very good, and no change since 1989 in the proportion of those principals who find their classrooms of poor quality, despite the increased spending on the deferred maintenance backlog revealed when responsibility for ongoing maintenance was handed over to schools.

Table 5
Adequacy of Schools' Accommodation

Facility	Very good %		Adequate %		Poor %		None %	
	1990 (n=207)	1993 (n=191)	1990	1993	1990	1993	1990	1993
Classrooms	21	32 *+	63	56	18	15		
Library	27	30	55	48	14	16	5	6
Sports facilities	25	25	57	58	18	15	0	1
Administrative space	12	20	38	34	49	46		
Staffroom	21	18	40	46	36	34	2	1
Swimming pool	14	18	46	44	17	14	23	24
Hall	12	17	17	21	6	3	61	53
Medical room/first aid facilities		13		48		21		17
Resource rooms	9	12	36	40	37	36	17	13
Specialist classrooms	4	5	8	12	5	7	78	72
Marae/whare	0	2	1	1	0	1	89	87

Twenty-seven percent of the low-income area principals thought their school's classrooms were of only poor quality, compared with 11% of others. This is the first time that school variables have shown up significantly with regard to school property in these surveys.

Four percent of small town principals thought their sports facilities were poor compared to 16% of their urban and rural counterparts; they also thought this of their swimming-pool (26% compared to 12% of others). Entitlement to school library provision paid for by the Ministry of Education starts at rolls of more than 155. Most (but not all) of the schools without libraries had rolls of under 100 students.

Fifty-five percent of the principals said they had adequate space for community consultation, but only 35% had adequate space for private discussions with parents and trustees. Principals at the smallest schools were most likely to think these spaces were adequate. All the intermediates whose principals responded to the survey had a school hall, compared to 34% of full primary schools, and 54% of contributing primary schools. This reflects the fact that only intermediates have had entitlement to school hall provision.

Most of the rural schools did not have a school hall (83%) compared to 39% in small towns, and 26% in major cities, and 38% of all schools in the sample lacked a medical room or first aid facilities. In contrast, only 2 of the intermediates had swimming pools, compared to 76% of the full primary, and 85% of the contributing primary schools. Swimming pools have not been included in school entitlement to government funding for

buildings.

All five schools which had marae or wharenui had high Maori enrolment. Three schools judged their marae or wharenui as very good, 1 adequate, and 1 poor; three belonged to full primary schools, 2 belonged to intermediates; three were found in rural schools, and 2 in urban schools.

Teacher Perspectives

In 1989, 58% of the teachers who took part in the survey thought their classroom space was adequate; in the 1993 survey the figure had fallen significantly to 47%. Differences in judgements that classrooms were adequate for the learning needs of their students were related to a cluster of associated variables: school type (only 29% for those teaching in intermediates thought their classrooms adequate), size (32% of those teaching in the largest schools found their space adequate), and class level (37% of those teaching form 1 and 2 students found their space adequate compared to 68% of those teaching new entrants).

Teachers in the smallest schools were more likely to think their classroom needed minor improvements, compared to 11% of teachers in larger schools. Interest in enlarging the classroom space rose with class size (from 17% of those with less than 20 students to 58% of those with classes between 35 and 39), school size (from 18% of those in the smallest schools to 48% of those in the largest schools), and class level (from 20% of new entrant teachers to 49% of teachers of form 1 and 2 students). Class level was also associated with changes in the view that the classroom might have to improve to cater for the NZ Curriculum Framework (2% of new entrant teachers compared with 12% of those teaching form 1 and 2 students).

Their school's recreational space was judged adequate for their students' needs by 86% of the teachers in the 1989 survey; in 1993 it was 80%. Sixty-six percent of the 1993 respondents (56% in 1989) thought their school library met their students' needs. Eighteen percent each said there were too few library resources at their students' level, or that the library was too small. Five percent noted difficulties experienced by their students in getting adequate access to their school library.

Vandalism

Vandalism levels decreased between the 1989 and 1990 surveys, but have remained constant since: 26% of the principals responding reported no vandalism whatsoever, 55% had minor incidents, 30% had broken windows, 10% had had several break-ins, 6% noted graffiti around the school, and 4%, major damage. Low-income area schools had a higher than average rate of major damage: 12%. Major vandalism increased with the proportion of Maori enrolment in a school, from none in low Maori enrolment schools to 9% of high Maori enrolment schools. Intermediates also had a higher rate of major vandalism, 17%. Rural schools were more likely to have experienced no vandalism in 1993 (51% compared with 5% of schools elsewhere), and to have had fewer incidents involving broken windows (8% compared to 48%).

While 63% of the smallest schools had had no vandalism to deal with, this fell to 23% for those with rolls between 100 to 200 pupils, and to 3% for those with rolls above 200. Larger schools also experienced more of these break-ins and broken windows.

Materials & Equipment

Computers for both classroom and administration were the only areas to show improvement between 1990 and 1993.

Table 6
Adequacy of School Equipment and Materials

Type of Equipment	Very good %		Adequate %		Poor %		None %	
	1990 (n=207)	1993 (n=191)	1990	1993	1990	1993	1990	1993
Art and crafts material and equipment	31	34	65	62	4	4	0	
Computers for administration	28	30	17	38 *	2	7	52	25 *
Books and classroom material	18	23	70	59	11	4		
Computers for classroom	23	19	36	54 *	28	12 *	10	2
Physical education	19	19	68	75	12	7		
Audio-visual equipment	27	17	60	68	13	15	0	
Medical/First Aid equipment		16		77		5		0
Musical instruments	14	15	62	63	25	23	0	1
Maori education resources		10		63		24		5
Science materials	10	9	65	57	23	17	0	

New technology is a prominent area of school spending. Computers have been bought by 94% of the schools since 1989, though 25% still did not have one for administrative use. Rural principals were most likely to have no computer to use for school administration (41%, compared with 22% in small towns, and 9% in cities).

Few schools had advanced onto the use of classroom aids such as electronic mail (7%) or CD Roms (8%).

Just under half of the schools (48%) had bought fax machines since 1989. Forty-three percent had updated their phone system. Forty percent had bought an electronic security system. The larger the school, the more likely it was to have added a fax machine (13% of the smallest schools compared to 76% of the largest schools), or an electronic security system (17% compared to 59%).

Within the overall picture of lack of improvement in areas other than technology, there have been some improvements over the last 2 years. In 1991, principals in schools in low-middle income areas were more likely than others to describe as poor their science materials and equipment, classroom computers, physical education, audio-visual equipment, and musical instruments. In 1993, that difference showed up only for musical instruments.

Reasons for this may include school prioritization of areas in most need of additional spending, or the willingness of outside sources to fund or supply particular items (bearing in mind the proportionate increase in local funds from business firms, and the Apple computer buying schemes based on supermarket dockets supplied by parents and others in the community).

Principals in schools with high Maori enrolment were more likely than others to describe the quality of their musical instruments and computers for classroom use as poor, as in 1991, but the quality of their audio-visual equipment, which also came into this category in 1991, had improved in the past 2 years. These principals were also more likely than others to describe their Maori language and Maori educational material as very good (25%).

Small town principals were more likely to find their science materials poor (30% compared to 15% of rural and urban colleagues), and their school computers in need of updating (39% compared to 14% of rural and 24% of urban principals). They also found their Maori language material poor (39% compared with 17% of others). Rural principals were most likely to have no computer to use for school administration (41%, compared with 22% in small towns, and 9% in cities).

Forty percent of the principals also thought their books and classroom materials would need updating for the New Zealand Curriculum Framework.

Teacher Perspectives

There has been little change since the first two years of the reforms in teachers' judgements of the adequacy of the resources they have to work with, or the resources available to them. Forty-four percent of the teachers in 1993 felt they had adequate resources for their programme, much the same as the 50% in 1989.

Table 7
Inadequacy of Materials

Resource	1990 % (n = 211)	1991 % (n = 202)	1993 % (n = 189)
Mathematics	26	26	32
Computers	28	27	32
Technology			27
Audio/visual equipment	21	19	26
Reading books	24	22	25
Science materials	19	19	24
Resources for Maori education/language	23	12	21
Tapes/videos/records	21	16	21
Musical instruments	18	19	17
Library/reference material	18	15	15
Art equipment and materials	16	13	15
Social/cultural studies	17	13	15
NZ Curriculum Framework			14
Physical education/sports	12	14	14

The school characteristics associated with dissatisfaction with resources were: proportion of Maori enrolment (rising from 43% for teachers in schools with very low Maori enrolment

to 61% for those teaching in schools with high Maori enrolment), socioeconomic status (rising from 42% of those teaching in middle class schools to 68% of those in low-income area schools). Socio-economic status and Maori enrolment were far more prominent than the variables associated in the 1991 survey results with differences in judgements of overall adequacy of resources. The same patterns are present for these variables in 1993 (teachers in country schools were more satisfied with their resources than others, as were, not unrelatedly, those in the smallest schools; and intermediate teachers were less satisfied than others), but they were no longer statistically significant.

Forty-eight percent of the 1989 teachers responding thought their classroom furniture was adequate; in 1993 it was 50%. Eighteen percent in 1993 thought their furniture needed major repairs or upgrading. Teachers from middle class or wide range schools were less likely (13%) to judge their furniture in need of major repairs or upgrading than their colleagues in low-middle class schools (33%) or in low-income area schools (26%).

Board Responses to Property Problems or Issues

Forty-one percent of the trustees responding to the survey reported no problem or issue arising for their school with regard to property maintenance. Thirty-nine percent said their school faced continuing problems with deferred maintenance, and 20%, with vandalism. A major, unexpected property problem had occurred at the schools of 9% of the trustees, and 7% said their school had problems with insurance. Ten percent mentioned other problems, such as new needs because of increased rolls, the legacy of previous work done poorly, or upgrading to meet recent health and safety legislation.

Summary

The main changes relating to school property and equipment since the shift to school-based management occur in 2 areas: buying of computers and other new technology, for both administration and student use, and some improvement in some schools' classrooms, and some slight improvement in school halls. There has been no overall improvement in quality of property or equipment - but, equally, there has been no deterioration.

Yet overall figures again mask differences between schools. It is of concern that it is schools in low income areas which are lagging behind others, and that computers are not as widespread in small towns and rural areas as in the cities. The reason for the first seems fairly straightforward - but it would be useful to investigate the latter further. Is it the need to address other priorities within limited budgets? Is it the absence of parental funds? Is it the absence of as many opportunities to develop business sponsorship or collect supermarket dockets, as in the Apple scheme?

It is also clear that property maintenance remains a central component of the workload of boards of trustees in school-based management.

4 - SCHOOLS AND GOVERNMENT

The functions of the former Department of Education and the Education Boards were divided between 4 new central departments and agencies 5 months after the first trustee elections were held. The two departments which schools have most to do with are the Ministry of Education, responsible for funding, and reviewed only 6 months after its birth, and the Education Review Office, also reviewed not long after it had begun its first cycle of reviews. Both suffered notable cuts in staffing, and had their roles more tightly defined than originally envisaged. Schools' early experience of these two departments was often confusing, since those in the agencies were also finding their feet at the same time. There was also a view voiced by some trustees and principals that the central departments were soaking up the savings which Treasury estimated would be made on education spending by decentralization, and that these (putative and never realistic)[7] savings should have gone directly to schools. This feeling of inequity between schools and the central bureaucracy was renewed when schools' operating grants were shaved in 1991.

The relationship between schools and the new departments was probably never going to be easy, or clearcut, given the fact that the scope which schools have to make their own decisions is dependent on government policy decisions.

Principal Experiences of the Ministry of Education and ERO

Figure 7: Principal Experiences of the Ministry of Education and ERO

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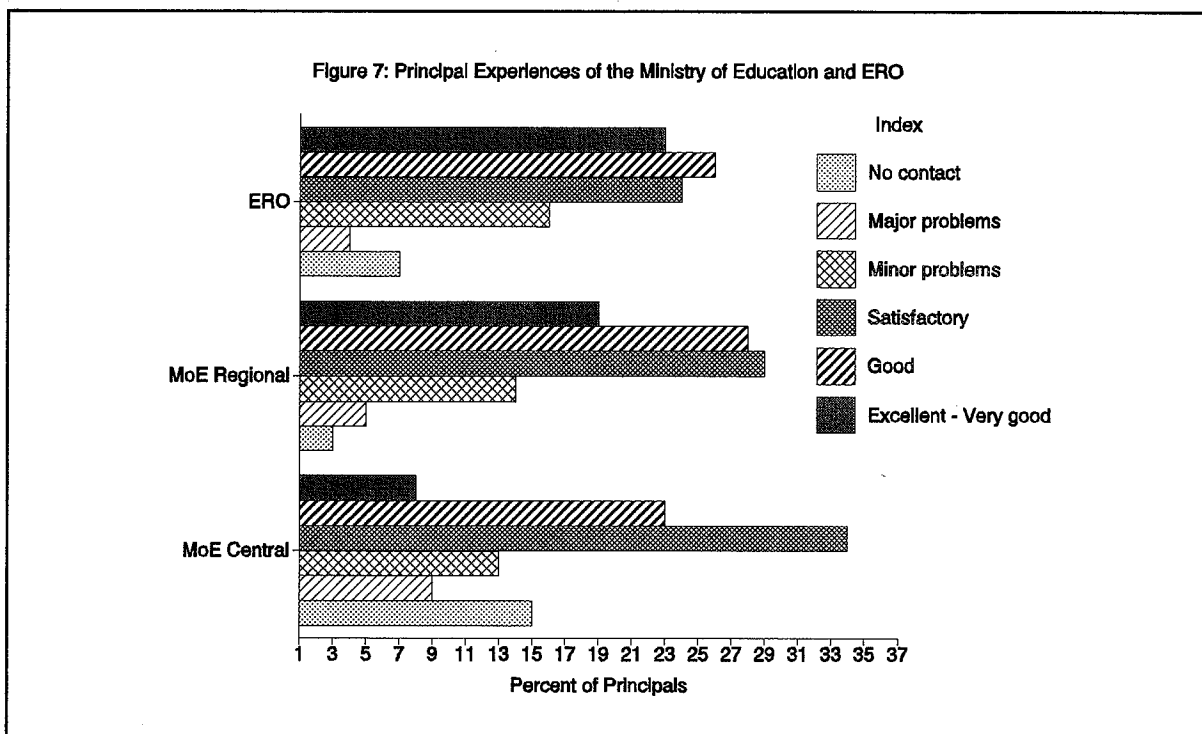
[7] A Coopers & Lybrand (1988) analysis of the financial cost of decentralization of the English school system for the British government was available in its draft form to the Picot taskforce. Its conclusion was that decentralization did not save money, and could, if properly resourced, cost slightly more.

Ministry of Education

Most principals responding described their relationship with the Ministry of Education as at least satisfactory. There have also been some significant improvements since 1990: a rise in the number of principals describing their relationship with the Ministry as good (from 13% to 23%), and a fall in those with minor problems (from 22% to 13%).

Just over half (28) of the 51 schools in the inter-year comparison sub-sample whose 1990 principals described them as having problems with the Ministry were still having problems in 1991; by 1993, only 9 of these schools were reporting problems. Between 1990 and 1991 4 of the 9 schools whose principal described their experiences of the Ministry as excellent or very good ran into problems also - with all but 1 sorted out by 1993; as did 8 of the 17 which had good experiences in 1990, and 21 of those with satisfactory experiences in 1990 (6 problems remaining in 1993).

These patterns point up the rockiness of the first year or two when schools were taking over operational grants at the same time as people in the newly formed departments came to grips with their roles. They also indicate that experiences can vary between years. Problems can arise even when things have been going well - and it would seem that problems can also be solved.

Comments on the nature of school problems with the central Ministry of Education were dominated by views that the advice received from the Ministry was poor or misleading (20), or that the Ministry was too remote from, and ignorant about schools (17). Other comments from a few principals each were: that the time frameworks the Ministry would like schools to work in were unrealistic, the Ministry's requirements kept changing, or its staff were of poor quality. Specific areas mentioned were funding, property, and school transport.

The main suggestions for remedying the problems identified were, not surprisingly, better communication (19), and also, a more local Ministry presence (16). Seven would like a more supportive system which did not treat schools as autonomous; in contrast, 2 principals would like to do away with the Ministry altogether. Four principals would like to see quicker action from the Ministry, and three felt the Ministry needed to be better funded.

Poor communication (14) and poor or misleading advice (13) came to the fore of the problems principals had experienced with the regional offices of the Ministry. Nine found them slow - 5 thought they needed more staff. Funding and property were the two specific areas mentioned.

Suggestions to solve the problems principals experienced with Ministry of Education regional offices included: improving the quality of staff(10), and adding more staff (9). Seven principals would like regional offices to have more autonomy from the central Ministry in making decisions within its sphere, and 6 would like to see it improving its accountability, or service, to schools. Two of the principals sought more school autonomy.

The Education Review Office

In 1991, 45% of the schools represented by responding principals had not been reviewed by the Education Review Office (ERO). By 1993, this had dropped to 4%. Fifty-five percent of the schools had had an assurance audit, and 47% an effectiveness review. The wider experience of being reviewed increased the proportion of trustees finding the reviews very useful, but it did not greatly alter the proportions of principals and teachers at either end of the scale. Most of the increase from 1991 figures of those finding the

reviews useful appears to come from those who did not reply to the 1991 question because their school had not yet been visited by ERO.

Table 8
Views on Usefulness of ERO Process

Usefulness	Trustees % (n = 292)	Teachers % (n = 336)	Principals % (n = 191)
Very useful	37*+	8	14
Of some use	51*+	69*+	70*+
Not useful	7	16	15

Thirteen percent of the teachers whose schools had had ERO reviews in the last 2 years had not seen the resulting report.

Two-thirds of the principals said their ERO review confirmed what the school was already doing, and 47% said their ERO review had offered constructive suggestions for change. Only 4% said ERO review had sought major change in the school. The main comments offered here were that the ERO reviewers had been over-concerned with compliance with minor matters (5%), had misinterpreted some aspects of the school (3%), did not check their facts with the school staff (2%), or were inappropriate, for example, had secondary school backgrounds rather than primary school (2%).

Sixteen percent of the principals responding to the survey said they had had minor problems with ERO, and 4%, major problems. (Not all of the latter had been asked to make major change in their school).

Trustees were less likely than principals and teachers to feel that schools did not need regular outside reviews (2% compared to 12% of teachers and 19% of principals). Thirty-nine percent of trustees felt it depended on what kind of review was done. This remains similar to the 1991 survey figures.

Trustees' views about schools' need for regular outside reviews were linked to whether or not they had actually experienced an ERO review. Thus, those whose school had been reviewed while they were on the board were more positive about the need for outside review (60% compared to 29% of those trustees whose school had not had a review). The latter were more inclined to say it depended on the form of the review (64% compared to 37%), and less likely to think the reviews were very useful (14% compared to 34% of those who had had an effectiveness review, and 48% of those who had had an assurance audit).

Teachers in high Maori enrolment schools were more likely to find the ERO process very useful than others (18% compared to 6% for teachers in other schools).

Agents or Partners?

Earlier NZCER surveys indicated that people in schools did not see themselves as servants of the central departments. Therefore they did not always feel it necessary to meet centrally set deadlines. This sense of freedom to resist government time-frames was supported by the alteration of the original deadlines for completion of charters, and

property occupancy documents as it became clear that they were too tight. It was not until 1993 that the Ministry of Education notified the small number of schools which had failed to hand in audited accounts for 1991 that it would not pay their next operating grant instalment until it had those accounts.

Principals were therefore asked in this survey what their attitude was to Ministry or ERO deadlines for the receipt of information (this includes applications). Only 34% of the principals responding said they always met such deadlines. Another 34% said they met most of them. Twenty-seven percent said the central deadlines were met if the school thought it was important, and 17% met them if they had time. There were no differences here related to school characteristics.

The University of Canterbury case studies of schools in different socio-economic areas (Gordon 1993) also brought out differences in school responses to central departments. People in low income areas seemed more hesitant about asserting themselves, and schools in these areas to lack trustees with the connections or confidence to approach MPs or people in positions of national influence.

Since funding and staffing have been areas of major concern to schools, we asked what schools did to receive satisfactory answers from the Ministry regarding the school's funding and staff resources. Only 27% of the principals said their school had felt no need to take any action.

Fifty-nine percent of the principals said that they had negotiated with the local Ministry staff. Seventeen percent of the principals and/or their school's trustees had discussions with district committee representatives who make decisions on equity funding and capital property expenditure.

Twenty-three percent of the principals had bypassed the regional Ministry offices to talk directly to Ministry staff at the national level. The same proportion of principals and/or trustees had discussed their situation with their local Member of Parliament. Eight percent of the principals and/or their school's trustees had spoken to people in positions of national influence, and 5% had gone to the media.

While 28% of the principals took only one action, 20% took 2, 12% 3, and 8% more than 3 actions. Thirty-five percent of those who went to the national office of the Ministry also spoke to their local MP. Eighty percent of those who went to the media talked with their local MP, and 50% to people in positions of national influence.

Principals from schools whose Ministry funding they found inadequate were more likely to negotiate directly with national Ministry staff, discuss their school situation with the district committee, go to the media, and talk to people in positions of national influence. But there were no clear associations with the socio-economic status of the school's community.

Probably the shift to school-self management has increased the number of schools taking such action - it has certainly not dissuaded people in schools from using the 'squeaky wheel' attention-getting techniques that dismayed the Picot taskforce.

Why Principals don't like the Statements of Service Performance proposed in 1992

Government departments and agencies have been operating for several years now under frameworks of accountability which link expenditure to output categories. Recipients of public funding have also been asked to account for their activity in this way. A draft statement of service performance for schools was first gazetted in late 1992, but met with great resistance from principals. An amended version was piloted in 1993.

128 principals provided responses to an open-ended question asking about this

statement of objectives and statements of service performance (outlined in the Ministry of Education circular 1992/50). Only 13% of these were positive, with another 2% unsure.

Thirty-two percent of these comments were concerned with the work or time involved. Thirty percent of the principals who commented thought the proposals were unrealistic, or worse, 22% could not see that such statements had any actual relationship with the school's work performance, 10% thought schools would not be able to make use of them for students' benefit, 8% thought that it was not possible to measure educational achievement in monetary terms, and 5% criticised the proposed format for reporting.

It is clear from these responses that these objections need to be addressed if such statements of service performance are to be accepted at school level. They are not seen as useful planning and review documents for people in schools, but rather as imposed and impractical extra administrative demands.

Do Trustees want more Decisionmaking Power - the Question of Bulk Funding for Teacher Salaries

Although the inclusion of teachers' salaries into schools' Ministry of Education grants was mooted in the *Tomorrow's Schools* policy document, the implementation working party which followed thought it best to delay a decision until some of the fundamental questions on its benefits and practicality could be answered. Such 'bulk' funding was not supported by trustees in the 1990 NZCER survey; it was supported by Treasury, State Services Commission, the Education Forum, (an alliance of some educationalists and the Business Round Table), and the incoming National government in 1991. An 'opt-in' pilot offered to all schools found only 2% which found advantages in it (usually financial). Nonetheless, the government pressed ahead with the introduction of the Senior Management grant in 1993, despite opposition from all but 1 of the 900 submissions made to the select committee considering the Education Act amendment bill. This grant has been paid at actual, existing salary rates rather than the averaging formula which was mooted for bulk funding.

The 1991 survey asked trustees for their board's likely response to the 'opt-in' option then being offered. For the 1993 survey, we have returned to the question originally posed trustees in 1990: "Do you think money for teaching staff should come within your bulk grant for you to allocate and pay?" Most trustees remain opposed to bulk funding (69%, slightly but not significantly less than the 79% in 1990), with 13% unsure (11% in 1990), and 14% in favour (9% in 1990).

Trustees who felt the funding their school received in 1993 was adequate were more likely to support bulk funding (23% compared to 9% of those who did not think their school funding adequate). Men were more likely to support bulk funding than women (21% compared to 5%).

The next table shows the reasons given by trustees who did not want full bulk funding to be introduced. These are much the same as in 1991.

Table 9
Trustees' Reasons for not Introducing Full Bulk Funding

Reason	1990 % (n = 206)	1993 % (n = 219)
Workload already big enough	41	27
Government's responsibility, not trustees'	26	24
We are amateurs/part timers	26	16
Negative effects on our relationship with staff	20	16
Will increase inequity between schools	18	9
Way to cut school funding	3	9

It would seem that trustees are largely satisfied with their current powers/responsibilities, and do not see the need to extend these.

Use of Assessment Results in School Funding

One use of aggregate data opposed by all 3 groups responsible for schools is any link with deciding part of a school's government funding. Yet aggregated results on a standardised test were introduced as one of the criteria for equity grant applications in 1993. It could also be argued that the link between achievement and funding already exists[8], inasmuch as the funding for individual schools is now dependent on student numbers, and parental perception of better achievement plays some part in their preference for schools. Indeed, the whole premise that competition for students acts as a spur to school improvement is based on such a link.

Table 10
Views on Linking Part of a School's Government Funding
with its Pupils' Achievement on National Assessment Tests

Views	Trustees %		Teachers %		Principals %	
	1991 (n = 322)	1993 (n = 292)	1991 (n = 396)	1993 (n = 336)	1991 (n = 186)	1993 (n = 191)
Not in favour	74	74	69	65	77	69
In favour	5	8	8	12	7	16
Depends/not sure	17	14	17	13	13	11

Reasons why trustees, principals and teachers oppose this use of achievement data are given in the next table.

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[8] While researchers are aghast at the invalid use of raw 'league tables' to compare schools, it is very difficult to accurately measure the 'value-added' contribution of individual schools. Schools also change their performance from year to year, and can differ in their performance on different subject areas and for different kinds of students within the same year. (McPherson 1993)

Table 11
*Reasons for Not Wishing Part of School Funding to be
Linked to Pupil Achievement on National Tests*

	Principals % (n = 107)	Teachers % (n = 234)	Trustees % (n = 187)
Variables other than school related to student achievement	33	28	18
Unfair/discriminatory	24	24	43
Would narrow curriculum	12	15	9
Doubt that reliable/fair testing methods exist	12	8	8
Could create elitist schools	6	12	25
Financial/administrative cost	3	7	1

Five percent of the teachers answering this question also said they could see no benefits for children in making such a link.

Four percent of principals and 2% of trustees responding to this question commented that they were in favour of such a link if the funding was targeted to improve the performance of low-achieving groups.

Summary

People in schools continue to be relatively relaxed about Ministry deadlines which do not provide them with something they need (as at June 1994, most had yet to return their audited accounts for 1993).[9] This may reflect a need to feel some autonomy or room at school level in the relation of schools to funding agencies and government policy as much as the high level of existing school workloads (see Chapter 8).

The continued opposition to bulk funding shows both the desire to contain school workloads, and to limit the sphere of responsibilities exercised at school level.

While there is general acceptance of outside review of school performance, the ERO approach seems more acceptable than the tighter framework implied in furnishing statement of performance objectives.

Imposing full bulk funding and statements of service performance against opposition would also make many in schools feel that they are being treated as government agents rather than partners, and that school self-management is a misnomer for a form of decentralization which simply shifts administrative work and responsibilities onto people at schools, whether or not that is appropriate.

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[9] It is rather ironic that the Minister of Education responsible for *Tomorrow's Schools*, David Lange recently expressed shock at what he takes to be a sign of schools' poor attitude to the accountability he says was always a key part of the reforms, yet also castigates the central agencies for being too distant from schools. (Sunday Star-Times, 3/7/1994). One sign for schools of that distance is the setting of deadlines which seem to take no account of school workloads, the necessary priority of teaching over other demands, and the voluntary nature of school boards.

5 - ADVICE, INFORMATION & SUPPORT

As before the reforms, schools continue to get free information from Government departments and agencies related to the requirements of these bodies, and to the introduction of new policy, such as the New Zealand Curriculum Framework. They also have access to some advice on building maintenance and development from the regional and national offices of the Ministry of Education.

Schools subscribing to the NZ School Trustees' Association (the majority) have access to advice on the role of trustees, and on industrial relations and personnel issues. The regional field officers' scheme has given schools access to local advice on resolution of difficulties within schools, and access to local mediation of internal differences and disputes (the 1994 budget halved support for this programme, raising questions about its continuation). Such advice and mediation is also sought from NZEI, the union representing primary teachers.

With contacts in other schools, these 2 sources are the main replacements for the former inspectorate, which was used to troubleshoot or ward off approaching troubles, as well as provide advice and stimulation on teaching and curriculum.

Other sources available to people in schools are principal organizations (by subscription), the school advisory service now run by colleges of education (mainly free, some services charged), and the Special Education Service (some services free, some charged).

Patterns of Change in Sources of Information and Advice

Principals' Reports

Tables 79 to 84 in Appendix C give principals' reports of their sources for information and advice on 11 key aspects of school life and policy. These show some interesting changes since 1989:

■ More use of the school's own teachers in the areas of assessment, building maintenance and repairs, and financial/accounting systems, with reduced use of parents and volunteers for both the latter areas;

■ more use of the Education Review Office in relation to assessment, and communication with parents;

■ significant decreases since 1990 in the use of the local cluster groups set up in 1989 (by the central Department of Education);

■ a decrease in the sources used for information and advice on staff development;

■ a decrease in sources of advice used for equity issues. This may indicate that their use in 1990 was to assist primarily with charter and policy development. One exception is the increase in the use of NZSTA as a source of information on gender equity, which may reflect NZSTA's increasing emphasis on this, and its contract with the Ministry of Education to provide boards with advice on EEO;

■ Less use of education service agencies for advice on buildings and on art and craft materials;

■ other schools are used most for curriculum advice, and then for assessment and staff development.

Overall, these indicate both the multiplicity of sources used by schools, and their continued reliance on central departments and national organizations or nationally funded advisory services. They also indicate schools' high level of reliance on school staff themselves. While schools sought outside information on resources such as buildings, and art and craft material during the first year of responsibility for their own budget, their use of such sources has fallen. This may indicate confidence with original choices.

Teachers' Needs for Advice

The material in Table 82, Appendix C shows that by 1993 principals were no longer a major source of information and advice for their teachers in 4 of the 7 areas asked about: curriculum, teaching methods, assessment, and needs of students from different cultures. This would indicate that principals' administrative responsibilities may have had to take precedence over their provision of educational leadership and support.

There has also been a significant increase in the proportion of teachers who felt they were missing out on needed advice or information, from 17% in 1990 to 27% in 1993. Another 25% of the teachers responding to the survey (27% in 1990) were unsure if they needed more information or advice. Teachers who felt they were missing out on needed advice were more likely to report a major decrease in their job satisfaction than those who did not feel they needed any more advice or information (26% compared to 13%).

Teachers in middle class schools were less likely to feel there was an area in which they needed more advice or information (14% compared to 35% average for others). While 20% of teachers in very low Maori enrolment schools felt the need for some particular advice or information, in high Maori enrolment schools this applied to 39% of the teacher surveyed.

Those who felt they were missing out mentioned similar topics to those described in 1991. The three most frequent were: teacher appraisal (56 teachers), assessment (50), and effective relationships and roles in schools (43). Then came a curriculum area (25), working with students with special needs (23), teaching methods (22), equity issues (19), and classroom management (19).

There has also been an increase in the proportion of teachers responding who felt their school was missing out on needed advice or information (36%, compared with 22% in 1990), with another 21% unsure (31% in 1990). Twenty-three percent of those who felt their school was missing out also reported a major decline in job satisfaction, significantly more than the 13% of those who felt their school had the advice or information it needed.

Again, teachers from middle-class schools were less likely to feel their school needed some advice or information (22% compared to an average of 44% for other schools). Teachers in high Maori enrolment schools felt their school was in more need of particular advice or information than others (54% compared to 31% average).

Successful roles and relationships in schools (57), resolving conflict (56), teacher appraisal (56), innovation in teaching methods (54) and improving children's social skills

(53) were the main topics ticked. Others were financial management/budgeting (22), and equity issues (21).

Do Schools Get the Advice They Need?

While over three-quarters of the principals expressed satisfaction with their current access to useful advice for 6 of the 17 aspects of school work asked about, and satisfaction levels have significantly increased since 1991 for 3 of these 17 areas, it is perhaps of concern that only 63% feel they have professional advice for the core of a school's work, curriculum, and only 58% felt they had this advice to help them in their assessment of students.

Table 12
Schools' Access to Useful Advice

Topic (n = 191)	Satisfactory %	Not sure %	Unsatisfactory %
Art and craft materials	92	3	3
Staff development	88 *+	4	8 *-
Financial/accounting system	87	3	9
Budgeting/finances	87	5	7
Building maintenance/repairs	85 *+	7	7 *-
Communication with parents	84	6	8
Individual children's problems	74	5	20
Audit requirements"	68	10	21
Special needs children	67	15	17
Gender equity issues	66	18	14 *-
Curriculum "	63	9	27
Maori issues	59 *+	17	22
Treaty of Waitangi issues	59 *+	18	22 *-
Assessment	58	9	31
Education Review Office requirements "	47	9	43
Implications of full bulk funding	44 *-	14	39 *+
Implications of proposed property framework "	32	22	44

Principals, like trustees, have expressed opposition to the introduction of full bulk funding, and the options produced by the property task force do not reflect the majority of the submissions made to it by schools and teacher and principal representatives. Both of these, if introduced, would have major impact on the current operations of schools, the environments in which they function, and on the relationships between the people who are responsible for the effectiveness of school work. It is therefore a matter of concern that principals did not feel they had satisfactory access to useful advice about two of the most contentious policy developments associated with local school management.

The lack of useful advice about ERO requirements reported by principals is also notable. The three areas which concern central policymaking and frameworks which have

major impact at school level stand out for the level of dissatisfaction expressed by principals.

It is also interesting that the 'equity' issues - gender, Maori issues, Treaty of Waitangi, and children with special needs - also produce a lower level of satisfaction, though these were given particular focus in the *Tomorrow's Schools* changes. More principals at schools with very low Maori enrolment expressed the view that their access was unsatisfactory for useful advice on Treaty of Waitangi, Maori issues, and children with special needs. Dissatisfaction was higher for high Maori enrolment schools with regard to advice on building maintenance and repairs and budgeting/finance.

More primary school principals were uncertain whether they were getting useful advice on the implications of full bulk funding and of the proposed property framework than were their intermediate colleagues.

Small town principals were less certain than their rural or city colleagues that they had access to useful advice in the areas of curriculum, staff development, and the implications of full bulk funding; and city principals were more confident than rural or small town colleagues about their access to useful advice on staff appraisal, gender equity issues, and equity for children with special needs. A fifth of rural principals were uncertain whether they had satisfactory access to useful budgeting/financial advice. However, principals in the smallest schools were generally more confident than others that they had the advice or information they needed.

Twenty-seven percent of the principals also reported that there was another area of advice or information which they felt their school needed, but was missing out on, with a further 22% unsure. These are much the same proportions as in 1991 and 1990.

Mediation or troubleshooting was mentioned by 22 principals (12% of the overall response), school management generally by 21, personnel issues by 17, specific curriculum areas by 15, and teaching style by 5 principals. Mentioned by several principals each were making staff appointments, time management, and better training for trustees.

An open-ended question asked principals what outside support their school needed, if any. While 2% said they just wanted to be left alone, another 2% felt it was important that schools avoided becoming insular, 9% each mentioned professional support 'like the old inspectorate', and advice from other education professionals - other principals, teachers, or advisors. Seven percent would like support in the form of increased funding, 3% better training for trustees. Other comments by a few principals each mentioned community or business support, and up to date, reliable information.

Principal Contact With Other Principals

One source of support and advice which is very important to principals has been other principals. Seventy-one percent of the principals responding felt their present contact with other principals met their needs, with another 7% unsure. Urban principals were more satisfied with their contact (80% compared to 66% of rural principals, and 57% of small town principals).

The two main forms of contact reported in an open-ended question were cluster meetings (41%) and meetings of the principals' association (36%). Twelve percent mentioned the principals' federation, 7% a specialist group, such as Catholic principals, normal or intermediate school, rural, or Maori groups, another 7% an unspecified principals' group, 6% NZEI. Twenty-one percent mentioned informal contacts, or networks, and 13% mentioned primary use of the phone to remain in contact with other principals. Twenty-one percent of the principals said they had regular or frequent contact; 6% that they did not have as much as they would like. Thirteen percent mentioned

seminars or training such as the reflective principal courses (funded by the Ministry of Education).

Use of Outside Agencies

Satisfaction with use of school advisory service

The school advisory service was rated as excellent or very good by 41% of principals responding, good by 33% of the principals, and satisfactory by 17% principals. Three percent each of the principals had had either minor or major problems, or no contact.

Only 17 principals answered an open-ended question on other services which the school advisory service should provide. Four or five each mentioned a desire for more work on school development, more cluster training, new school advisory service staff, the desirability of replacing ERO with the school advisory service, or the latter's need for more funding if it was to expand what it offered.

Teachers were slightly more critical. Twenty-two percent of the teachers responding described the school advisory service as excellent or very good, and 40% as good. Nineteen percent found it satisfactory, and 1% noted minor problems. Thirteen percent had had no contact with advisors in 1993. There were few responses to an open-ended question on what services the advisors should be providing: 8 mentioned poor advisors, 7 would like more of what they already offer, 5 made positive comments on the quality of advice, and 5 would like 'anything at all'.

Satisfaction with use of the Special Education Service

The amount and form of funding for the services provided by the Special Education Service (SES), one of the new central agencies born out of the reforms, has been subject to several reviews since 1989. So far funding to meet the specialist needs of children in the school system with special needs has been directed through the SES, rather than, as a minority have advocated, being allocated to school operating grants. The SES funding level was cut severely over the 1991 - 1993 budgets. This appears to have been felt at school level, with a significant increase in the proportion of teachers who have found they cannot get enough hours for their students[10], and the continuation of the problems which those in schools experience in trying to get sufficient support for their children with special needs.

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[10] SES does not provide the funding for these hours, but provides the assessment of student needs and assistance with the Individual Education Programmes usually required before Ministry of Education funding is given.

Table 13

Principal and Teacher Views of Problems with the Special Education Service

	Principals % (n = 191)	Teachers % (n = 336)
Insufficient hours for pupils' needs	50	42 *+
Insufficient SES staff	43	
Time lag in getting information/advice	28	24
Insufficient money allocated to employ teacher aides	22	25
Time lag in getting decision	20	17
Staff unable to give information/advice	8	11

Principals' suggestions to remedy the problems they had experienced were: increase the funding of the SES, or keep it a non-contestable service (20%), increase or change its staff, or cut the administrative staff of the service (14%). Nine percent of the principals took the different tack of switching SES funding to schools, or to individual children on the basis of their needs.

While principal 1993 ratings of their experience of the SES remain little different from the 1991 survey, more teachers now gave the SES an excellent or very good rating.

Table 14

Principals' and Teachers' Views of their Experiences of the Special Education Service

	Principals % (n = 191)	Teachers % (n = 336)
Excellent - Very good	22	17 *+
Good	28	26
Satisfactory	18	19
Minor problems	18	12
Major problems	7	10
No contact yet	8	15

Twenty-three percent of rural teachers in the survey had had no contact with the Special Education Service, compared to 12% of teachers in other areas. Those with very low Maori rolls were more likely to have had no contact with the Special Education Service (25% compared to 10% for others), but less likely to find such contact satisfactory (11% compared to 22% for others).

Use of Education Service Agencies

Use of the Education Service Agencies (private firms which were established with former government assets to provide sources of school materials, such as art and craft materials,

and services such as accounting and financial management, and making appointments, had climbed back again from 44% in 1991 (down from 54% in 1990) to 60%. Intended use for 1994 indicates that the higher pattern of use will be continued: 46% said they would be using an agency, with another 13% for financial services only. Six percent were unsure, and another 6% said their use would depend on other factors such as their 1994 funding.

Only 3% of the principals had had problems in their dealings with an education service agency, and another 4% described those dealings as (simply) satisfactory.

Trustee Views of their Need for Outside Support

Most of the issues which arose in the course of board work during 1993 had been resolved by boards themselves, sometimes with advice or assistance from national organizations such as NZSTA and NZEI: the patterns of support and action taken have been reported in chapters covering the areas in which they occurred. The next table shows that trustees generally felt their actions had been effective, with some shadows cast by finance and property maintenance.

Table 15
Trustees' Views of Success of their Board's Dealing with Problems/Issues

Area (n = 292)	Solved	Partially solved	Too soon to tell/ not sure	Not successful	Board unable to resolve
	%	%	%	%	%
Major policy decisions	29	7	10	0	0
Staff appointments	26	2	8	1	0
Financial area	24	18	22	1	4
Industrial relations	18	6	8	0	0
Board or board/staff relations	17	10	6	1	1
Property maintenance "	12	17	16	4	8

Trustees were generally confident that they could solve their own problems (with the existing support available), as the next table shows.

Table 16
Trustees' Views of their Board's Need for Outside Support

Area (n = 292)	Yes %	Not sure %	No %
Industrial relations	25	16	54
Property Management	25	10	61
Financial management	24	11	62
Staff appointments/promotions	23	12	60
Curriculum	18	21	55
Major policy decisions	18	15	60
Difficulty in school relations	18	8	67

Trustees from schools in low income areas were more likely to see a need for outside support for financial management (38% compared with 12% for middle class schools, and 21% for others). They were also more interested too in outside help for property management (38% compared with 17% for middle class schools), but there were no significant differences for the other areas asked about.

Trustee Use of the NZ School Trustees' Association

Fifty-seven percent of the trustees responding read NZ School Trustees' Association material on a regular basis, with a further 32% saying their reading varied. Only 10% said they did not read anything from NZSTA. Trustees from low income area schools were most likely to read NZSTA material.

Half the trustees thought NZSTA's consultation of boards was adequate, 30% thought it could be improved, and 18% were unsure.

In response to an open-ended question on the use their board had made of NZSTA at the regional level, 14% reported either training sessions, or using NZSTA as a source of assistance on a broad range of items, 8% had used it as a source of advice on employment matters or for general advice. Sixteen percent of trustees said their board had made no use of the regional NZSTA.

Trustee Contact with Other Trustees

Sixty percent of the trustees said they had some local contact with trustees on other school boards, and 23% had some contact with trustees living in other localities. Twenty-six percent had no contact with trustees on other boards. There was no association between the kind of contact with other trustees, and a trustees' role on their board, nor with their length of service as a trustee.

Summary

Government departments or national organizations remain important sources of information and advice for people in schools. While school staff often rely on themselves as well, there is a disquieting drop in teachers' reporting that their principal is one of their major sources

of advice on professional matters, and an equally disquieting rise in their need for more information and advice.

Principals are more sanguine, but nonetheless they too show the need for more information and advice on professional matters. It is also disturbing that the areas they feel least satisfied that they know what is happening are in the key policy areas of salary bulk funding and school property ownership, and in the aspect of public accountability through ERO reviews.

Trustees show confidence in their roles, and in their ability to solve most of the problems that have cropped up in their school. Finance and property management are the areas in which they cannot tell if they have solved the problem, or which seem beyond their efforts.

6 - THE COMPOSITION OF SCHOOL BOARDS

One of the hallmarks of the New Zealand decentralization reforms is that parents of children at the school form the majority on school boards. This reflects in part the 'consumer' orientation which ran through the Picot report, and in part the somewhat different desire in the same report to increase parent participation in schools, through democratically elected representatives. The Education Amendment Act of late 1992 allowed non-parents to put themselves forward for election, in time for the second general election of boards.

The emphasis on equity in the Tomorrow's Schools policy and its slightly greater leaning to a model of parent involvement as 'citizens' rather than as 'consumers' (Lauder et al 1990) led to efforts to encourage parents from all walks of life to put themselves forward for the first elections. This was also to safeguard against the fear amongst parents and professionals alike of parochialism and narrow interests identified by Department of Education polling (Heylen 1989a & 1989b). In the first board elections this probably helped to increase the proportion of women on school boards, compared to the old school committees. But a census of trustees just after the first election showed an under-representation of low income groups and ethnic groups other than Pakeha/European. Boards were asked to use their co-option powers to bring in representatives of these groups, and there is evidence that this was done. This period was also the time when charters were being developed, necessitating community consultation: and boards could probably see a use for the co-option of representatives of these groups, even if the need for their presence did not 'naturally' occur to them.

As boards took control of their operational budgets, however, they also increased their co-option of people with useful skills and contacts, and this was encouraged in the Education Amendment Act No 5 in late 1992.

How Long do Trustees Serve on their Boards?

The second election for boards of trustees took place in July 1992. Thirty-eight percent of our respondents joined their boards at this election. Another 38% have in fact served since the boards were set up in 1989. Twenty percent joined their boards during the first the first board term, 1989 - 1992, and 3% came onto their board in 1993.

It is interesting to see what little contrast there is with the length of service of the school committee members in the Wellington Education Board surveyed by the Society for Research on Women (SROW) in 1976 (Davey 1977): 39% were also in their first term of office (elections for school committees were held every 2 years).

Only two differences were associated with school or personal characteristics: trustees from schools serving low-middle income areas were the least likely to have been on their boards since 1989 (26% compared to 40% average for other schools), and more men than women had served on their school board since 1989 (44% compared to 31% - this was also the case in the SROW study of school committees.

Length of service, however, showed no significant associations with some aspects of the role, as might be expected. Trustees who had served longer than others were just as likely to want more training, and to have no more (or less) contact with trustees in other schools than their more recently arrived colleagues.

Turnover of Trustees

Chances are that boards will experience at least one resignation each year. Forty-nine percent of the schools represented by the survey had no resignations in 1993, the second year after the second trustee elections, a figure close to the 41% of 1990, the second year following the first elections. A third of the schools lost 1 trustee (37% in 1991). Resignations at a higher level, however, were lower than in 1991: 18% lost 2 trustees (down from 30% in 1991), 5% lost 3 (down from 13% in 1991), and 8% lost 4 or more (the same as in 1991).

Trustees from the largest schools reported fewer losses of 2 or more trustees (12%, compared to 23% of those in the smallest schools, and 28% in those with rolls between 35 and 99). It is not clear why size should have this effect since other factors such as length of service which might have a bearing show little difference between trustees at schools of different size. Perhaps trustees in the smaller schools do feel more heavily the weight of their tasks, because their boards are smaller (72% of the smallest schools have no co-opted trustees, compared to 33% of those with rolls between 35 and 99, and 25% of the largest schools).

There has been little overall change in the reasons why trustees resign. External factors have the most weight. Twenty-one percent of the trustees said a move out of the district was the reason for a colleague's resignation, 19% mentioned job workloads, 11% family responsibilities, and 5% job transfers (down from 26% in 1990). Ten percent said their colleague's child was no longer at the school (21% in 1991). Disillusionment with the role of trustee remained much the same as 1991, 14%; but the board workload as a reason had halved from 8% to 4%. Health was mentioned by 4%.

The drop in job transfers since 1990 probably reflects changes in the labour market and reduced staffing levels in the public service. With the second elections just held, and the influx of new trustees, the child's departure from the school was less likely than it was in 1991; and the cumulative impact of board workload was also less likely to be felt.

Seventeen percent of the schools represented by trustees responding to the survey did not replace trustees who resigned (much the same as the 13% in 1991). Even allowing for lower resignation rates, co-option was no longer the most favoured method of replacement (down from 45% of schools in 1991 to 17%). Board appointment was used by 22% of the schools (32% in 1991), and elections (which cost money) by 19% (29% in 1991).

Who Is Likely to Stand Again?

At this stage of the second board's cycle, 23% of the trustees responding intended to stand again in the 1995 elections, with a further 29% unsure. These figures are very close to those from both 1990 and 1991, indicating that these proportions are likely to hold steady in the future. If this is so, then perhaps one can also expect a similar degree of continuity over the next elections, to be held in 1995. Certainly 31% of those recently elected were thinking of standing again, and 50% of those who had joined the board in the last year.

There remains a thread of continuity too from the very start of school self-management, with 14% of those who have been on the board since 1989 intending to stand again (23% unsure, not significantly different from others who joined the board more recently), and 22% of those who joined between the first and second elections.

Those least likely to stand again had responsibilities for board training, EEO, and liaison with the PTA: all responsibilities also associated with higher workloads than other

board members.

Willingness to stand again was also related to the proportion of Maori enrolment in the school (and thus with higher proportions of increased satisfaction), rising from 16% in schools with very low Maori enrolment, to 40% in high Maori enrolment schools. Pakeha/European trustees were also less keen (22% compared with 39% Maori).

There were two main reasons given by trustees for standing again: a desire to carry on with work which had been embarked on (13%), and an enjoyment of their involvement with the school (12%).

The three main reasons given for not intending to stand again were that the trustee's child would no longer be at the school (26%), that being a trustee took too much time (19%, compared to 6% in the 1991 survey), and that they felt they had been on the board long enough (16%). Two other reasons given were that their board would need 'new blood' then (11%), and that others should serve their turn (8%).

Are Trustees Representative of Parents?

Forty-four percent of the trustees who responded were female, 54% male, indicating a slight under-representation of females by Ministry of Education school returns of July 1993 of 47% female, 53% male for primary schools - and a slight under-representation generally for women on boards of trustees.

Eighty-four percent gave their ethnic group as Pakeha/European, 10% Maori, 4% 'New Zealander', and 2% each Pacific Island and Asian. Ministry of Education figures from schools' 1 July 1993 returns give 81% European, 13% Maori, 2% Pacific Island, 1% Asian, and 4% as other/not stated. Thus there is a slight under-representation of Maori trustees in this survey.

Census figures for 1991 for the ethnic group of people in the 30-49 year old age range (into which all but 5% of trustees taking part in this survey fall) give 77% for NZ European, 9% Maori, 4% Pacific Island, and 2% Asian: showing in general some under-representation of the latter 2 groups on boards.

Almost half the Maori trustees responding to our survey, 46%, were in high Maori enrolment schools. Maori trustees were also more likely to be found in low-income area schools (18% of trustees in these schools, compared to 5% in middle class schools). Or to come at it from a slightly different angle, 90% of the trustees in the middle class schools in the survey were Pakeha/European, compared to 66% of the trustees in low-income area schools.

Only 1% of the trustees gave their age as less than 30. Forty-seven percent were in their thirties, and 46% in their forties. Four percent were 50 years or older.

Trustees differ most from the general population in their higher educational qualifications, and higher socioeconomic status.

The next table shows a far greater number of trustees with university qualifications, nursing or teaching qualifications, and far fewer without any qualifications at all than the general population.

Table 17
Highest Education Qualification of Parents and Trustees

Qualification	NZCER Survey 1993				Census 1991	
	Trustees %		Parents %		%	
	Female (n=129)	Male (n=158)	Female (n=453)	Male (n=135)	Female	Male
University degree	9	28	12	24	6	9
Nursing/teaching certificate/diploma	30	5	10	1	12	2
Trades certificate/diploma	11	18	16	27	8	26
UE/Higher School Certificate /Sixth Form Certificate	22	18	15	12	13	11
School Certificate	23	16	23	21	18	14
No qualification	12	14	24	15	43	38

NOTE: The 1991 census data is taken from Table 6.5, *Highest Qualification by Sex, 1991* (Statistics NZ 1993, p. 79) Proportions have been calculated from the totals in this table which correspond with the categories used in the survey questionnaires, omitting other tertiary qualifications, bursary/scholarship, overseas qualification, and other school qualification.

Comparison with the SROW 1977 school committee members study shows a similar pattern to present trustees (Davey 1977, p. 33).

Table 77 in Appendix A shows more trustees (and the parents responding to this survey) were in professional/managerial occupations (corresponding to Elley-Irving groups 1-2) than the general population at the last analysis available (Garden 1989), and far fewer in unskilled/manual work (corresponding to Elley-Irving 5-6). This pattern also held for the Wellington region school committee members interviewed in 1977. Only 2 of the 292 trustees responding to the survey were unemployed, compared to 8% of the male parents responding, and 7% of the male population aged 25 - 50 years in the 1991 census.

Parental responses to questions on their contact with schools and school involvement (reported in chapter 12) show that it is the parents in unskilled/manual work, or who are unemployed, who feel more distant from their child's school than others.

Are there more non-parents on boards now?

The Education Amendment Act passed in 1992 allowed people who were not parents of children at a given school to put themselves forward for election to that school's board. This has made a small difference to the composition of boards: 69% of the schools represented by trustee responses had parents only on their school board (65% for the comparable question in 1991, which asked about the parental status of co-opted trustees); 21% had 1 non-parent (22% in 1991), but 13% had 2-3 non-parents (up from 4% in 1991), and 6% had 4 or more.

The next table gives parent and trustee views on the desirability of non-parents standing for election as school trustees. There has been a significant increase in parental support for non-parents' eligibility to stand.

Table 18
Views of Non-Parent Eligibility to Stand as Trustees

View	Trustees % (n = 292)	Parents % (n = 634)
In favour	57	47 *+
Not in favour	29	33
Not sure	12	18

Parent and trustee reasons for their views here were very similar. Those who were in favour of non-parents being able to stand mentioned that they could have expertise which the school needed (33% of all parents responding, 20% of all trustees responding), that they could bring into the school fresh ideas or detachment (parents 12%, trustees 16%), and that it was good to have a wide range of people from which to choose the school's trustees (parents 6%, trustees 4%).

Those who would prefer only parents to be eligible for election as trustees felt that parents had more interest in what happened in the school (21% of all parents responding, 17% of all trustees responding), that they had better contact with the school, and were better informed about it (parents 5%, trustees 8%), and that non-parental trustees might bring vested or narrow interests to bear upon their work (parents 6%, trustees 3%).

However, the reliance of schools in low income areas on people who are not parents which was found by Gordon (1993) in her qualitative study of Christchurch schools, is supported by the results of this national survey. While 79% of trustees from schools serving mainly middle class areas and 80% of those serving areas of wide social range reported that all their fellow trustees were parents, this fell to 49% for those in low income areas, and 41% for those in low-middle income areas.

A Decrease in Co-option

School boards can decide themselves how many trustees they would like to co-opt. The overall pattern of co-option has changed since 1991. Forty-eight percent of the schools represented by trustees responding had no co-opted trustees on their boards, up from 30% in 1991. One trustee had been co-opted at 36% of the schools (35% in 1991), 2 or 3 in 24% of the schools (down from 44% in 1991), and 4 or 5 by 3% of the schools (9% in 1991).

This pattern is now rather more like the pattern of co-option reported in the 1977 survey of school committees, when about half the committees surveyed had co-opted members (Davey 1977, p. 10).

Eleven percent of the trustees responding to the 1993 survey were co-opted (falling between the Ministry of Education figure for 1 July 1993 of 8% and the 17% in the SROW study). As in the 1977 school committee study, the characteristics of co-opted members were not significantly different from their elected or appointed colleagues.

There was a gradual rise in co-option with the socioeconomic status of the school, from 37% of trustees at schools serving a wide socio-economic range reporting that their school had between 1 - 3 co-opted trustees, to 64% of those in low income areas. This

is a change from the 1991 survey findings, when schools in low income areas were more likely than others to report no co-option.

Trustees from middle-class schools were now also the least likely to say their school had co-opted a non-parent, with only 7% having one or more, compared to 14% of wide-range schools, 29% of low-middle income area schools, and 25% of low income area schools. This change in the survey results would support Gordon's analysis that school boards in low income areas have more difficulty finding parents with the kinds of skills and contacts which are useful for schools to have on their boards.

In the 1991 findings, those from the smallest schools were also likely not to co-opt trustees. This has remained the pattern, with 72% of these trustees reporting that their school did not co-opt trustees, compared to 33% for those in schools of 35-99, 42% for schools of 100-199, and 25% for schools of 200 or more students. However, as one might expect, co-opted trustees in the smallest schools were more likely not to be parents of children at the school. Nineteen percent of the trustees at the smallest schools said all of their co-opted trustees were parents, compared to 39% of those at schools with 35-99 students, and 56% of the trustees at the largest schools.

Co-opted trustees' responsibilities are as wide-ranging as other trustees.

Table 19
Co-opted Trustees' Responsibilities

Responsibilities	1989 % (n = 267)	1990 % (n = 215)	1991 % (n = 234)	1993 % (n = 157)
Property/maintenance	14	23	33	35 *+
Maori liaison	18	27	27	24
Treasurer	32	16	22	22
Secretary	23	23	27	20
Finance/fundraising			7	17 *+
Community consultation	3	9	18	15
Liaison with PTA/Home and School Association/School Council	3	10	22	11 *-1991
Public relations/school promotion				11
Staffing	3	7	10	7
Special needs				5
EEO				5
Liaison with ethnic communities	7	8	7	5
Board training				4
Industrial relations				4

Three of the most frequent roles taken by co-opted trustees reflect two of the areas which dominate board time: property maintenance, and finance, including fundraising. It is interesting too to find the use of co-option to obtain public relations or promotional skills.

But it is also interesting to find that the use of co-option to obtain liaison with the Maori community has not decreased. While this may signal that a number of schools are keen to maintain the initial emphasis in the reforms on the inclusion of Maori community

concerns in school affairs, it may also signal difficulties in recruiting and supporting Maori trustees.[11]

Are Boards Smaller Now?

In response to the difficulties of some small schools in finding their full complement of 5 elected members, the Education Amendment Act No 4 in 1991 allowed boards to decide how many elected trustees they wished to have. This has had some effect on the overall size of boards, but at the upper rather than lower levels. Nine percent of the 201 schools represented in trustee responses had fewer than five members on their school board, excluding the principal and staff representative: this is little different to the 8% in the 1991 survey. Forty-three percent of the schools had the former minimum of 5 trustees (39% in 1991); and 40% had 6-7 members (down from the 1991 53%), and 16% boards of 8-10 members (24% in 1991). The trend here may be to decrease board size above 5, but not to take it below that level.

Integrated Schools

As in 1991, trustees from integrated schools reported more members of their school boards (only 5% had 5, compared to 44% of trustees at state schools: and 85% of trustees from integrated schools reported 8 or more board members compared to 8% of trustees at state schools). They were also more likely to co-opt 4-5 trustees (20% compared to 2% of state school trustees); and to have 2-3 non-parents amongst their co-opted trustees (20% compared to 2% again).

Only 15% of trustees from integrated schools reported no non-parents on their board, in contrast to 72% of state schools, and 27% reported 3 or more non-parents on their board compared to 1% of state schools. However, there was no significant difference in the views of integrated and state school trustees on the desirability or not of allowing people who are not parents to stand for election to school boards.

Summary

While boards of trustees and parents now have more latitude with regard to board size and who can be elected onto boards to represent parents, the overall composition of boards has not changed significantly since 1989. People who are not parents do not seem to be showing much interest in standing for school boards, even though there is quite a lot of parental and trustee support for their inclusion.

Filling trustee positions does not seem to have been a major problem for most schools. Schools in low income areas remain the important exception.

Although the socio-economic composition of boards (overall) is more representative than school committees, it is still not representative of the population, indicating that the shift to school-based management by itself cannot bridge the gaps between schools and low-income groups.

The continuities with former school committees in terms of their composition and use of co-option may surprise some who think of the new boards as entirely born again. but they do suggest that between 5 - 7 members (elected or co-opted) is a viable or useful

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[11] The discomfort felt by Maori trustees when they are the only Maori trustee on their board is documented in Johnston (1992).

number of members to carry out the (present) work of school boards.

Board continuity through elections does not seem to be a major problem. It would seem that a sizeable proportion of trustees, like their school committee predecessors, are prepared to serve more than one term.

7 - TRAINING

With the shift to school-based management, people in schools became responsible for making decisions on what training and professional development they would receive, and from whom. School operational grants are now the main source of funding for staff development and trustee training. Other sources are: the advisory service, included in colleges of education bulk funding as an untagged item, Ministry contracts (included in curriculum development contracts, the NZSTA contract for work with trustees, particularly in the area of EEO, and in principal development contracts).

Trustee Training

Most of the trustees responding had had some training or advice for their role over the past year, 91%, marginally more than the 83% who had had some training or advice in the 1991 survey. There was an increase in NZSTA seminars; but most of the training or advice noted by trustees came through centrally produced written material, through informal use of resources within the school, or informal use of local contacts.

Table 20
Forms of Trustee Training/Support 1993

Form	% (n = 292)
Material from NZSTA	66
Material from Ministry of Education	53 *+
Material from NZEI	42 *-
Other trustees on board	41
School staff	37
NZSTA seminar	37 *+
Seminar	27
Cluster seminar	21
Regular contact with trustees in other schools	18
Private firms/consultants	13
None	9
College of education	8
Seminar shared with school staff	2

Other sources mentioned by 1% each were courses on a specific topic, contact with another school, the trustee's previous board experience, and the trustee's paid work. The median of training sources mentioned was 3, with the range from 1 source only (6%) to 9 sources of information or training (2%).

Pakeha/European trustees were more likely than Maori to have participated in one-off training sessions (27% compared to 7%), NZSTA seminars (39% compared with 25%), to have used material from NZSTA (67% compared with 50%) or from NZEI (44%

compared with 29%), and to have used private firms (13% compared to 4%) or to have had guidance from other trustees (7% compared to 0%). Maori trustees were more likely to have used Ministry of Education material (61% compared to 42%), as were women (50%, compared to 35% male trustees).

Maori trustees were much more likely than Pakeha to say their training had not met their needs (21% compared to 7%). There were differences, too, in the topics they would like more training on: Maori initiatives headed their list (50% compared to 13%), followed by school reviews (43% compared with 26%), and industrial relations (29% compared with 17%).

A quarter of all trustees responding felt that the training or advice they had received had fully met their needs as a trustee, and 60% found partial satisfaction. Only 8% felt their needs had not been met at all, and another 4% were unsure. But overall, as in 1991, there seems to be some room for improvement in meeting the training needs identified by trustees. An indication of the range of those needs is given in the next table.

Table 21
Topics Trustees Would Like Further Training On

Topic	% (n = 121)
Principal appraisal	82
Curriculum	77
School review	63
Appointments	46
Personnel issues	46
Industrial relations	41
Role of trustee	39
Maori initiatives	36
Other	22

Other topics mentioned included finance, property management, equal employment opportunities, and meeting procedures. The median number of topics ticked was 2; 25% ticked 1 topic only, and 21% 5 - 9 topics.

Twenty percent of the male trustees wanted no further training, compared to 11% of the women. Women were also more interested in Maori initiatives (31% compared to 22% of men), and school reviews (33% compared to 22%). Desire to know more about Maori initiatives rose with proportion of Maori enrolment (the only training topic to do so), from 7% in very low Maori enrolment schools, to 29% in high Maori enrolment schools. There was more interest from integrated school trustees in their general role (35% compared to 15% of state school trustees). Trustees from small town schools showed most interest in industrial relations (32% compared to 14% average for others).

Only 9% of trustees in the smallest schools said their training needs were fully met, compared to 36% of trustees in the largest schools. There were no statistically significant relationships between length of time as a trustee and satisfaction with training, or desire for further training. This indicates that (as with school staff) initial training cannot be relied on as the only form of training needed by trustees.

NZSTA has become the most desired provider (46%, up from 28% in 1991), followed quite closely by the Ministry of Education (39%, up from 29% in 1991). Educational institutions were ticked by 27%, and private firms by 13%, much the same as in 1991. Other trustees were mentioned by 18%, and other trustees on the school board by 13%. A new source is NZEI, the primary teachers' and support staff union (23%).

The median number of desirable sources for training was 2; 30% ticked 1 source only, and 20%, 5 to 7 sources.

Principal Training

Eighty-eight percent of the principals had had some education/training for their work in the past year. This is much the same as in 1991, and slightly down on the 1989 and 1990 survey figures. As before, most (74%) had done some of this training in their own time. While boards made some financial contribution to the training costs of all the principals who had had training, 42% of the principals also contributed financially to their own training.

Ministry support for principal training had almost doubled since 1991 (19% compared to 11%), but was still well below the 37% of 1990. Rural principals were more likely than urban to receive some Ministry of Education funding for their training (28% compared to 11%) - but they were also more likely to contribute to its costs themselves (54% compared to 35%).

The next table shows what this training was on, and the marked changes since 1990.

Table 22
Areas of Principals' Training

Area	% 1990 (n = 207)	% 1991 (n = 186)	% 1993 (n = 191)
Principal's role in general	68	51	59
Educational leadership		19	50 *+
Staff appraisal	66	61	47 *-
Curriculum area	60	47	46 *-
Management/administration	75	45	46 *-
NZ Curriculum Framework			34
Personnel matters	62	40	30 *-
Policy development		36	29
School self review		43	28
Accounting/budgeting	55	26	25 *-
Employment/Industrial relations			20
Maori issues		9	10
Community consultation	33	15	9 *-
Treaty of Waitangi	38	7	7 *-
Equity		9	7

Almost all the principals who responded would like more training (94%), with another 2% unsure. Most (81%) preferred to train with other principals. Forty-six percent would like to train with their own staff. Preferred sources were the advisory service (45%), college of education lecturers (20%), university staff or a private firm (10% each). Twelve percent had no preference.

Table 23
Principals' Priorities for their Training Related to
Tomorrow's Schools Changes

Area	1990 % (n = 207)	1991 % (n = 186)	1993 % (n = 191)
School development	51	40	60
School self review	56	59	55
Staff appraisal	62	44	41 *-
Educational leadership	37	29	40
Legal aspects		31	35
Financial planning	42	32	29 *-
Administration	32	20	24
School relationships		16	21
Maori issues			15
Property management			13

The decrease in interest in financial planning and staff appraisal indicate two areas of growing principal confidence in their new role as school managers.

Principals' Priorities for Teacher Training

Eighty-one percent of the principals would also like their staff to receive some training to respond to the education administration changes; 6% were unsure, and 5% felt this was inappropriate.

Table 24 shows the areas related to the reforms which principals would like their teachers to have training in. Note the shift away from teacher appraisal, which is in line with the increase of teacher appraisal shown in teachers' answers. The shift away from equity fits with the data presented in chapter 12 on school policies and planning, which indicates that developments in this area were most likely in the initial years of the reforms.

Table 24
Principals' Priorities for Teacher Training

Area	1990 % (n = 207)	1991 % (n = 186)	1993 % (n = 191)
School review		60	62
Assessment			58
Staff appraisal	71	55	52 *-
Computers			42
Charter/policy development	22	36	31
Relations with parents	26	28	28
Budgeting	23	25	18
Equity	25	15	13 *-

Teacher Training

Thirty-four percent of the teachers responding to the 1993 survey said that they had had more professional development than the previous year. Forty-one percent had had much the same amount. Sixteen percent had had less than the previous year, and 5%, none. These figures are much the same as 1990, despite the introduction of the NZ Curriculum Framework, and the increase in the proportion of school budget spent on staff development which emerges from the information provided by principals. (see also Wilson & Houghton 1993).

However, teachers with class sizes of 35 or more were more likely to have had no training at all (16%). Teachers in state schools were more likely to have had the same amount as the previous year (43% compared to 22% in integrated schools).

The next table shows the areas where teachers thought they had had their most useful training. It demonstrates a similar pattern as their 1991 answers.

Table 25
Most Useful Areas of Training/Advice in Last 12 Months

Area (n = 336)	%
Curriculum area (including Curriculum Framework)	73
Computers	15
Student assessment	12
School development	9
Teacher appraisal	8
Management	8
Child behaviour	7
Special needs children	7
Classroom management	4

Other training/advice mentioned positively was Maori language, classroom management, and administration (4% each), interpersonal skills (3%), relations with parents, information management/library (2% each), and enrichment/extension (1%).

Most of this professional development occurred within teachers' own schools (64%, up from 33% in 1991, but much the same as the 74% in 1990), or locally, with other teachers (55%), the same proportion who were responsible for passing their training onto others in the school. But few teachers train with people from all over the country - 7%.

Few teachers also train with support staff (3%), or with trustees - 2% compared with 18% in 1990. This was the only significant change in the pattern of teachers' inservice training since 1990.

The prominence of advisors as the source of teachers' most useful advice comes to the fore in the next figure. This also shows the substantial match between teachers' existing sources of advice, and their preferred sources - except for one area. The high desire to get advice from teachers in other local schools is at odds with teachers' current experiences. This may indicate the difficulty within local school self-management of such sharing between potential or real competitors.

Figure 8: Sources of Teachers' Most Useful Advice and Preferred Sources
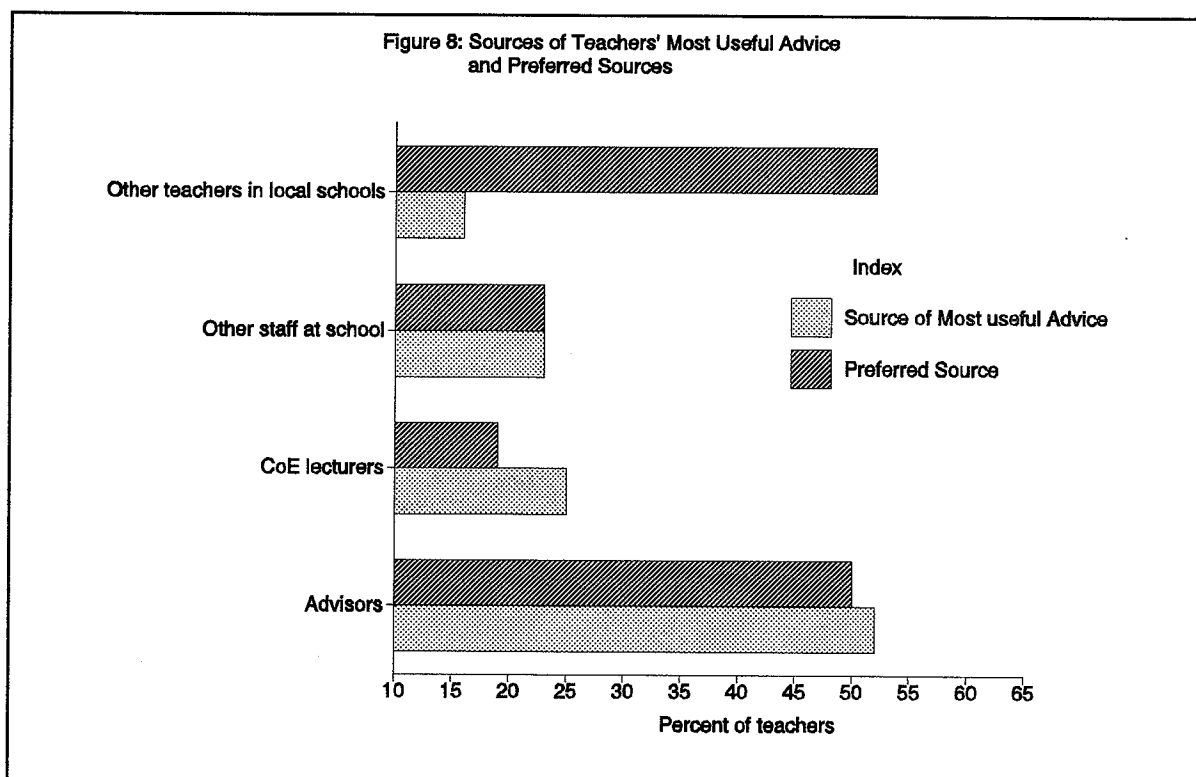
Other sources of the training advice which teachers found most useful were their principal (9%), Special Education Service (9%), private firms (8%), and 3% mentioned resource or reading recovery centres.

Twenty-three percent had no preferences of the source of their staff development.

Looking at the next table which shows when teachers undertook professional development, the most marked rise since the start of the reforms is in their use of holidays and weekends.

Table 26
Time When Training Took Place

Time	1990 % (n = 373)	1991 % (n = 396)	1993 % (n = 336)
During school hours	88	82	81
After school hours	68	63	70
Evening	24	28	35 *
Weekend	19	23	24
Lunch breaks	9	7	9
School holiday time	7	15	20 *
Before school hours	6	4	4

There has also been a jump in the proportion of teachers undertaking education or training in their own time from 42% in 1989 to 70% in 1993, although the range of the topics which attract them has not changed greatly.

Table 27
Topics Studied in Teachers' Own Time

Topic	% (n = 237)
Curriculum area	64
NZ curriculum framework	17
Administration/management	14
Child behaviour/behaviour management	11
Teacher appraisal	11
Special education	10
Educational leadership	9
Interpersonal skills	9
Education administration reforms	7

While a third of the teachers paid for their training in 1990 and 1993, the proportion paid for by their board has risen from 33% in 1990 to 51% in 1993. Perhaps this is where some of the budget increase reported by principals has been invested. The Ministry of Education paid for 7% of this education and training, marginally up on the 3% in 1991.

Looking ahead, 53% of the 1993 teachers planned to undertake some more education or training for their work in their own time in 1994. A further 28% were unsure. This proportion is little changed since 1990. The main reason for not intending to train in the next year, or being unsure about training, was lack of energy after work (21% of all teachers responding, slightly up from the 15% in the 1991 survey). Thirteen percent each said they could not afford it, or that the training they would like was not provided close enough to them, and 12% had no time for training. Seven percent would make their

decision based on what was available to them. Six percent saw no need for further training, often because they were close to retirement, or had just completed some major training, such as a degree.

Summary

There were some initial fears that the inclusion of money for training in schools' operational grant would tempt boards to cut back on staff development. That does not appear to have happened. Trustees seem slightly more willing to sacrifice spending on their own training. The material indicates that trustees' training needs are not yet being met as fully as they deserve.

There does seem to be more in-house training occurring now, and the clusters which were set up at the start of the reforms do not seem to have firmed into enduring training and mutual support sites. Teachers have significantly increased their use of holidays and weekends for training. Yet the sources of their training have not altered dramatically, and curriculum still takes first place. Management training has not gone beyond principals. Equity has fallen significantly as a training topic since the first days of the reforms, when the new charters had to include equity goals, and show what would be done to incorporate the Treaty of Waitangi principles.

8 - WORKLOADS

The extra workload brought about by the shift of much responsibility to individual schools was minimally acknowledged by the inclusion of some release time for teaching principals in staffing schedules. We do not have data on the hours worked by principals and teachers before the reforms, ruling out a before and after 1989 comparison. Previous surveys showed a jump from 1989 to 1990 for principals, a steady increase for teachers, and little change to trustee workloads.

Workload has come to the fore of the aspects of their work that principals, teachers and trustees identify as least satisfying, and to the fore in the issues which they identify facing boards of trustees.

Principal Workloads

Average Hours per Week

The table below shows the increase since 1989 in principals' reported average hours per week. Such estimates were found to come very close to time-diaries (Livingstone 1994), so they can be regarded as providing a very fair indicator of actual work hours.
The mean number of hours worked per week increased dramatically from 1989 to 1990, 48.1 hours to 60.5 hours, dropped slightly in 1991 to 58.35 hours, and rose again to near the 1990 level in 1993, at 59.85 hours a week, significantly greater than 1989 levels.

Table 28
Principals' Average Work Hours per Week

Hours	1989 % (n = 174)	1990 % (n = 207)	1991 % (n = 186)	1993 % (n = 191)
41 - 50 hours	35	11	14	12 *⁻
51 - 60 hours	39	34	47	46
61 - 70 hours	14	42	36	36 *⁺
71 hours or more	4	10	4	7 *⁺

While 39% of the principals felt their workload was much the same as the previous year, and 3% felt it had decreased, 38% felt it had increased, and 19%, substantially increased: much the same pattern as in 1991. Small town principals were most likely to note a substantial increase (35%). Teaching principals were significantly more likely to cite workload as a source of dissatisfaction (36%, compared to 10% of non-teaching principals).

Individual principals may be accommodating the high workloads with different patterns each year. This is suggested by answers on principals' expectations about change in the next 12 months to the amount of their workload: 62% said it would stay much the same, 29% thought it would increase, 5% foresaw a substantial increase, and another 5% predicted some decrease. Five percent commented that they were going to try to keep

their workload within reasonable limits.

Comments here noted an increase on administrative work (22), a 'ridiculous' amount of work which had led to ill-health (9). Other comments made by one or two each were that it was difficult to keep up with reading, and that the high workload continued through school holidays.

Those whose overall satisfaction had decreased over the past year were more likely than others to be working more than 60 hours a week, while those with medium, high or increased level of satisfaction tended to be working fewer than 60 hours a week.

Allocation of Principals' Time

Principals' answers on changes experienced in the content of their workload continue to emphasize the administrative component of principals' work. Sixty-nine percent said they were doing less teaching and more administration, though 41% said they were undertaking more educational leadership. The few comments here focused on particular matters that were prominent in their workload: property issues, working with parents, and meetings.

Although principals might be doing both more administration and more professional leadership, there are marked differences in the proportion of principals' time each takes, as the next table shows.

Table 29
Allocation of Principal's Time

Area (n = 191)	< 10 %	10-19 %	20-29 %	30-49 %	50-69 %	70 + %
Administration	2	17	20	28	17	2
Classroom Teaching	18	9	6	16	18	11
Educational leadership	22	27	15	11	2	2
Board of trustees work	34	33	11	2	1	-
Own professional development	43	20	2	-	-	-

The mean proportion of time spent on classroom teaching (34%) was much the same as on administration (31%). The mean proportion of time for educational leadership (which some principals appeared to define as a definite activity, and others as a thread running through all they did) was 18%, for working with the board of trustees, 11%, property management 9%, and the principal's own professional development, 6%.

There were marked differences between teaching and non-teaching principals. One expects these for classroom teaching: 60% of non-teaching principals spent less than 10% of their time in classroom teaching, compared to the 22% of teaching principals who were spending more than 70% of their time on teaching in the classroom, with a further 40% spending between 50-69%, and 27%, between 30-49% of their time.

One would expect non-teaching principals to spend more time on administration, and they do: only 4% spent less than 20% of their time on administration, compared to 38% of teaching principals. And since teaching principals have smaller schools, one would expect differences in time devoted to property maintenance - again true: 64% of teaching principals engaged in this for less than 10% of their time compared with 35% of non-teaching principals, and 21% of the latter gave property maintenance more than 20% of

their time compared to 3% of teaching principals.

But there were no differences in the time spent on working with the school's board of trustees, indicating a consistent workload here, whatever the school size. Nor were there differences in the time spent on the principal's own professional development. However, there were significant differences in time spent on educational leadership: with only 4% of teaching principals spending more than 30% of their time, compared to 34% of non-teaching principals.

The emphasis on educational leadership within schools has become more dominant with the shift to school-based management. These differences between teaching and non-teaching principals therefore give cause for concern. Is it because teaching principals do not have enough time to tackle this side of their role that they are less likely to cite as a source of satisfaction planning and school development (15% compared to 36% of non-teaching principals), or staff development (9% compared to 24% of non-teaching principals)?

Teachers' Workloads

Teachers' working hours have also risen, though not so dramatically as principals. Using the grouping of hours in the figure below, the mean hours above the 32.5 classroom hours worked by 1989 sample teachers was 13.29 hours; in 1990 14.86, in 1991 14.96, and in 1993 15.58 hours, or an average work week of 45.79 hours a week in 1989 rising to 48.18 hours in the 1993 survey.[12]

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[12] These average figures are lower than the 51 hours on average found by Bridges (1992) in her study of Christchurch school teachers, and 54.5 hours found by Livingstone (1994) in his study of Wellington teaching staff. Reasons for the more conservative estimate found in this survey could lie in the urban nature of the other 2 samples, compared to this survey's inclusion of small towns and rural areas; and in the inclusion of principals in the Livingstone study.

Figure 9: Teachers Workloads 1989 - 1993

Percent
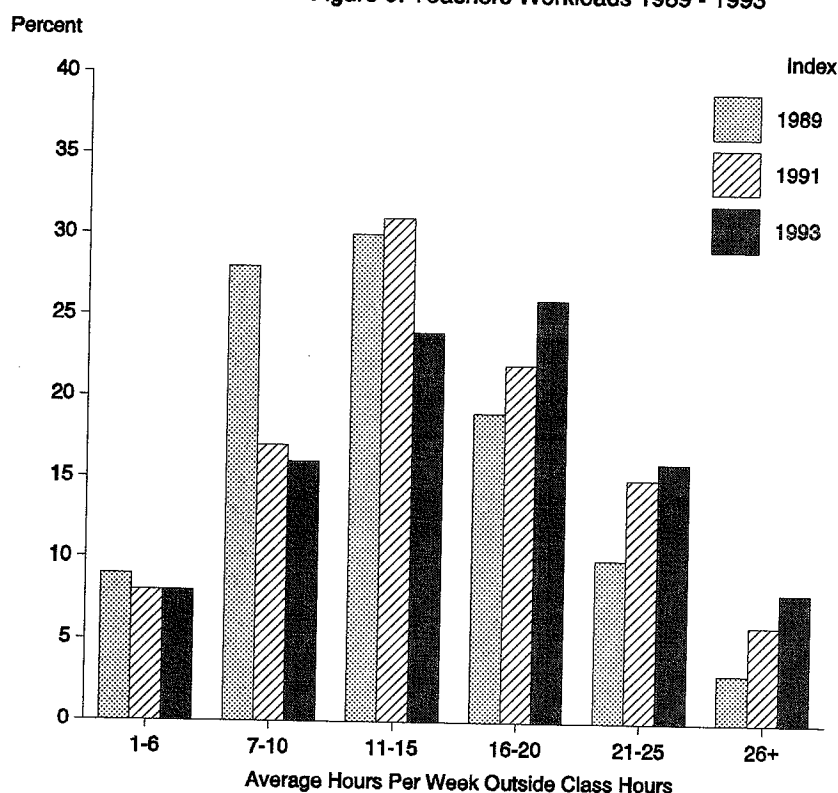
More teachers in positions of responsibility worked 25 hours or more above their classroom duties than did others (13% compared with 5%), bearing out principal perceptions that senior staff were most affected by the additional work which came with the reforms. In an average week senior teaching staff were also more likely to spend 2 hours or more on school administration (54% compared with 18% of other teachers, and up from 36% in 1991), on training (23% compared with 12%), and on policy and curriculum development (23% compared with 8%). But time put into administration has also risen overall, as the next table shows.

Table 30
Average Hours per Week of Teachers' Outside Class Time
Given to Key Teaching and Administrative Tasks

Task (n = 336)	Up to 2 hrs %	2-5 %	6-10 %	11-15 %	More than 15 %
Preparation for classroom work	12	35	35	11	4
Marking, assessment, and report writing	29	46	17	4	3
School meetings and contact with parents	56	34	4	1	0
Training/staff development/ receiving advice	54	15	2	0	0
School administration	53	26 *+	5	1	1
Policy/curriculum development	66	13	0	1	0

Class size continued to have marked associations with the time teachers gave to marking, assessment and report writing outside class hours, rising from 10% of those with classes of 20 or fewer spending 6 hours or more on this activity in an average week to 40% of those with classes of 30 or more.

Do Teachers have any Non-Teaching Time within Class Hours?

Studies of school effectiveness have recommended that teachers have some regular non-teaching time.[13] The proportion of teachers who have some regular non-teaching time during school hours was 38%, much the same as the 35% in 1989. Again, this is not surprising given the stability of staffing schedules and teacher salary funding. However, it also indicates that existing staffing schedules are falling short of providing for this time.

Teachers in positions of responsibility were more likely to have non-teaching time than others (53% compared to 28%, much the same as in 1991). Forty percent of those who had some non-teaching time had hardly any: less than an hour a week. Another 40% had only 1 - 2 hours a week, 10% 3 - 4 hours a week, and 10%, more than 4 hours a week. While teachers in positions of responsibility were more likely to have 3 hours or more, 16% compared to 2% of ordinary teachers, it is clear that they remain predominantly classroom teachers, with their administrative and other responsibilities added-on rather than incorporated (see Table 84, Appendix C).

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[13] For example, Clune & White (1988) *School-based Management: Institutional Variation. Implications and Issues for Future Research* Centre for Policy Research in Education;

David, J. (1989) Synthesis of Research on School-based Management *Phi Delta Kappan* May, 45-52;

Miller & Lieberman (1988) School Improvement in the US: Nuance and Numbers *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education* Vol 1(1), 3-19;

Mortimore, P et al (1988) *School Matters* London: Open University Press

Non-Classroom Responsibilities

Non-classroom responsibilities had changed little over the first four years of school-based management, with some interesting exceptions: fewer teachers had responsibility for sports and school plays or display days, and more took the school choir or orchestra. Increase in the latter activity could be a small reflection of incorporating parental interest known to teachers, and one which allows public performance. But in the more self-conscious era of school self-management, it is surprising to find fewer teachers with responsibility for the school plays and displays which have been a prime channel for schools' showcasing themselves to their parents and local community.

Table 31
Teachers' Non-Classroom Responsibilities

Responsibility	1989 % (n = 414)	1990 % (n = 373)	1991 % (n = 396)	1993 % (n = 336)
Responsibility for a specific curriculum area	87	83	86	83
Responsibility for a budget area				56
Development of school policy		46	54	46
Sports supervision/training	44	39	37	35 *-
Fundraising		21	25	27
Liaison with group of parents	37	23	29	25
Library	27	23	27	24
Staff supervision				23
Staff appraisal		24	26	23
School play/display day	31	22	26	23 *-
Staff representative on board of trustees		28	25	21
Health	24	18	20	21
NZEI representative		17	19	20
Computers		15	22	19
Student counselling		25	23	15
School choir/orchestra	6	16	15	14 *+
Cultural club	17	9	10	10
School newsletter	11	6	8	9

Trustees' Workloads

While there has been a decline in those putting in more than 10 hours per week on trustee work since 1989, the general stability of trustee reports of average hours put into this voluntary work since the start of the reforms seems a fair indication that this is the kind of workload that can be expected for lay people involved in school governance, with the level of responsibility which boards have had since 1989. The mean number of hours given to trustee work each week was 3.5 hours in 1993 (4.2 hours in 1989).

Table 32
Average Hours per Week on Trustee Work

Hours	1989 % (n = 334)	1990 % (n = 310)	1991 % (n = 322)	1993 % (n = 292)
Less than 2 hours	29	29	38	31
2-5 hours	49	46	44	52
6-10 hours	16	14	13	12
10 hours or more	7	5	3	3 *-

Those most likely to be working more than 10 hours on average were not, as one might expect, chairpersons, but those responsible for board training, and for equal employment opportunities (EEO). This may be linked to the tendency for more people with these roles to have 4 or more different areas of responsibility: 73% of those with training responsibilities, 55% of those with EEO responsibilities, compared with 20% overall. Chairpersons, along with those responsible for liaison with the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA), EEO, and for policy for children with special needs were more likely than others to be working between 6 to 10 hours a week (a day to a day and a half).

It is interesting to compare this pattern with previous years. In the first two years of the switch to local school management, it was chairpersons and treasurers who were more likely to be putting in more hours than others. By 1991, when boards had had responsibility for their operational budgets for two years, treasurers were not over-represented in the upper end of the hours worked. Those with responsibilities for board training, liaison with the PTA and EEO (as in 1993), STA representation, Maori issues, and fundraising were more likely to be putting in these quite substantial hours on their board work.

For the first time since this survey began in 1989, school size had some association with hours worked. Trustees at schools with rolls of 99 or less were more likely to work 2 hours or less a week (41%) than their colleagues in schools with 100 or more pupils (24%).

Trustees in schools with high Maori enrolment were more likely to put in more than 10 hours a week (10% compared to 2% for others).

Trustees' Responsibilities

Only 5% of the trustees who responded had no specific responsibilities on their board. A third were responsible for 1 area only, 28% for 2, 13% for 3, and 20% for between 4 and 10 areas.

Gender is more decisive than ethnicity or socioeconomic status in the role that individual trustees played on their board. Two-thirds of the chairpersons in this survey were men (as in the 1991 survey), and 81% of the secretaries were women. In only 3 of the 15 areas of board work were men and women represented in a proportion equal to their overall proportion as trustees: treasurer, staffing, and finance/fundraising.

Besides the secretarial role, women were over-represented in 7 areas: liaison with the school's PTA, community consultation, board training, Maori issues, EEO policy, and special needs policy.

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Beside the role of chairperson, men were over-represented in 3 areas: property and maintenance, industrial relations and board representative at NZSTA meetings.

Figure 10: Trustee Responsibilities by Gender
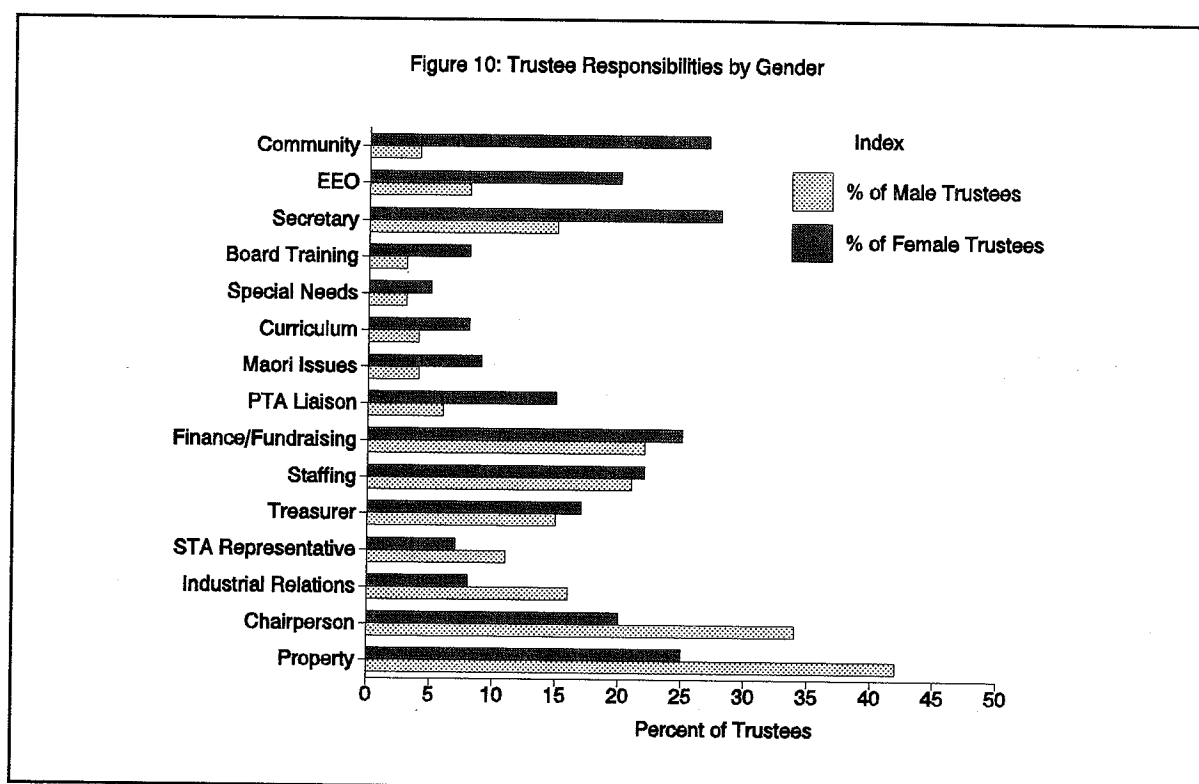
Other responsibilities mentioned were policy writing, a specific project or programme, marketing or public relations, and uniforms. The gender patterns found were also reflective of gender differences experienced in society. To put it another way, the Tomorrow's Schools emphasis on equity has had little impact at the level of boards of trustees. This might well reflect the limited training opportunities available to trustees.

Ethnicity also played a part in the roles played by Maori, though it resulted in over-representation only in responsibility for Maori issues and secretarial work, and in under-representation only as board representative to the NZSTA.

The Pakeha/European trustees in our survey were more likely to be chairpersons (30%) than were Maori trustees (14%), treasurers (17% compared with 4%) board representative to NZSTA (9% compared with 4%) or responsible for board training (6% compared with 0%). Maori were more likely to take on secretarial responsibilities (25% compared with 13%)[14].

Some interesting patterns also emerge in looking at the highest educational qualifications of trustees in relation to their board responsibilities. People with a trades qualification or School Certificate were under-represented as chairpersons, and those with university degrees, over-represented. Those with university degrees were also more likely than their numbers suggest to be found as board representatives to NZSTA meetings, to take a curriculum role, to be responsible for board training and for staffing, and less likely to liaise with the PTA, to take on secretarial responsibilities, or to take on Maori issues.

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[14] Numbers of Pacific Island and Asian trustees responding were too small to allow reliable comparison of this kind.

The reverse pattern was found for the last three roles amongst trustees with no school qualifications. These trustees were under-represented amongst those with the role of treasurer.

Trustees with trades qualifications were under-represented in the areas of training and Maori issues as well as the more predictable EEO and secretarial areas. They were over-represented only in the area of special needs policy.

Those with teaching or nursing qualifications were also under-represented in the Maori issues area of responsibility. They were over-represented in the areas of special needs policy, as well as EEO, liaison with the PTA, and industrial relations - but not, as some might have thought, in the areas of curriculum, staffing, or board training.

Those who had been on the board since the first election were more likely to find themselves in the role of chairperson, or with responsibility for board training, personnel issues, and curriculum.

Trustees' age had only a small effect on their roles. Trustees in their thirties were over-represented in two areas, board training and Maori issues, and those aged 50 or more in the jobs of secretary and special needs policy.

Few co-opted trustees were chairpersons. They were also less likely to be responsible for board training, representing the board at NZSTA meetings, or EEO. They were over-represented in the areas of special needs policy and curriculum.

Summary

It is now very clear that the shift to school-based management does demand a substantial increase in work hours for principals, and an increase for teaching staff. It also means an average voluntary contribution of 3½ hours a week for trustees. Principals and teachers are beginning to show signs of strain in maintaining the higher workload involved in school self-management.

It is also clear that the shift involves a change in role emphasis for principals, one which is easier for non-teaching principals than teaching principals. If teaching principals are also to provide the internal school leadership and planning more essential now to maintaining and improving school quality and viability, then more attention needs to be given to the resourcing they will need from government to successfully accomplish this.

Administrative tasks appear to have been delegated from principals to senior staff more now than in the early years of the reform. Other teachers are also picking up administrative work, but some of the increase in their workload seems due to the reform's emphasis on accountability, and thus an increase in assessment and reporting.

The material reported here raises some questions for the long-term success of school self-management if some attention is not given to ameliorating workloads, and revising expectations of increased parental contributions.

9 - SOURCES AND LEVELS OF SATISFACTION

Trustees

Just under half the trustees who responded had a medium or high degree of satisfaction[15] in their role, much the same as in 1990 (the second year after the first elections) - and with the 48% in the 1977 school committee survey who expressed satisfaction (Davey 1977, p. 26). However, in 1993 there were marginally fewer trustees with a low level of satisfaction,[16] and marginally more with a high level.

Figure 11: Levels and Changes in Trustees' Satisfaction with their Role
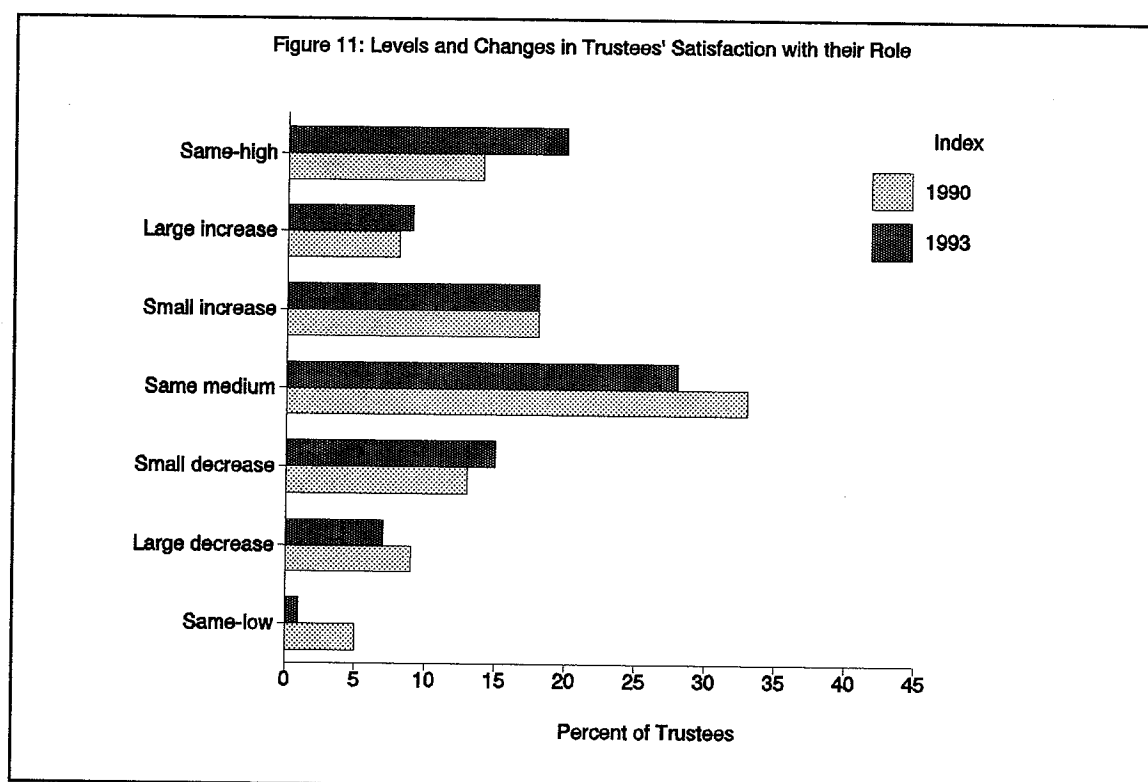
Trustees in high Maori enrolment schools were most likely to report a substantially increased satisfaction (19% compared to 3% of trustees in very low Maori enrolment schools, and 9% of trustees at low or moderate Maori enrolment schools).

Trustees dealing with Maori issues, curriculum or special needs policy were most likely to report a substantial increase in satisfaction, although those with special needs

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[15] To gauge their level of satisfaction, and any changes over the previous 12 months, trustees were asked *How has your satisfaction in being a school Trustee changed over the last 12 months?* Options available were: substantially increased, increased somewhat, stayed much the same at a high level, stayed much the same at a medium level, stayed much the same at a low level, decreased somewhat, substantially decreased. Principals were also given these options.

[16] Twenty-three percent of trustees had either maintained their low level of satisfaction, or experienced a decrease. This is probably comparable to the 18% of school committee members in the 1977 survey who were dissatisfied or generally dissatisfied (Davey 1977, p. 26).

responsibilities were also more likely to report a substantial decrease in satisfaction (40%, well above all others).

Improvements in trustees' satisfaction levels over the previous year were attributed to: a better understanding of their role and successful or interesting projects (7% of all trustees responding), and improvement in relations at school level (2%).

Those whose satisfaction was low, or had decreased, mentioned a high workload or lack of time for the job of trustee (7%), a desire for more school autonomy, concern with funding or the direction of education (2% each), and the lower enthusiasm of their board after the second election (1%). Other than the latter, these reasons are much the same as those given in 1991. As then, hours worked as a trustee, and school and personal characteristics other than high Maori enrolment made little difference to the level of trustee satisfaction.

The next table gives trustee answers to the open-ended question "What is the most satisfying part of your work as a Trustee?".

Table 33
Sources of Trustees' Satisfaction with their Work

Source	1990 % (n = 257)	1991 % (n = 261)	1993 % (n = 254)
Making decisions about the school	43	33	32 *-
Doing things for children	19	27	20
Seeing progress/improvements	19	25	22
Working as part of a team	12	22	17
Having school running well	0	19	11 *+
Good quality of education at school	0	4	10 *+
Positive relationships at school	0	7	5 *+
School community relationships/support	8	9	0 *-

Thirteen percent of the trustees taking part in the survey did not respond to this question. One source of satisfaction was given by 61% of those taking part in the survey, 25% gave 2 sources, and 2% gave 3 or 4 sources.

While around a third of these sources of trustee satisfaction with their role are 'results'-oriented, the majority have more to do with the process of board work, or the focus of its work, children and their education. This interpretation of what trustees enjoy about their work makes sense of the similarity in satisfaction levels of former school committee members and the trustees who replaced them.

Sources of trustee dissatisfaction, on the other hand, have had more to do with the context in which trustees do their work, though in 1993, some of the internal board tasks were emerging as vexations, and trustees seemed less worried about their dealings with government departments.

Table 34
Sources of Trustees' Dissatisfaction with their Work

Source	1990 % (n = 254)	1991 % (n = 276)	1993 % (n = 245)
Paperwork	27	20	24
Lack of funding/need to fundraise	0	12	17 *+
Workload	20	16	14
Personnel/industrial relations	0	0	12 *+
Dealing with the Ministry of Education or regulations	20	20	9 *-
Relations between people at school/lack of role clarity	0	0	9 *+
Conflict/criticism	9	5	6
Constant change in Government rules	0	14	5 *-(91)
Inability to make progress	0	7	3
Lack of payment/lack of recognition	11	6	0 *-
Meetings	6	0	0
Charter/policy writing	9	0	0 *-

Sixteen percent of the trustees taking part in the survey did not respond to this question. Sixty-five percent gave one source of dissatisfaction, 19% gave 2 sources, and 1% gave 3 sources.

Principals

The most notable change in reported satisfaction levels between the 1990 and 1993 surveys is a substantial increase in the proportion of principals reporting medium or high levels of satisfaction (doubled from 26% to 43%). This is linked to the large drop in those reporting a substantial increase in job satisfaction, from 19% to 4% of principals responding. Figures for some increase of satisfaction were much the same (13% in 1990 to 10% in 1993), as were those for continuing at a low level (1% to 4%), experiencing some decrease in satisfaction ((30% to 25%), and a substantial decrease (9% to 13%).

Hours worked had a clear association with principals' satisfaction level: the more hours worked, the lower the job satisfaction. Judgements of how their board was doing also played a part. So while 50% of those who reported their board as being on top of things also had a high level of job satisfaction, 62% of those who reported their board as (simply) coping had a decreased or low level of satisfaction, as did 58% of those who described their board as struggling.

The increase in the number of principals enjoying a medium or high level of satisfaction is reflected in an increase since 1990 in a number of principals' reported sources of principal satisfaction.

Table 35
Most Satisfying Part of Principal's Work

Source	1990 % (n = 178)	1991 % (n = 174)	1993 % (n = 191)
Teaching	29	33	26
Development of school through planning	0	0	24 *+
Seeing positive results from work	0	19	20 *+
Relations with pupils	0	20	17 *+
Educational leadership	16	24	15
Relations with parents/community	7	14	12
Quality of school	16	6	4 *-
Making financial decisions	20	17	3 *-

The initial sense of freedom associated with the transfer to schools of financial control of operational grants appears to have transmuted into an enjoyment of planning. It is interesting that there has been little change in the proportion of those who find their relations with parents a major source of satisfaction - and that educational leadership is back to the level it was in 1990.

The changes in sources of principals' dissatisfaction with their work indicate that many principals also seem to have adapted to the increased managerial and administrative emphasis in their work. Nonetheless, they have problems with their workload. Funding rears its head for the first time in these listings, as do the demands of some children.

Table 36
Least Satisfying Part of Principal's Work

Source	1990 % (n = 177)	1991 % (n = 173)	1993 % (n = 191)
Paperwork/administration	63	55	39 *-
Workload/deadlines	13	0	25 *+
Dealing with education agencies/Minister	9	12	16
Funding/budgeting	0	5	12 *+
Dealing with board of trustees/parents	9	10	12
Dealing with social/behavioural problems	0	0	10 *+
Lack of teaching/contact with children	21	16	9 *-
Meetings	8	6	5
Constant policy changes	0	8	0
Direction of education/political atmosphere	0	5	0

Teachers

Judging by their answers to a question asking them to assess the impact of the shift to school self-management on their job satisfaction, teachers' level of satisfaction with their work are the lowest of the three groups now responsible for schools. Just under half (48%) reported a negative impact on their job satisfaction, compared with 25% reporting a positive impact.

The most satisfying aspect of teaching is, as in the 1991 survey, the core of what teachers do - teaching: fostering children's learning by 'hands-on' work with them.

Table 37
Sources of Teachers' Satisfaction with their Work

Source	% (n = 336)
Children's progress	50
Children	31
Teaching	25
Planning/organising/decision making	8
Working with colleagues	7

Teachers' sources of dissatisfaction are things which compete with hands-on teaching, or which seem to teachers to undermine this effort. Unlike principals, teachers' dissatisfaction with administration tasks continues to rise rather than fall.

Table 38
Sources of Teachers' Dissatisfaction with their Work

Source	1991 % (n = 396)	1993 % (n = 336)
Administration	33	44 *+
Records/assessment	14	20
Workload/stress	19	18
Poor behaviour from children	6	10
Concern about changes to education/attacks on teachers	7	8
Meetings	11	8
Lack of parent/community support	9	7
Large class	0	5 *+

Urban teachers reported more administrative tasks in their workload (67% compared to 48% rural), as did intermediate teachers (82% compared to 62% of primary teachers). More urban teachers also reported that the education administration changes had had a major negative impact on the quality of their life outside school (38% compared to 21%

of rural teachers). They were also more likely to report a major negative impact on their job satisfaction (21% compared to 11% of rural teachers). Intermediate teachers were also more likely to say the changes had had a major negative impact on their job satisfaction than their full primary colleagues (29% compared with 14%).

The Meaning of Higher Workloads for Teachers

Teachers who reported a major negative effect on their job satisfaction had the highest mean hours of work outside the classroom, 16.4 hours, compared to 15.8 hours for those who reported minor changes to their job satisfaction (both positive and negative), 14.7 hours for those who reported major positive effects on their job satisfaction - and 13 hours for those reporting no change in their job satisfaction.

While teachers' average work hours have certainly increased since 1989, one wonders whether it is also the addition of more assessment (71%), and administration (63%; significantly higher for teachers in positions of responsibility, 75% compared to 57% for ordinary teachers) that give these extra hours an even heavier weight for teachers.

Assessment and administration remain the most prominent sources of teacher dissatisfaction with their work. This raises important questions:

■ Is enough attention being paid to assessment and administration in initial teacher training[17] and ongoing staff development?

■ When will the need to provide for some non-contact time in school hours so that teachers are better able to deal with these aspects of their work be recognized in staffing schedules?

■ Are the personal qualities which attract people to working with children compatible with the ability to enjoy or tolerate 'paperwork' and administration?

■ Can we ensure that assessment practice[18] (whether of students or in teacher appraisal), and administrative accounting at both school and central level is 'user-friendly' as well as appropriate, and useful?

Teachers who experienced major increases in their workload were also most likely to report a major negative impact on the quality of their life outside school (44% compared to 3% of those whose workload increase had been minor, and 6% of those who had had no changes to their workload).

Those who reported a major negative effect on their quality of life outside school also had the highest mean hours of work outside the classroom, 18.11 hours on an average week.

Teachers reporting a positive impact of the reforms on their life outside school worked less outside school hours than others (13.9 hours for those reporting major, and

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[17] This is also raised in Renwick & Vize (1993).

[18] The 'user-friendliness' of running records in reading and the checkpoints in Beginning School Mathematics emerged strongly in the NZCER Junior School Study as a major reason for their widespread use amongst junior school teachers. (Wylie & Smith 1992)

11.2 hours for those reporting minor, positive impact), and there were similarities for those reporting no change (15.8 hours), and minor negative impact (15.7 hours).

There were no differences between the answers of those in positions of responsibility and other teachers on workload changes and the quality of their life outside the school. This raises questions about whether indeed it is possible, as some have thought, to 'insulate' ordinary teachers from the new administrative work which came with the reforms. Teaching their class remains teachers' chief responsibility, whether or not they are senior staff, and ordinary teachers have not taken on administrative work per se. But nonetheless teachers are the source of material needed by school managers. The increase in assessment reported by teachers is also due to the administrative emphasis on accountability in the shift to local school management.

Summary

Satisfaction levels for trustees and principals are reasonably high, though not universal. Teacher levels of satisfaction are much lower. Workloads are higher than others for those teachers and principals who express low or decreased levels of job satisfaction since the reforms began. Principals' job satisfaction is also affected by the capability and achievements of their school board.

Trustees' sources of satisfaction appear to be rooted in being part of a decision-making team, making decisions for the benefit of children. Teachers enjoy most their classroom teaching. Principals seem to have largely taken on the more managerial role required of them by the shift to school-based management.

Sources of dissatisfaction are mainly found in the new forms of accountability between schools and their funding sources, and the workload involved in the new administrative responsibilities, including fundraising.

10 - RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN SCHOOLS

With school self-management, the relationships between people working for a school, and between school staff and trustees, are of great importance for the well-being of the school. The material which comes through from these surveys has shown a consistent level of reported problems in these relationships of around 10 - 12% overall in relations within school boards, between board and school staff, and around 20 - 25% for relations between principals and teachers.

Relationships between Principals and their Boards

This is perhaps the most testing of the relationships within the new environment. Primary principals in place in 1989 had received no training to work with parents, or to work with parents who had power over the professional staff of the school. Many of the people who took on the role of trustees also had little training in how to work with professionals, though many had voluntary work experience where such situations are quite common.

The emphasis on 'partnership' in the Tomorrow's Schools policy, and the initial need to work together to consult the community over the school charter may account for the collaborative spirit in which many have approached this new relationship. Problems arise where there is desire on one partner's part to make decisions without consultation if these decisions affect the ability of the other to carry out their role effectively - for example, trustees who find they are simply 'rubber-stamping' principals' plans or actions, and principals who see well-founded educational practices and principles brushed aside in policy formation.

The next table shows principals' and trustees' views of this relationship in their own school.

Table 39
Views of the Relationship between Principals and their School Boards

Quality	Trustees (n = 292) %	Principals (n = 191) %
Excellent-very good	64	68
Good	18	23
Satisfactory	7	5
Minor problems	8	5
Major problems	4	3

When principals comment on any problems they have with their board, these issues arise: that trustees wish to stray into the principal's set of responsibilities (15 principals), that they have personal or ideological agendas (11), show a lack of understanding or respect for teaching (6), or are poor at communication (3), and fail to maintain confidentiality (3). Some found their trustees had no time to do their job properly, and left policy development up to the principal rather than working on it together (7 each).

Training for trustees was the main solution offered, along with 'less reinvention of the wheel at each school', and clarification of the role of trustee. This solution fits with

the appearance of their board's structure, composition, or need for training at the top of the 3 main issues principals identified as facing their board. Forty percent of principals identified the need for such action, in contrast to only 13% of trustees. This difference supports anecdotal accounts of principals having to put more time into internal workings of the board than they would like.

The main problems identified by trustees in their relationship with the school principal were: uncertainty about the boundaries between governance and management (23), the principal's workload, the principal's lack of leadership (20 each), and the principal going off on his or her own rather than working with the board (15). Personality clashes (6) and community criticism of the principal (3) were also mentioned.

Management Salary Grants & Performance Agreements

All principal and senior staff salaries were included, at their actual existing level, within school operating grants under the title of Management Salaries grant for the first time in 1993. Most principals responding (66%) said this had had no effect on their relationship with their board. Twenty-nine percent felt it was too soon to tell what effect it would have, and 5% had already experienced some problems. The main comments made here (from 23 principals) were that problems could arise when the board made decisions on salary level, that it had created more administrative work (e.g. the calculation of ACC levy and GST), and that the board was uncomfortable with the principal's salary becoming public knowledge.

Seventy-seven percent of the principals had also negotiated their performance agreement with their school's board without experiencing any problems. Seventeen percent of the principals had experienced minor problems, and 2%, major problems. Most of the 27 comments here expressed some unhappiness with the negotiation process - ranging from those who had to take the initiative and write their own performance agreement, to the principal whose board did not allow any negotiation, and the principal whose board wanted to take over all legal responsibilities for the school.

Relationships between School Staff and their Board of Trustees

Principals and trustees identified fewer problems in the relationship between their board and school staff than did teachers themselves.

Table 40
Views of the Relationship between School Staff and their School Board

Quality	Teachers (n = 336) %	Principals (n = 191) %	Trustees (n = 292) %
Excellent-very good	38	47	56
Good	33	32	32
Satisfactory	13	15	9
Minor problems	11	4	3
Major problems	4	2	1

Teachers' Perspectives

Lack of communication between board and school staff was the main problem identified by teachers (26 teachers), but new themes emerging since the 1991 survey were: a negative or critical board approach (13), and role confusion (12). Other problems noted were lack of board commitment to their work (10), personality clashes (4), and lack of confidentiality (1). More teachers in positions of responsibility reported major problems between the school's board and teachers (9% compared to 1% of other teachers).

Here it is useful to look at the contact teachers reported having with their school board. The pattern reported below has changed little since 1990. What is most marked about the kinds of contact which teachers have with their school's trustees is the decline in joint policy work since the first year, when charters had to be developed, and the decline in trustee visits to classrooms.

City teachers were more likely to have 4 or fewer kinds of contact with their school board (82% compared to 63% of small town teachers, and 57% of rural teachers). Intermediate teachers also had less contact: 82% of intermediate teachers had 4 or fewer kinds of contact with their school's trustees compared to 64% of their colleagues in primary schools.

Only four percent of the teachers had had no contact at all with their school's board.

Table 41
Teachers' Contact with Their School's Trustees

Contact	1989 % (n = 414)	1990 % (n = 373)	1991 % (n = 396)	1993 % (n = 334)
Talked at school functions	72	71	71	72
Met at staff/board socials	69	74	66	66
Informal contact in community			66	64
Teacher attended board meetings			43	40
Developed policy together	67	43	36	35 *-
Trustees visited the classroom	28	18	11	10 *-

Most of the teachers (77%) were satisfied with their level of contact with their board of trustees. Type of school was the only school characteristic to be associated with differences: intermediate teachers were less satisfied then their primary school colleagues with their contact with their school's board (62%), and more likely to say they did not know how well their board was doing (18% compared to 6% of others), or describe it as coping (32% compared to 16%). They were also more likely to describe relations between teachers and the school board as only satisfactory (32% compared to 10% of primary colleagues), and to report major problems in that relationship (12% compared to 1% of contributing primary teachers, and 6% of full primary teachers).

Teachers' contact with Staff Representative on the School Board

Teachers' contact with their staff representative on their school's board has remained stable since the first year of the reform.

Table 42
Teachers' Contact with Staff Representative on the Board of Trustees

Contact	1989 % (n = 414)	1990 % (n = 373)	1991 % (n = 396)	1993 % (n = 334)
Regular group report after board meetings	47	48	46	51
Nothing formal	33	30	29	25
Regular group discussion on agenda items before board meetings	25	22	21	21
Individual discussion on agenda items before board meetings	17	17	14	16

Sixty-four percent of the teachers found their contact satisfactory, 9% did not, and 5% were unsure (19% of the teachers responding were themselves staff representatives). More intermediate teachers found their contact with their staff representative on the board unsatisfactory (23% compared to 6% of their colleagues in contributing primaries, and 13% in full primaries).

Principal Perspectives

The main problems between board members and staff identified by principals were lack of contact, or lack of trust. More contact was the main suggestion, through trustees' spending time in the school, or socializing with staff.

Trustee Perspectives

Trustees who were not satisfied with their level of contact with school staff were more likely to say there were problems in the board's relationship with the school principal (33% compared to 9%). They were also more likely to describe their relationship with school staff as only satisfactory (22% compared with 6%), or as having problems (11% compared with 4%).

The problems trustees identified in their relations with school staff were poor communication (4% overall), staff workload or stress, and the lack of contact (1% each).

Trustees in high Maori enrolment schools were more likely than others to describe their relationship with staff as (only) satisfactory (16% compared to 6% average for others), but more problems were noted by trustees in schools with very low Maori enrolment (7% compared to 2% average for others). Interestingly, no trustees in schools with rolls over 300 noted any problems, compared to 6% average for schools with lower rolls, though trustees' satisfaction with their level of contact with school staff was much the same as others in schools with rolls of more than 100, and lower compared to those in schools with rolls of less than 100 (68% average compared to 89%).

Relationships between Trustees

The next table shows that principals see rather more problems in this relationship than do trustees themselves. Principals reported personality clashes, differences in approach, and uneven commitment to board work. Lack of consultation and poor organization also figured. Training, improved communication, and increased commitment to board work feature as the main solutions suggested. Rural principals were most likely to report problems between their school's trustees (18% compared to 13% of small town and 6% of city principals).

Uneven distribution of workload between trustees (3%) and personalities (2%) were the main problems identified by trustees here. Others mentioned were the chairperson's unwillingness to delegate, the rigid, racist or sexist views of some trustees, and the uneven distribution of information among trustees. Trustees coming from schools with a wide socio-economic range were more likely to note problems in the working relations between trustees (10% compared with 2% average for others).

Table 43
Views of the Relationship between Trustees

Quality	Principals (n = 191) %	Trustees (n = 292) %
Excellent-very good	43	57
Good	31	32
Satisfactory	14	8
Minor problems	10	3
Major problems	2	1

Relationships between Principal and School Staff

Here it is the principals who have a rosier view of relationships, as they have since this question was first asked in the 1990 survey. There would appear to be a general rule of thumb that those with less power in a relationship are more aware of the problems with it.

Table 44
Views of the Relationship between Principal and School Staff

Quality	Principals (n = 191) %	Teachers (n = 336) %
Excellent-very good	65	41
Good	26	23
Satisfactory	6	13
Minor problems	4	16
Major problems	1	9

The kind of problems reported revolve round the principal's managerial responsibilities: lack of communication (33), unable to relate to staff professionally (28), a poor manager, or not doing the job (19), lack of consultation (19), an arrogant or autocratic style (14), and the range of differences which come under the shorthand of 'personalities' (8).

Teachers in the smallest schools were most likely to describe their relationship with their principal as excellent or very good (73% declining to 36% for those in the largest schools): but there was no other association between school size and judgement of the quality of the relationship: teachers at larger schools did not have more problems than their colleagues in small schools.

More intermediate teachers reported major problems between their school's principal and teachers (24% compared to 7% for those in primary schools).

Poorly performing staff and the principal's unavailability to staff because of administrative demands were the main problems identified by principals in their relations with school staff. Improved communication was the main suggestion was made, along with increasing principal release time, or reallocating staff to other duties within the school.

Teachers are most positive about their relations with the school's support staff: 61% described it as excellent or very good, and 26% as good. Six percent thought it satisfactory, 5% noted minor problems, and none noted major problems.

Incidence of Problems & Problem-Solving

It was very rare for problems in all 3 spheres - between board and principal, board and staff, and staff and principal to occur simultaneously. Only 1 of the 46 trustees who identified the existence of problems in any of these dimensions identified problems in all 3 spheres. Twenty-eight percent of those trustees and 18% of principals identifying any problem in these relationships identified problems in 2 spheres. Twenty-nine percent of teachers who noted problems identified concurrent problems between school staff and principal, and between school staff and board.

Analysis of same school answers between 1990 and 1993 shows that the quality of the relationship remained stable for those years in less than half of the schools in the comparative data-set (Table 76 Appendix A). That may seem a little daunting to some; but it also means that problems in relationships are not long-lasting. Information about the kinds of solutions people find would be useful. Not all of the patterns of change seem attributable to turnover in trustees or school staff!

To give some examples: In 95 schools, 1990 principals judged their relationship with their board as excellent or very good. This stayed stable for three-fifths of the schools through to 1993. It declined for 17 schools, and dipped and then rose again for another 16 schools. Eleven of the schools in this group had problems in 1991 or 1993. At the other end of the spectrum, none of the 9 schools in the data-set which had problems in the relationship between principal and board in 1990 had problems in 1993. Trustees' perspective on this relationship shows a similar trend between the years.

Thirty-seven of the 78 schools where working relations between trustees were described as excellent or very good in 1990 maintained this level through to 1993. Thirty schools saw a decline in the quality of this relationship, but only 2 experienced problems. At the other end of the spectrum, all but 1 of the 11 schools with problems within the board in 1990 had resolved them by 1991.

Principals' views of this relationship were a little more caustic, with 28 of the 64 schools described by principals in 1990 as having excellent or very good relationships between trustees rated as good or satisfactory in subsequent years. In 1993 6 schools

experienced problems. Of the 18 schools where 1990 principals identified problems in relations between trustees, 3 still had problems in 1993, 2 made progress, and fell back again, and 13 improved the relationship.

Of the 79 schools whose 1990 teachers described their relationship with their school board as excellent or very good, 20 were described this way by their 1993 teachers; 20 schools experienced problems; most of these in 1993. Only 2 of the 22 schools where there were problems identified by teachers in this relationship in 1990 still had them in 1993, though at another 4 schools an improvement in 1991 had been lost by 1993.

When it comes to teachers' relationship with their principal, 28 of the 77 schools remained stable from 1990 to 1993 at the excellent or very good level. Teachers at 19 schools experienced problems. Five of the 33 1990 schools where there were problems between principal and teachers had them all the way through to 1993, 3 schools improved in 1991 but fell back to the problem sphere in 1993.

When asked how they had responded to conflict or difficulty within their board, or between the board and school staff, 56% of the trustees reported no conflict or difficulty. Most (52%) of those who had had a problem had resolved it themselves. The next most prominent action was to seek advice from within the educational world: from NZSTA field officers (26%), from NZEI (11%), the Ministry of Education (9%), a local school, the Principals' Federation (5% each), or a non-local school (2%). Other responses from between 1 to 3 trustees were to seek advice from the State Services Commission, to employ temporary help from another school or private firm, or to dismiss staff. Four percent reported no action. The median here was 1 action only. Six percent of the trustees reported 2 actions in response, and 5% between 3 and 7 actions to solve school conflicts.

The same proportion of trustees (56%) said their board had not had an industrial relations problem or issue arising. Twenty-one percent of the trustees who had had problems said their board had taken out insurance. But the major response was to seek advice from NZSTA (46%), or NZEI (24%). Other sources within the educational world were the Ministry of Education (17%), advice from another school (9%), or from the Principals' Federation (5%).

Thirteen percent went to the Employers' Federation, 9% sought legal advice, and 7% advice from the State Services Commission. Two responses was the median here, with 21% taking one action, and 12% between 4 and 6 actions to solve industrial relations problems.

The teacher appraisal process was negotiated with staff for 58% of the teachers, with another 13% unsure. Only 7% of teachers said their school had no appraisal system, compared to 30% in the 1991 survey. Satisfaction with appraisal was down, with 20% of teachers overall reporting dissatisfaction, compared to 7% in 1991. Fourteen percent were unsure, and 47% expressed satisfaction. More teachers in positions of responsibility expressed dissatisfaction (28% compared to 14%).

Fifty-two percent of the teachers responding to the survey were satisfied with the use made of their appraisal; 14% were not, and 13% were unsure. The main uses of teacher appraisal were: to identify staff development needs (61%), to improve areas of performance (56%), and to inform the school development plan (24%).

The other use was to help plan careers (9%). Only 12% thought that their school's form of appraisal would not improve teaching and learning in the school, with qualified support coming from 13% who thought it could be helpful if time was available to implement the results of appraisal, and 4% who thought it would be helpful if the resources were available to implement these results.

Summary

Relationships at school level between professional teaching staff and voluntary trustees have mostly been good, indicating that this model of school governance is workable.

The overall level of problems in relationships at the school level has not changed much at all during the first five years of the reforms. The level of problems reported between principal and board in this survey is also much the same as the 14% of schools have problems which NZSTA regional field officers reported in October 1993 - indicating that regular analysis of their work would provide a reliable guide to the incidence of problems, and the kind of problems being experienced.

In overall terms the incidence of problems has not been large. It is at much the same level as the problems reported by principals in school relationships with government departments and central agencies.

But though at any one time only a small proportion of schools were experiencing problems, the survey data indicate that it is not the same schools who are always facing such difficulty. If this suggests that the partnership between 'governors' and 'managers', lay and professional contains some inherent prospects for such friction, it also suggests that these difficulties are resolvable.

The material from this survey cannot explain why some friction is resolved, and others reaches the courts and media. Further and different research is needed to look at relationships within the school in the context of any differences in views and values, communication, access to information - and access to support from others outside the school. It is clear from the responses to our survey that such support is used, and needed.

The incidence of problems in school relationships is in fact highest between school staff: between principals and teachers. In the light of the significant decrease in teachers' turning to principals as a major source of advice on their professional work (chapter 5), and the 20% of teachers who report deterioration in their relationship with their principal attributable to the reforms (chapter 17), the level of problems reported here is cause for concern.

11 - PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR CHILD'S SCHOOL

Eighty percent of the parents responding had some involvement in their school's activities. More women helped in the classroom, in the library, with art and craft and culture: and contrary to some stereotypes, were just as likely to help with sports as men.

Figure 12: Parental Involvement in Child's School by Gender
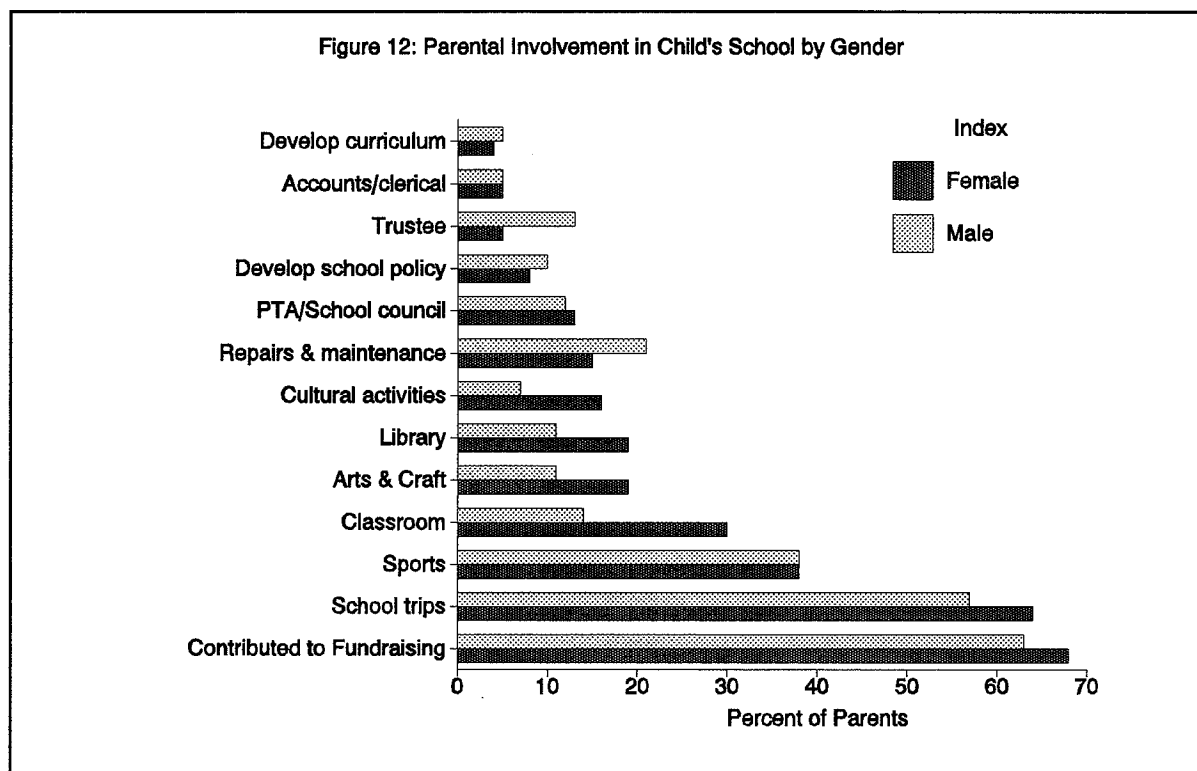
Unemployed parents or state beneficiaries and the self-employed stood out as those parents least likely to take part in school activities (42% and 35% respectively).

Lack of time was the dominant reason parents gave for not being involved in their child's school (23%). Paid work was also mentioned by 6% of all parents responding, and others mentioned family responsibilities or involvement in another school or early childhood education centre (2% each).

School reasons were important for 12%: the school had not asked for parent help (5%), the parent did not feel comfortable in the school (4%), would like some training to help (3%), or staff did not accept the help offered by the parent (1%).

Six percent of parents responding preferred to leave education to the school. Those who were unemployed or on state benefits were most likely to say both that they felt uncomfortable in the school (23%), or that they preferred to let the school get on with the job (31%).

Maori parents also felt more uncomfortable in the school than others (12%); Pakeha/European were less likely than others to prefer to leave the school to get on with the job (5% compared to 10% Maori, 27% Pacific Island, and 21% Asian).

Parent Help in the Classroom

Parents helped 52% of the responding teachers in their classroom work. This is marginally less than the 61% in 1989, but marginally more than the 45% of 1990 and 1991. Parental help was greatest for new entrant teachers (72%), and least for those teaching form 1 and 2 students (24%). Intermediate teachers, not surprisingly, also had a low rate of parental help (15%) compared to 48% in contributing schools, and 66% in full primaries. There was no association with class size.

Teachers working in low income areas were least likely to have parental help (39%).

Forty-three percent of the teachers would like some or more parental help with their classroom work, marginally less than the 52% of the 1989 survey. The next figure shows the kind of help given, in comparison to teachers' desires for assistance.

Figure 13: Parental Help in Classroom
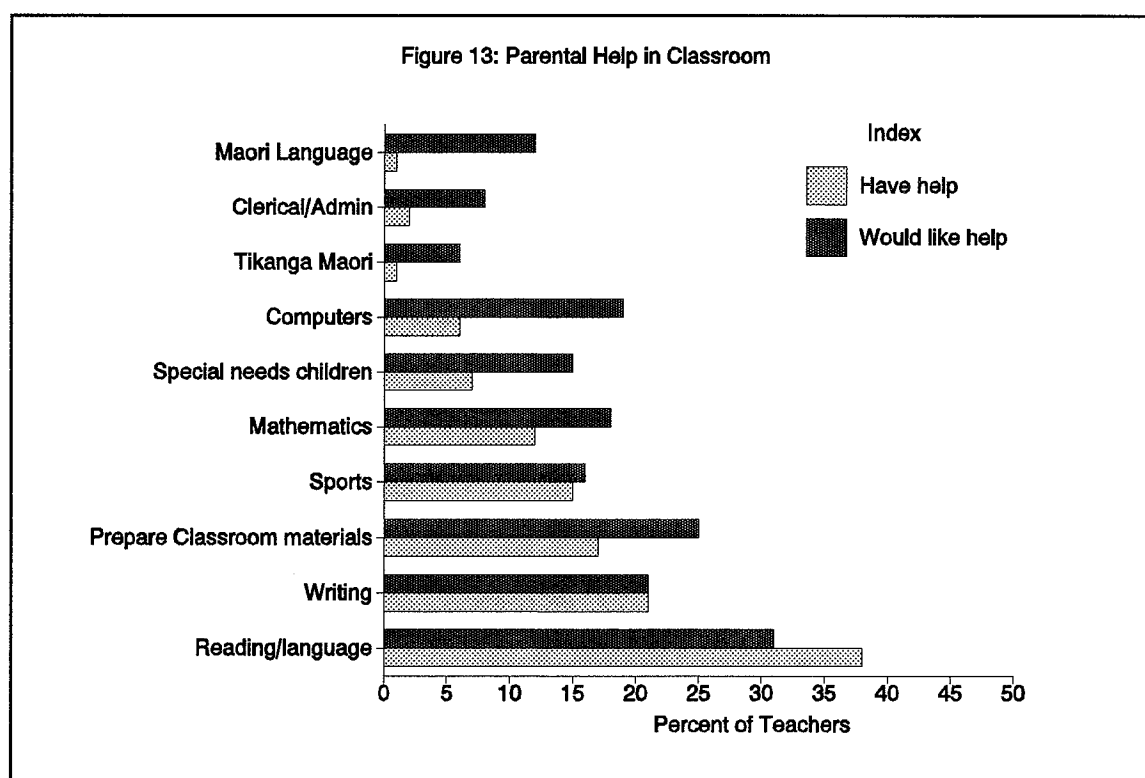
Overall, there has been little change in the pattern of activities undertaken by parents. Seventeen percent of the 1993 teachers reported parental help with 1 activity only, 15% with 2 activities, 10% with 3, 7% with 4, and 5% with 5 or more activities.

However, there have been increases in some particular areas in which teachers would like parent help: help with reading and language (31% compared with 18% in 1990), preparing classroom materials (25% compared with 13% in 1990), help with writing (21% compared with 6% in 1990), help with mathematics (18% compared to 9% in 1990), assisting children with special needs (15% compared with 2% in 1990). Fifteen percent ticked 1 or 2 areas they would like more help in, 13% 3 areas and another 13% 4 or 5, 9% 6 or more areas.

It is interesting that the shift to local school management has not of itself been enough to bring more parents into the classroom. There are two likely reasons. First, that

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parental attitudes to school help, and their ability to spend time in schools is dependent on other factors beyond a school's control (such as paid work hours). Second, perhaps because of the more immediate fundraising and administrative demands - including involvement of parents in the development of charters and policies - increasing parental help in classrooms does not seem to have been a priority for people in schools.

Satisfaction with the Level of Parent Involvement

Parents

Forty-nine percent of the parents were satisfied with the level of parent involvement at their child's school, with another 30% unsure. Again, the unemployed/state benefit parents stood out, with only 31% of this group satisfied with the level of parent involvement at their child's school.

Trustees

Trustees were less satisfied than parents responding to the survey with the level of parent involvement. Much the same as in 1991, 36% expressed satisfaction in general, 30% thought the amount of parent involvement was satisfactory only for some areas of the school, 28% thought it was unsatisfactory, and 3% were unsure.

Marginally fewer trustees (23%) thought parent involvement in their school had increased over the past year compared to the 1991 survey (35%), though the proportion of those reporting a decrease in parent involvement remained the same, 10%. Those trustees who thought there had been an increase were less likely than others to express dissatisfaction with the amount of present parent involvement (19%, compared to 50% of those noting a decrease in parent involvement, and 30% noting no change).

Dissatisfaction with the amount of parent involvement was greater for trustees in schools with moderate (32%) or high Maori enrolment (42%) compared to very low (19%) or low Maori enrolment (18%).

Trustees in middle class schools were less likely to be dissatisfied with the amount of parent involvement (15%), compared to 28% for those in wide range schools, 36% in low income areas, and 56% in low-middle income areas.

Trustees in the smallest schools were also less likely to express dissatisfaction (12%) compared to an average 31% for larger schools.

Forty-one percent of the trustees ticked one or more areas where they would like more parent involvement. Fundraising headed the list (26% of all trustees responding to the survey). This was followed by policy development (21%), school maintenance and classroom help (20% each), sport (19%), school clubs/electives (15%), curriculum development (14%), and board work (13%). This pattern was almost identical to that found in the 1991 survey. The median number of areas ticked was 3, with 6% ticking only 1 area, and 20% between 6 and 9 areas where trustees would like to see more parent involvement in their school.

Principals

Only 10% of the principals said they had problems getting any parent help - unchanged since 1990. Intermediates, low-income-area and high Maori enrolment schools stand out here: 25%, 24% and 22% respectively of their principals said they had difficulty getting parent help. Fifty-nine percent of all principals responding said they sometimes experienced

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difficulty, significantly more than the 43% in 1991.

Most principals than trustees expressed satisfaction with the level of parent involvement in 6 of the 7 areas asked about: school concerts or special events (91%), sports days (88%), classroom assistance (77%), maintenance of the school and its equipment, board of trustee meetings (73% each) and fundraising events (72%). Less satisfactory was parent involvement in policy development (51%), though this was the only area where there seemed to be more principals reporting a higher level of parent support than 1991 (7% compared to 2%, and 11% saying it was lower than the previous year compared with 25% in 1991).

On average for the 7 areas asked about, 11% of schools represented in the survey recorded an increase in parental support over the previous year, and 10% a decrease (with 16% for fundraising). Comments here noted lack of community interest, despite school efforts (5%), that it was usually the same parents who were involved, and that parents were interested in activities they could see directly connected with their own child, but less interested in areas such as policymaking (3% each). Also mentioned were parental work commitments and competition with other community services also needing to fundraise.

Low socioeconomic status of the school community was associated with principal dissatisfaction with the level of parent help or support in these areas:

- policy development (51% compared with 30% for middle class schools),
- fundraising events (37% compared to 17% for middle class schools),
- maintenance of the school and its equipment (37% compared with 12% of middle class schools)
- classroom assistance (33% compared to 3% in middle class schools),
- sports days (22% compared with 6% in middle class schools).

In the now familiar pattern, high Maori enrolment was also associated with principal dissatisfaction with parental help or support over some of the same range:

- maintenance of the school and its equipment (37% compared to 15% in very low Maori enrolment schools),
- fundraising events (35% compared to 15% for very low Maori enrolment schools), and
- classroom assistance (30% compared to 5% for very low Maori enrolment schools).

Intermediate principals also expressed more dissatisfaction regarding the level of parental involvement in:

- maintenance of the school and equipment (50% compared to 21% for primary schools)
- classroom assistance (42% compared to 13% for primary schools),
- help with sports days (42% compared to 8%), and
- fundraising events (42% compared with 23%).

Small town principals also report more dissatisfaction, but in one area only, classroom assistance: 30% compared with 13% for others. Principals at the smallest schools were most satisfied with the level of parental support for fundraising events and board meetings (93% each).

Support from the Community

Most schools (76%) also got voluntary help from people who were not parents of children at the school. Nineteen percent did not, and 5% of the principals were unsure if their school received this help. Sixty-five percent of the principals were satisfied with the level of this voluntary help from the wider community, 16% were unsure, and 16% were not satisfied.

Community support in general for their school was described as high by 41% of the principals, and adequate by a further 35%. Ten percent of the principals said community support for their school was low, and 15% that it varied: very much the same pattern as reported in the 1991 survey. However, more intermediate principals reported low community support (33% compared to 8% for primary schools). Rural principals were more likely to describe their community support as high (59% compared to 30% for urban schools, and 22% of small town schools).

Schools in low-income areas stood out, with only 22% describing their community support as high, and 24% describing it as low (compared respectively to 56% and 6% of middle class school principals). Nineteen percent of the high Maori proportion school principals also described their community support as low, compared to 6% for other schools.

Most principals (82%) reported no change in the level of community support over the previous year. Fourteen percent said it had increased, and 3% noted a decrease.

Summary

Patterns of school involvement by parents who are not trustees show little change since 1989, indicating that something more than a shift to school self-management alone is needed to bring parents into schools. Patterns of parental involvement may be dependent on factors outside schools' ability to change. One of the saddest findings of the 1993 survey was confirmation of the 1991 survey indications of the much more limited involvement of unemployed parents in their children's school.

And although the reforms were intended to increase educational opportunity for disadvantaged groups, it is the schools in these areas - low-income or high Maori enrolment - which seem unable to benefit from the reform's emphasis on parental support.

12 - PARENTAL CONTACT AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR CHILD'S SCHOOL

One of the aims of school decentralization in New Zealand was to bring school and parents closer together. In fact, the previous NZCER surveys showed little signs of change in patterns of parental contact with professional staff since 1989. Parents had most contact with their child's teacher, and least with their school's board of trustees.

These surveys have also shown that the majority of parents surveyed were satisfied with the quality of their child's schooling, and with the information they received from schools about their child (less so about the information coming from the school board). Class size however has been a consistent source of dissatisfaction.

Parental Contact with Child's Teacher

Table 45
Parents' Contact with Child's Teacher

Contact	1990 % (n = 645)	1991 % (n = 701)	1993 % (n = 634)
Talk about child's work	81	72	72
Talk about child's written report	75	79	81
Greetings when parent takes child to school	64	61	62
Informal talk at school functions	51	50	49
Informal talk on school trips	48	47	46
Parent sees teacher around the community	28	32	35
Discussion about class programme/curriculum		32	35
Parent helps in classroom	21	20	19
Talk about school policy	17	16	18
No contact	1	2	2

Parents who were unemployed or on state benefits were less likely than others to have contact with their child's teacher to discuss the class programme or curriculum, help in the classroom, or have informal contact on school trips (which involves some additional financial cost to parents). Together with the self-employed and those in manual or unskilled work, they were also most likely to have had no contact at all with their child's teacher (12%, 10% and 8% respectively).

Parental Satisfaction with Teacher Contact, and Associations with Other Parental Experiences and Views

Satisfaction with the contact between parents and their child's teacher was found in the previous NZCER surveys to play a crucial role in parental satisfaction with their child's schooling, and their satisfaction with the school.

Most of the parents responding (77%) thought they had enough contact with their child's teacher. This is much the same proportion as the previous NZCER surveys. Sixteen

percent of the parents responding did not, and 6% were unsure. Pacific Island and Asian parents were more likely to say they did not have enough contact (27% each).

The main comment made by parents was that the teacher was available if needed (12% of all parents responding). Some noted their own lack of availability during the day (3%). Others would like more discussion of their child's progress (3%). Two percent commented that their child's teacher was not very approachable. Three parents thought it was up to the teacher to contact parents.

Parental satisfaction with overall contact with their child's teacher was associated with different kinds of contact. Satisfied parents were more likely to talk informally on school trips or at school functions, to discuss the classroom programme with the teacher, or see the teacher round the community. They were also more likely to help in the classroom, and to talk to the teacher about some aspect of school policy.

Access to information on their child's classroom programme was unreliable or too late for 24% of the dissatisfied parents, and unreliable or too late with regard to their child's learning progress (22%), compared to 4% of parents who were satisfied with their contact with their child's teacher.

There was also a link between satisfaction with teacher contact and parents' overall judgement of their child's schooling. Twenty-four percent of the parents who were dissatisfied with their contact with their child's teacher found their child's schooling unsatisfactory, compared to 9% of those who were satisfied with their contact with the teacher.

Dissatisfaction with teacher contact was also linked to wanting to have a greater say in the school (39% compared with 22% of those who were satisfied with their teacher contact).

Only 10% of the parents had something they would like to raise with their child's teacher, but would feel uncomfortable about doing so. Again, this is little changed since the 1990 survey when the question was first asked. Not surprisingly, a greater proportion of those who would be uncomfortable raising a matter with the child's teacher also felt they did not have enough contact with her/him (22%). The three main concerns mentioned by the group who would be uncomfortable raising an issue with their child's teacher were: their child's academic progress, the classroom programme, and discipline in the classroom.

Twenty-two percent of these parents felt the information on their child's classroom programme was unreliable or too late, and 18% felt the same way about their child's learning progress, compared to 5% of other parents. More of the parents who would be uncomfortable raising a matter with their child's teacher were also dissatisfied with the overall quality of their child's schooling (31% compared to 9% of other parents). And they wanted to have more say in the school: 37% compared to 9% of other parents.

Fifty-one percent (compared to 11% of others) of those who felt they did not have enough contact with the child's teacher also felt they did not have enough contact with their child's principal.

Parents who are uncomfortable raising a matter with a teacher also found the same difficulty in doing so with the principal: 60% compared to 5% of other parents; and with trustees: 27% compared to 6% of other parents.

There were no statistical links between the number of years a parent had had children at the school, and their contact with the teacher, or discomfort in raising an issue with her or him.

Contact with School Principal

Sixty-nine percent of the parents responding were satisfied with their level of contact with the school principal, 11% were unsure, and 19% were not satisfied, almost identical figures to the 1991 survey responses.

Table 46
Parents' Contact with the School Principal

Contact	1990 % (n = 645)	1991 % (n = 701)	1993 % (n = 634)
Greetings when parent takes child to school	60	55	53
Informal talk at school functions	45	43	42
Talk about child	37	34	36
See around community		25	27
Talk about school policy	22	19	23
Informal talk on school trips	20	18	20
No contact	17	20	17
Talk about class programme/curriculum		15	17
Talk about child's written report	13	14	16

Parental Satisfaction with Their Principal Contact, and Associations with Other Parental Experiences and Views

Just under half the unemployed parents or those receiving state benefits did not have any contact with their child's principal. They were also less likely than others to talk informally with the principal on school trips, and, like the self-employed and manual or unskilled workers, less likely to talk informally to the principal at school functions (8%, 10% and 14% respectively). Only 38% of the unemployed parents or those on state benefits felt they had enough contact with the principal, compared to 69% of parents overall.

Pakeha-European parents were more satisfied than others with their level of contact with the principal (72% compared to 57% for Maori parents, 47% for Pacific Island parents, and 39% for Asian parents).

The kind of contact was once again associated with parent satisfaction with their contact with the principal: this year for every item asked about except whanau meetings.

Most parents who commented on their satisfaction with their contact with the school's principal felt the principal was available if they needed him or her (68). Twenty-four parents commented negatively on the principal's manner or capability.

Eleven percent of the parents had some matter they would like to raise with the principal but would feel uncomfortable raising, and another 8% were uncertain. There has been no change in this figure since this question was first asked in the 1990 NZCER survey. Main parental concerns were: their child's progress, their child's class size and the quality of their teacher (27 parents each). Curriculum emphasis, including provision for Maori, concerned 23 parents. Seventeen parents mentioned discipline at the school. Fourteen were put off by the principal's manner. Three mentioned school fundraising or

constant requests for money.

Twenty-four percent of those who were not happy with their child's schooling would also feel uncomfortable raising a matter with the principal, compared to 8% of those who were happy with the general quality of their child's schooling.

Contact with the School's Board of Trustees

The next table shows little change occurring since 1990 in the pattern of parental reports of their contact with trustees. As in previous years, about a third of the parents responding had no contact at all with the board of trustees at their child's school.

Table 47
Parents' Contact with School's Board of Trustees

Contact	1990 % (n = 645)	1991 % (n = 701)	1993 % (n = 634)
Received Board of Trustees' newsletter/reports	53	51	52
No contact	33	34	36
Took part in workbees/fundraising with trustees	32	29	30
Talked with individual trustee about school policy	23	21	28
Took part in development of school charter	20		
Saw minutes of Board of Trustees' meetings	20	24	27
Saw agenda for Board of Trustees' meetings	18	20	20
Took part in development of school policy	16	11	12
Attended Board of Trustees' meeting	16	14	16
Talked with individual trustee about my child		9	12
Took part in curriculum development		10	9

Parents who were unemployed or receiving a state benefit were most likely to have had no contact at all with their school board (65%), and to feel they did not have enough contact with trustees. But this group was also more likely to say that they were not interested in having information on board of trustees' discussions and policymaking (19%).

Parents in unskilled and manual occupations also had a significantly higher rate of lack of interest in board matters (11% compared with 3% for others).

These two groups were also less interested in board decisions (including spending), (12% of unemployed parents or those on benefits and 14% for those in unskilled or manual occupations, compared to 3% for others). They were also less likely than others to receive board of trustee newsletters, or to see agenda and minutes for board meetings - though they were just as likely as others to have attended a board meeting.

Ethnicity also played a part in parent contact with trustees: 33% of Pakeha/European parents had had no contact with their school's trustees, compared with 46% of Pacific Island parents, 52% of Maori parents, and 67% of Asian parents. Pakeha/European parents were also more likely to talk to individual school trustees about school policy and to get the board newsletter and meeting agendas. This difference fed

through into satisfaction with that contact (or lack of it): 54% of Pakeha/European parents felt they had enough contact with their child's school's trustees, compared with 30% of parents from Pacific Island cultures, 22% of Maori parents, and 24% of Asian parents.

Just under a third of the parents responding (31%) did not feel they have enough contact with their school's board of trustees, with another 19% unsure. Fifty percent of those parents who had no contact at all with their school board felt dissatisfied about their level of contact.

The main theme amongst the comments made here was that contact could be established if parents wanted it: 40 said the trustees were available if needed, and 36 mentioned their own lack of time to make contact with trustees.

However, the level of criticism of the board for its manner or openness (43 parents) was higher than similar criticisms of professional staff. Nonetheless, satisfaction regarding contact between parent and trustees, or discomfort in raising a matter with the board is not linked to parental satisfaction with their overall quality of their child's schooling. Such a link was found for parental satisfaction with their contact with the school's professional staff.

Only 8% of the parents had some matter they would feel uncomfortable raising with their child's school board. Another 16% were unsure. These matters included the board's own communication with parents, fundraising activities, discipline at the school, curriculum, the standard of education at the school, and the future viability of the school.

Trustees' Contact with Parents at their School

The average level of contact was 5 forms of contact, as was the case also in 1989. Male trustees were more likely than female trustees to have 1 - 3 kinds of contact (27% compared with 16%), as were Pakeha/European compared to Maori (24% compared with 11%). Maori trustees were more likely to have 10 or more kinds of contact with parents at their school.

Trustees' reports of their contact with parents do show an increase from 1989 in experience of parent-initiated contact: this may mean that parents were approaching more than 1 trustee, rather than any rise in the number of parents seeking contact with their school's board.

Two-thirds of the trustees said they were satisfied with their level of contact with parents - much the same figure as the 1990 and 1991 surveys. Dissatisfaction with contact was lowest for trustees at the smallest schools (7% compared to 38% in schools with rolls of 300 or more).

Table 48
Trustees' Contact with Parents at their School

Contact	1989 % (n = 334)	1990 % (n = 310)	1991 % (n = 322)	1993 % (n = 292)
Informal discussion with parents who are friends	93	81	83	83
Parents come to board meetings	42	42	61	58
Talk with individual parents unknown to trustee at school function	51	51	59	58
Individual parents contact trustee on matters of school policy	55	51	55	58
Trustee contacts individual parents known to trustee to seek their views	53	42	52	47
Individual parents contact trustee concerning their children	25	30	31	43
Trustee attends meetings of PTA/Home & School Association/School Council	36	33	34	33
Work with parents to develop school policy		52	32	26
Trustee contacts unknown individual parents	22	16	20	22
Groups of parents contact trustee on matters of school policy	11	10	15	20
No direct contact with parents	3	1	1	3

Other kinds of contact mentioned were community meetings (4%), working bees (2%) and newsletters (1%).

Maori trustees were more likely than Pakeha/European trustees to say they had had individual parents contacting them concerning their child (61% compared with 47%), and to be contacted by groups of parents on school policy (36% compared with 20%).

Female trustees were more likely than male trustees to have informal discussions with parents who were also friends (91% compared to 77%), and to attend meetings of the PTA or Home and School Association (often the fundraising parent group), 44% compared with 23% of male trustees.

Are Parents satisfied?

Eighty-one percent of the parents responding were generally happy with the quality of their child's schooling. Eleven percent were not (slightly less than the 17% in the 1990 survey), and 7% were unsure.

The chief reason for parental satisfaction with their child's schooling was the child's learning progress or standard of work (37% of satisfied parents). Next came the child's enjoyment of school (22%), and the quality of the teacher (18%). Other reasons given were: a good school climate or good school management (10%), the child got the attention she or he needed (8%), the curriculum was balanced (6%), and the class size was small (3%).

The large size of the child's class headed the reasons for parental dissatisfaction

with the quality of their child's schooling (61% of dissatisfied parents). Lack of learning progress or unsatisfactory standard of work came next (53%). Just under half the dissatisfied parents thought their child was not getting the attention they needed. A quarter mentioned a poor teacher, an imbalanced curriculum, or poor school climate or management.

Parental judgements of their access to information have also remained stable since 1990, when this question was first asked.

Table 49
Parental Views on their Access to Information

Subject	Good	Fair	Not Reliable	Too Late to Act On	Not Interested	Not Sure
(n = 634)	%	%	%	%	%	%
Child's progress	64	30	5	2		
Child's classroom programme	61	30	5	3		
BoT discussion and policymaking	35	24	4	6	5	24
Staff appointments	35	25			5	
BoT decisions	34	26	4	5	5	24

Thirty-three percent of the parents responding said no information was available to them on staff appointments.

The proportion of those parents who would like more information about their child's school has remained much the same since 1990. Twelve percent of the parents responding in 1993 said they would like more information, and another 21% were unsure. Staff appointments (22), finances (18) and curriculum (15) headed the areas mentioned. Others were school policies (12), assessment (10), board of trustees activities (6), and the long term strategy for the school's future (4).

Those parents who wanted more of a say in school life were more likely than others to feel their information on board decisions was either unreliable or too late to act on (27% compared to 6% of other parents), and to say there was no information available on staff appointments (55% compared to 25% of other parents).

Is Class Size Parents' Major Concern?

Parents were asked the class level and size for two of their children's classes at the school, and for their satisfaction with these class sizes. Combining their views for both children (N = 934), only 44% expressed satisfaction with their child's class size. The relationship between satisfaction and the actual size is shown in the next figure.

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Figure 14: Parental Satisfaction with their Child's Class Size
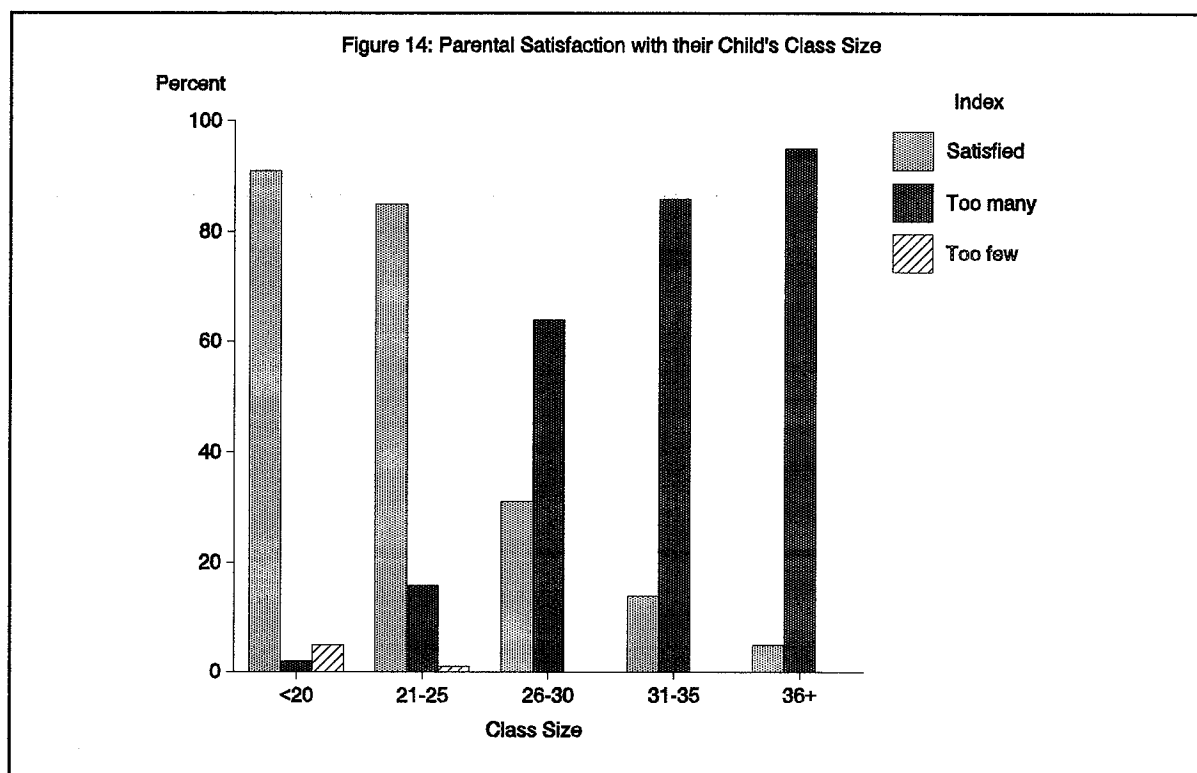
Seventy-eight percent of those who were unhappy with their child's overall schooling also thought that there were too many children in their first child's class, compared to 51% of those who were happy with the overall quality of schooling. This gap widened for parents of more than one child, with 46% of those unhappy with overall quality saying their second child's class was too large, compared to 23% of those expressing satisfaction with overall quality.

Although discipline heads the set of issues which parents advance to their boards, it is arguable from these figures that class size is as important, if not more so, to parents. They may not, however, see their school board as having the direct responsibility for school staffing levels which it has for discipline.

Has Class Size changed since the Start of the Reforms?

There has been no general rise or decline in class size since the 1989 survey, though this apparent stability masks differences in class size related to school size, and some interesting increases of numbers in new entrant classes: in 1990 55% of these had fewer than 20 students; the 1993 figure was 33%; in 1993 50% of new entrant classes had 20 - 24 students compared to 24% in the 1990 survey. If the significant changes at new entrant level reflect the increasing numbers of students entering primary school, then one could expect this bump up in class size to move with the increased rolls through the rest of the primary school.

Figure 15: Class Sizes by Class Level
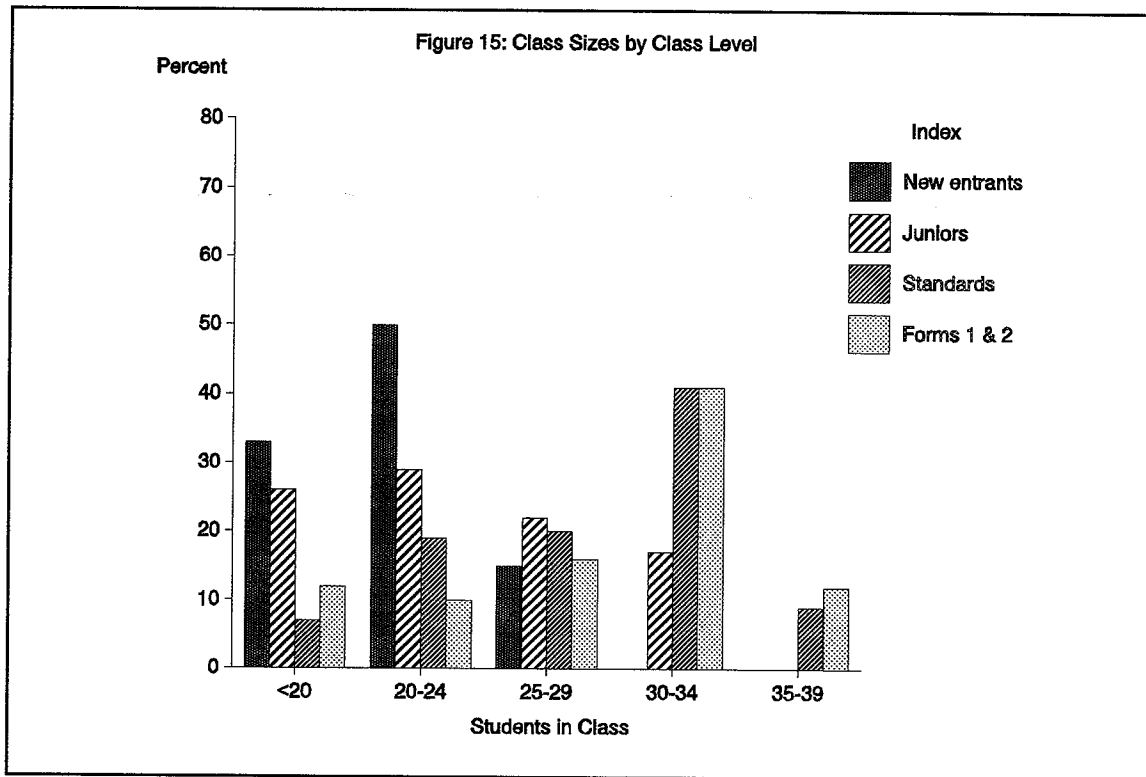
More 1993 classes at the form 1 and 2 level had fewer than 20 students. The latter may reflect declining rolls at some intermediates.

But otherwise, as one would expect given the stability of staffing schedules and teacher funding throughout the first four years of school self-management, no overall changes to class size are apparent. This is in contrast to England, where teacher funding was included in operational grants, on an averaged basis rather than meeting existing staff costs, and where staffing numbers are not decided on the basis of government set staffing schedules.

As in previous years, the smallest schools have the highest proportion of classes less than 20 (82%). Median class size reported by teachers at schools with rolls between 35 and 99 was 21-25 students, 25 students for teachers at schools with rolls of 100 - 200, 30 students for teachers at schools with rolls between 200 and 300, and between 30 - 35 for teachers at schools with rolls above 300. The main reason for these discrepancies are the present formulae used to devise staffing schedules (described in chapter 1).

Summary

Parental satisfaction with their contact with professional school staff has remained high since 1989. Parental contact with professional staff has changed little since the shift to school-based management in 1989. However, there are increasingly clearer signs in the survey findings that parents who are unemployed or on state benefits participate less, and feel less a part of their child's school than others. Given the role that parental school participation and a sense of ease or ability to act on their child's behalf often plays in

children's achievement (Lareau 1990, Nash 1993), this is a disturbing trend if we wish to raise the achievement levels of this group (and thus achievement standards overall).

Trustees' contact with parents shows some alteration since 1989, especially with a rise in trustees reporting parent initiated contact (not vice versa). Pointers to parental dissatisfaction have not altered much at all during the same period, so this seems to indicate a growth in parental awareness of the role and power of their school board.

At the same time there is an ambiguity in parental attitudes toward their board. On the one hand, the parents who responded to the survey showed more dissatisfaction with their contact with trustees, and in the information, or lack of it, from their school board than in their contact with, and information from, school's professional staff. Yet this does not mean that they wish to play a greater part in school affairs, or that they find their relations with the school board a cause for dissatisfaction with their child's learning. Nor is class size, the dominant parental concern, seen as a board responsibility.

Parental satisfaction with the quality of their child's learning is high, and few parents judge the information they get on their child's learning progress or class programme as unreliable or too late to act on. This again has changed little over the course of the reforms, perhaps because parental satisfaction was already at a high level when the shift to school self management began.

13 - DECISIONMAKING

Decisionmaking on allocation of budget, staff appointments, and the setting of school curriculum priorities within national curriculum guidelines and accountability mechanisms now rests with each school's largely voluntary board of trustees. While this involved a shift of decisionmaking from the national or Education Board level as far as appointments and budget decisions were concerned, the shift as far as curriculum was concerned was within the school: from teaching staff to boards of trustees. The Curriculum Review in 1987 foreshadowed more parental involvement in curriculum decisionmaking: the reforms were a way to give that emphasis more teeth through providing a structure, the school board of trustees, for parental involvement in decisionmaking.

Principal Perspectives

Table 50 below shows the shifts that have occurred since 1989. The data indicates the gradual growth of the partnership between trustees and school staff which was sought by the Tomorrow's Schools policy. If charter development is the reason for higher figures for 1989 parental involvement, then this suggests that it is only with such a high level of energy and activity that parents who are not trustees can be brought into school decisionmaking. The increase in their participation on disciplinary policy suggests that schools are involving parents where parents show an interest, rather than trying to lead their interests.

Table 50
Principals' Perceptions of Teachers, Board of Trustees, and Parent Participation in School Decisionmaking

People Involved Area (n = 191)	Teachers %	Trustees %	Parents %	Students %
Discipline	84	77 *+	53 *+	15
Curriculum	84 *-	59 *+	25	10
Student assessment policy	82	41 *-	17 *-	5 *-
Performance appraisal policy "	73	57	5	1
Budget allocation	70	97	12 *-	2 *-
School organization	68 *-	52 *+	13	7 *-
Maori language funding "	51	58	14	1
Allocation of teachers to classes	50	14	3	1

Teacher Perspectives

The next figure shows some overall slippage since 1989 in the quality of information teachers felt they were getting on matters affecting their work, with more teachers now inclined to describe it as fair or not reliable rather than good then in 1989.

Figure 16: Teachers' Views of Quality of Information they Believe is Affecting their Work
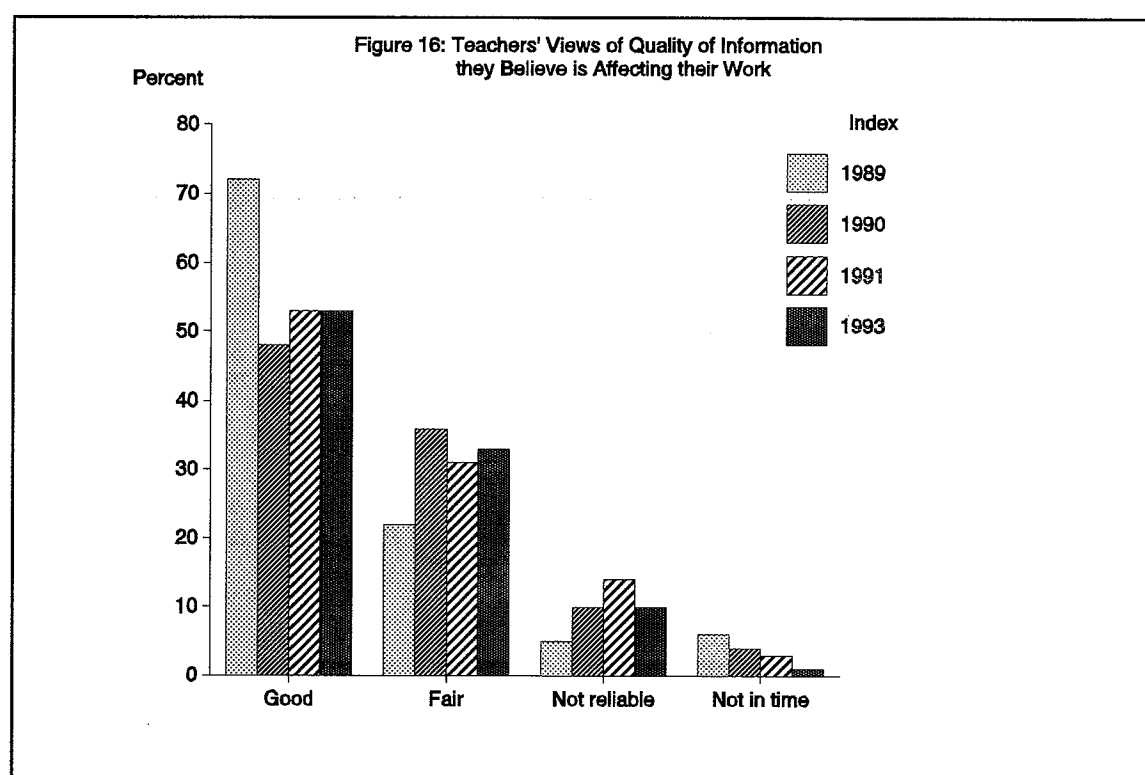
Those in the smallest schools were most happy with their access to information which affects their work (91% describing it as good, and the remaining 9% as fair). Intermediate teachers were less satisfied with their access to information, with only 32% describing it as good.

There were no significant differences between teachers in positions of responsibility and others in their judgement on access to information. However, teachers in positions of responsibility were more likely to feel they were part of the school decisionmaking team for curriculum, assessment policy, school organization, budget allocation, staff development, and the policy on staff performance appraisal.

Table 51
Teachers' Part in School Decision Making

Order: Area (n = 336)	Part of Decision making team %	Listened to by decision makers %	Views not sought %	No desire to to be consulted %
Discipline policy	63	34	7	0
Curriculum	62	23	7	0
Assessment policy	55	36	11	1
School organisation	51	38	16	1
Staff development	50	43	11	1
Budget allocation	47	38	18	1
Appraisal of staff performance policy	39	32	20	2

As an example of how involvement in decisionmaking influences satisfaction with decisions, 56% of those who were not satisfied with the way they were appraised reported that their school's appraisal process had been negotiated with staff, compared to 14% of those who said it had been.

Twenty percent of the teachers responding felt there was an area of school life where they were not involved in making the decisions, and should be, with another 16% unsure. This is much the same as in 1991. The areas mentioned were: the budget (18 teachers), class organization and placement of teachers (14), staff development (10), management (unspecified) (10), and assessment (6). Nine simply noted that their principal did not consult teachers as much as he/she should.

Trustees' Perspectives

The next table shows trustees' ranking of the main areas of their board work by the amount of time spent on them in 1993.

Table 52
Trustees' Ranking of Time Spent on Major Board Activities by their Board

Areas	Most time %		Second most %		Third most %		Fourth most %		Fifth most %	
	1991 (n=322)	1993 (n=292)	1991	1993	1991	1993	1991	1993	1991	1993
Financial management	34	26	31	25	19	20	6	13	6	8
Day-to-day management	28	23	15	12	16	13	24	11	1	13
Property/ maintenance	21	26	20	24	30	20	18	14	1	7
Policy decisions	16	16	22	14	23	22	27	23	2	12
Personnel/industrial	6	9		5		8		16		16
Curriculum		4		11		8		12		30
Other	1	2	2	1	2	1	2		14	-

Other items mentioned as first priority for their board in 1993 were a building project, community consultation, fundraising, discipline or paperwork (3 trustees each), and strategic planning and dealing with parental complaints (1 trustee each).

There were no statistical associations with school characteristics other than size. More trustees from schools with less than 200 students ranked the time their board spent on day-to-day management first or second (43%) compared to those in larger schools (21%). But almost the reverse pattern applied for personnel/industrial relations: 6% of trustees from schools with rolls below 100 gave this first or second priority, compared to 20% of trustees with rolls above 100.

As one indication of trustees' satisfaction with their present decisionmaking powers, they were asked whether there were areas of the school where they would like more, or less, involvement.

Twenty-three percent of the trustees responding said there was an area of the school where they would like more involvement, and a further 16% were unsure. More knowledge of the curriculum was the major area mentioned (18% of those who would like more involvement, or who were unsure about this), with a few mentioning more desire for

classroom involvement (6%), or more input into the day to day running of the school (3%).

Although 8% of all trustees responding gave relations between the principal and the board as the reason for their not being involved in an area where they would like more involvement, reasons external to the school were dominant here: 17% cited lack of time, 10% their paid work, 4% their family commitments, and 2% the financial costs associated. Three percent of trustees responding felt they had no basis to judge the standard of teaching unless they were to spend more time in the school, and 1% felt that the area which interested them did not fall within their role as trustee.

Fifteen percent of the trustees responding felt there was an area of school life where they would like less involvement, with 11% unsure. The areas mentioned were funding/fundraising, 'donkey work'(15% of those who would like less involvement or who were unsure), staffing and employment (14%), and working bees (7%).

Women were likely to be more unsure than men whether there was an area they would like less involvement (16% compared to 7%), as were Maori compared to Pakeha/European (21% compared to 9%). Hours already spent on trustee work had no association with the desire for either more, or less, involvement.

Parents' Perspective

Were there areas of school life in which parents would like to have more of a say? Thirteen percent said there was, and another 15% were unsure. Curriculum (17 parents) and discipline (13) were the main interests of those who commented. Also mentioned were extracurricular activities, such as school camps (9) class composition (8), finance or expenditure (6), and Maori language (6).

Those parents who wanted more of a say in school life were more likely than others to feel their information on board decisions was either unreliable or too late to act on (27% compared to 6% of those who wanted no further say in school life), or to say there was no information available on staff appointments (55% compared to 25%).

Summary

One of the hallmarks of 'effective' or 'excellent' schools is the inclusive and collaborative nature of school decisionmaking. In line with this, a major principle of the reforms was that decisionmaking should occur 'as close as possible to the point of implementation', and that teachers would be involved in collaborative decisionmaking in their schools (Tomorrow's Schools, 1988, Sections 1.2.16 and 1.2.17).

According to principal reports, while there does appear to be an increase in trustee involvement in curriculum and discipline, parents who are not trustees have only increased their involvement in policymaking in the area of school discipline. As with students, in some areas they are even less involved than they were at the start of the reform, though this may simply reflect the unusually high consultation activity that occurred when schools were embarked on developing their school charters. Here the school was taking a lead, rather than waiting for parents to express interest. Certainly the survey data do not show strong parental desires for more involvement in school decisionmaking.

Teachers' reports of the quality of their involvement in school decisionmaking show little change from 1989, with some deterioration in their access to information on matters which concern them. While the data show that quite a high level of either involvement or a sense of being consulted already existed in schools since the start of the reforms, it also shows no further progress since then.

The overall picture is in accord with Ramsay et al's (1993) study of the extra

resourcing needed to change patterns of parent involvement in school decisionmaking, and Capper's (1994) findings for secondary schools. Backed by research analysis of the difficulty of making radical change in schools swiftly, Capper concludes that school self-management by itself is not able to make the sometimes difficult moves to real collaborative decisionmaking. Capper's work also brings home the complexity of school life and the school enterprise.

Making decisions about the school is satisfying for principals and trustees: it has figured in the top three sources of satisfaction about their work since they were first asked this question in 1990.

14 - SCHOOL POLICIES & PLANNING

The reform architects wished to achieve a greater integration of school policy and practice, and more attention at school level to gathering evidence to assess the actual effects of good intentions.

The mandatory framework for the charters was intended to ensure that schools could not avoid some of the most challenging aspects of educational provision, particularly the improvement of educational achievement for students from disadvantaged groups. Schools were to be reviewed on their charter objectives, and charters had, theoretically, to be approved before funding was granted to schools.

This combined carrot and stick approach had mixed results. Some schools threw themselves fully into the development of their charters, consulting widely, asking searching questions about what they were trying to do, and why they were doing it the way they were. Others were more mindful of the stick (the link with funding and review), and drew up their charters to reflect existing practice. There were two other reasons why people in schools also used existing practice as a basis for their charters. Some did so to give themselves time to settle into the new regime before they turned to making any fundamental changes. Others saw no need to spend time 'reinventing the wheel'.

There were, and remain, mixed feelings too about the need for school policies. People in schools often tend to be pragmatic. Are policies simply 'bits of paper' to wave in front of the Education Review Office assurance auditor? Do you need them if the situation they address has yet to arise?

What has become of school charters?

While 78% of the trustees and 73% of the teachers responding thought that their school charter was a working document, only 49% of the principals thought so. Perhaps the difference can be explained by different perceptions of 'working'. Certainly, there is more congruence between the three groups' views when it comes to looking at their perceptions of the specific effects of the charter within respondents' own schools.

Table 53 also shows that the main role of charters in schools has been as a ground for the development of school policy.

A third of the trustees reported that they had in fact recently revised their charter, with another 23% reporting revision in progress. Seventy-two percent of the principals and 67% of the teachers reported that the policies in the charter were being reviewed in a regular cycle.

Small town trustees were more likely to say they had recently revised their charter (50%, compared with 28% of urban and 32% of rural trustees). Rural principals were more likely to report their school was not reviewing its charter policies in a regular cycle (36% compared to 17% small town and 21% city principals).

Table 53
Views on Effects of School Charters within School

Effect	Trustees % (n = 292)	Teachers % (n = 336)	Principals % (n = 191)
Helped in development of school policies	62 *+	51 *+	55 *+
None-school already doing what was in charter	26 *-	34 *-	35
Changes to school administration	16	15	29 *+
Some curriculum changes	14	17	21
More parent participation in school	16	15	17
More equitable education	15	10	16
None	9	6	14
None - not important to funding/review agencies	3	1	5

What has become of policies to address social disadvantage?

The national charter objectives were designed to ensure that schools did address the learning needs of groups whom research had identified as disadvantaged in their access to education, or in the ability of that education to meet these needs. While there has been some improvement in some areas since a set of questions about the provision of relevant programmes or policies was first asked in the 1990 NZCER survey, this provision is still well short of the universality envisaged by the Tomorrow's Schools policy.

The comparisons of 1990 and 1993 responses in the next table also show that current provision owes itself to processes of development initiated several years earlier. The material suggests that if schools did not show interest in addressing these issues of equity and improving educational achievement in the early flush of the changes, they are unlikely to start to do so now, left to their own devices.

Table 54
Special Programmes or Policies to Counter Disadvantage

Programme/Policy	Some %	In Development %	None % 1990 (n = 207)	None % 1993 (n = 191)
Maori education programme - all students	70	15		16
for Maori students	50 *+	9 *-	38	40
Anti-sexism	50 *+	4 *-	52	46
for Gifted students	47 *+	10 *-	47	41
Mainstreaming of students with special needs	46 *+	5 *-	48	49
Anti-racism	26 *+	6 *-	72	68
English as a second language	22 *+	5 *-	70	70
for Pacific Island students	7	4	84	86

Maori education programmes probably include taha maori, tikanga maori and Maori language curriculum initiatives[19] which spread through schools from the late 1970s, with Department of Education support (and push). There was a parallel central support and initiative to reduce explicit sexism in curriculum resources and teaching practice. Discretionary Government funding is still available - though now on application - to those schools with significant proportions of Maori and Pacific Island students, to support students with special needs (through specifying a number of hours of teacher aide time) and for English as second language (ESOL) students. This survey's material relating to the recipients of such funding (chapter 2) suggests that such funding can be gained without having specific policies or programmes for such groups.

Provision for gifted children and anti-racism programmes are the only two areas asked about which could not rely either on a legacy of previous national development or support, or on current targeted funding schemes. It is therefore telling to contrast schools' interest in providing programmes for gifted children (and in the present competitive environment, being seen to provide them), compared to their interest in tackling racism.

Intermediates were more likely to be providing programmes or have policies for Maori students (83% compared to 42% of full primary schools), to provide for students for whom English is a second language (58% compared to 28% of contributing, and 13% of full primary schools). They were also more likely to have special programmes or policies for gifted students (92% compared with 53% of contributing, and 36% of full primary schools). It is probably worth bearing in mind that intermediates have higher per student funding in both their base operational grants, and in the per student amount for ESOL grants.

Rural schools were less likely to provide Maori education programmes or have Maori education policies (36% had some provision or policy compared to 61% of small town schools, and 59% of city schools).

Equity grants, which are primarily linked to the socio-economic and ethnic status of the schools' students, were used in a range of ways.

Table 55
Schools' Use of Equity Grants

Use	% (n = 68)
Support staff	44
Supplement existing learning programme	40
Purchase curriculum resources	40
Out of school visits	31
Teacher/s	29
Offer a new learning programme	13
Visitors to school	10
Staff development	10
Subsidise student costs	4

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[19] For example, *Tihe Maori Ora! Maori Language Junior Classes to Form 2*, a non-compulsory syllabus developed by the Department of Education which incorporated teacher training as well as curriculum materials.

Six of the principals reported only one kind of use of their equity grant, and at the other extreme, 14, 5 or 6 uses. The mean was 3 uses.

Paying Attention to Assessment and Image

However, more schools have made changes in other areas of school life, particularly where there has been some central thrust, or interest. At this stage of the shift to school-based management, accountability, or rather monitoring and the gathering of evidence, is the most pronounced area of change, followed by promotion of the school to prospective parents. It is somewhat ironic that this has not been accompanied to the same degree by changes to reporting to parents of children already in the school.

Table 56
Changes in Assessment, Reporting, and School Presentation
as a result of the Education Reforms

Area	Major change %		Minor change %		No change %	
	1991 (n=186)	1993 (n=191)	1991	1993	1991	1993
Staff appraisal		59		30		8
Student assessment	22	37 *	47	48	29	13 *
Internal monitoring and evaluation of school/class programmes	19	35 *	53	51	27	12 *
School promotion/marketing	19	23	51	40 *	28	34
Reporting student achievement to parents	11	16	41	53 *	47	29 *
Presentation of school/class programmes to parents	6	7	42	57 *	50	32 *

Schools expanding their programmes or policies for particular groups of children, such as Maori or those with English as a Second Language were no more likely than others to make changes to the aspects of school policy covered above, which may indicate that these programmes are unlikely to be radically different from what was already offered in the school, or that they have made little impact on the overall school approach to curriculum, assessment, and relations with parents.

Twenty-four percent of the principals said their school now produced a regular newsletter or had regular articles in their local newspaper as part of the school's self-promotion; 20% had produced a new prospectus or introduced brochures or flyers about the school. Nine percent of the principals reported paying for advertising. Open days or tours round the school were initiated by 7%, and 5% saw their special events, such as concerts and science fairs, as a means of school promotion. Five percent also worked through local early childhood education centres, or put up new signs at their school gates. Six percent relied on personal promotion efforts of staff and parents, and 3% mentioned more reporting to parents, or the introduction of parental meetings at the class level.

Seventy-one percent of the principals reported an increase in the number of

prospective parents visiting the school since 1989. Parents also asked to see material about the school (39%), but only 12% reported parents asking to see the results of Education Review Office (ERO) reviews of the school.

Rural schools were more likely to have made no changes to their school promotion (43% compared to 29% in cities, and 13% in small towns). Compared to city schools, rural schools were less likely to have more parents visiting the school (53% compared to 86%), and to have parents asking to see material about the school, 29% compared to 51%.

No School is an Island

The actions of other local schools were thought by 37% of the principals responding to have affected their school roll (chapter 16). Sixteen percent of the principals said such actions had made a difference to their school's ethnic composition, and 13% to their school's socio-economic composition.

The development of school policies was also thought to be affected by what others nearby had done. The biggest impact was a change in the school's own self-promotion (39%). This was linked to changes in school rolls. Fifty-nine percent of those principals whose school roll had been affected by other local schools' actions also felt their own school promotion had been affected, compared to 27% of those whose school rolls had remained unaffected.

Changes to the school's assessment practices as a result of other local schools' actions were reported by 21% of the principals responding, and curriculum changes by 16%.

Deterioration in the school's relationship with other local schools since the start of the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms was more likely to be reported by principals at those schools whose socio-economic composition had altered, and those whose own school promotion had been affected by other local schools' actions.

Intermediates were most likely to report roll number and school promotion changes as a result of other schools' actions (75% and 83% compared to 34% for primary schools)

Urban schools were more likely than rural schools to change their own school promotion as a result of other schools' actions (49% compared with 31%).

Student numbers become the key for school funding and staffing in an education system using school-based management. It is therefore not surprising that the main impact schools are perceived to have on one another is on roll numbers, and the need to market the school. What is interesting is that such efforts do not appear to be linked with action to change the **content** of what schools offer: curriculum and assessment practices. Perhaps schools are not willing to share ideas and innovations, as suggested by some anecdotal material and teachers' unmet desire for training with teachers in schools other than their own (chapter 7). Perhaps people in schools do not think that a changed curriculum will attract more students: this fits with material in this survey showing parental satisfaction with their child's schooling, and the prominence of discipline rather than curriculum amongst the issues parents raise to their school's board of trustees (this chapter). Perhaps the adherence to a national curriculum contained in the National Education Guidelines makes it difficult to envisage major change.

Self-review and School development Plans

Forty-six percent of the principals and 41% of the trustees said their school had a process

of self-review. Thirty-seven percent of the principals and 21% of the trustees said they had a self-review process in development.

School development plans were more common (82% of principals, and 73% of trustees, with 13% of trustees saying such a plan was then being formulated, and 7% unsure). Items covered by such plans were: curriculum (84% of principals, 68% of trustees), staff development (80% of principals, 60% of trustees), property management (71% of principals, 70% of trustees), finance (60% of principals, 53% of trustees), and trustee training (42% of principals, 26% of trustees). Ten percent of the principals also mentioned community consultation, and several mentioned personnel policy and school marketing.

The lower figure for the inclusion of finance in comparison with curriculum and property management indicates that the integration of goals in different aspects of school life might not be widespread. This reading is given additional support by the low level of use of aggregated student assessment results (36% of principals responding) and of the results of teacher appraisals (24% of teachers responding). Perhaps school development plans bear a closer resemblance to the 'school schemes' which pre-existed the reforms than they do to the tighter formats envisaged by the reform architects, and recently emphasized by the Education Review Office.

Aggregated student assessment results (which allow a monitoring of goals for student achievement) were more likely to be used in school development plans if they were also reported to boards than if they were collected at class level only (60% compared to 39%).

A quarter of the trustees said their school development plan covered the current year, 27% the next two years, and 20%, 3 or more years ahead. Sixty-two percent of the trustees said their school development plan kept them on track, and 33% said it kept them within their budget. Eight percent said outside demands and policy changes made it difficult to keep to their plan.

Trustee Confidence in Dealing with Policy Issues or Problems

Forty-two percent of the trustees reported that no issue or problem related to major school policies had arisen in their school during 1993. If it did, the two most prominent responses were ones which did not appear in solutions to problems or issues in other areas of school life: consultation of the school's parents (54% of those who had had problems), and consulting other local schools (40%).

NZSTA (29%) was the other major source of advice. Next came NZEI and the Ministry of Education (17% each), the Principals' Federation (10%), non-local schools (7%), and a college of education (3%). Seven percent had responded to policy issues or problems by negotiation with other schools, and 2% had employed a private consultant to help them sort out a policy issue. Seven percent of the trustees who had faced a policy issue or problem said their school had taken no action to resolve it. The median number of actions taken was 2, with 17% of trustees saying their board had taken 1 action only, and 27% noting between 4 to 9 actions to solve policy problems or issues.

Consultation

Most trustees (91%) said their board had consulted its community in 1993. In fact newsletters were the most popular method of consultation (75%), followed by invitations to parents to attend board meetings (65%), public meetings at the school (54%), and written questionnaires (51%). Community public meetings and phone surveys were used

by 14% of the trustees.

Other methods used were home/cottage meetings (4%), a major hui (3%), and school functions and board sub-committees or working parties (1% each). The median number of methods used to consult the school's community was 3. Nine percent of trustees said their school used one method of parent consultation, and 37% used 5 to 7 methods to gauge community views.

A quarter of the trustees responding said more than three-quarters of their school's parents had taken part in their consultation, 16% between a half and three-quarters of the parents, 12% between a quarter and a half, 18% between a tenth and a quarter, and 13% less than a tenth of the parents of children at the school. The sole school factor associated with different proportions of parents participating in community consultation was size: only 9% of trustees at schools with more than 300 students reported that three-quarters or more of their school's parents had participated in the consultation compared with 53% of trustees in the smallest schools.

Thirty-six percent of the trustees responding felt their consultation methods had been successful, with another 47% saying that they had been successful for some issues. Only 5% felt the methods used had not been successful, and 4% were unsure.

Table 57 shows the issues which boards took to their school communities. Other than a decline in consultation to develop school policy, they are much as they were two years earlier.

Table 57
Issues of Board's Consultation with School Community

Issue	1991 % (n = 322)	1993 % (n = 292)
Policy development	33	23 *-
General survey/parent satisfaction	24	21
Curriculum/assessment	14	12
Discipline	8	12
Wide variety	9	11
Funding/fundraising	13	9
Health/safety	9	7
School amenities	8	7
Staffing matter	0	6 *+
Maori education	7	5

What Issues do Parents Raise with their School Board?

Seventy-two percent of the trustees said that parents had raised an issue with their board in 1993, slightly more than the 62% in the 1991 survey. Forty-three percent of the trustees who responded to the survey described one issue only, 13% 2, and 5% 3 or 4 issues. This is much the same pattern as in 1991, with a wide range of issues being raised.

Discipline issues dominate the list of concerns which parents brought to their school's policymakers.

Table 58
Issues Raised by Parents to their School's Board of Trustees

Issue	1991 % (n = 322)	1993 % (n = 292)
Discipline (including uniform)	15	23 *+
Extracurricular provision	9	9
Dissatisfaction with staff member	8	8
Health and safety	11	7
Transport	6	6
Staffing/class size	4	6
Funding (including fundraising/spending)	12	5 *-
Future of school	8	5
Provision for Maori children	3	5
Homework	2	3

Only 1% of the trustees said their board had taken no action in response to parental concerns. While much of the action was taken at an individual level, with the principal (39%) or a board member (36%) discussing the matter with a parent, boards also altered or developed school policy (27% of trustees responding), or a parent presented their concern at a board meeting (37%). Twenty percent of the trustees said their board had sought external advice or assistance when an issue was raised by parents. What is new in the 1993 findings from the 1991 pattern is a jump in the proportion of trustees reporting that public meetings were held in response to issues raised by parents (from 4% to 21%), the holding of special board meetings (from 5% to 18%), discussions with other local schools, with the Ministry of Education or at joint board/staff committees (10% each), and the setting up of Board/parent committees (7%).

Consultation with the School's Maori Community

Because the reforms were intended to address educational inequity, a special emphasis was given initially to consultation with Maori parents and the local Maori community, in order to develop appropriate provision for Maori students. However, the proportion of trustees reporting that their boards did not consult the Maori community has doubled between 1991 from 25% to 52% in 1993. Three-quarters of these said they had few, or no Maori students. [20]

The main methods used to consult the Maori community were: having a board

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[20] Six percent of trustees in schools with more than 30% Maori enrolment thought they had no, or few Maori students, as did 14% of those in moderate Maori enrolment schools, 42% of those in low Maori enrolment schools, and 46% of those in very low Maori enrolment schools.

member responsible for Maori liaison (26%), ongoing discussions with the local Maori community (27%), putting on school events, such as a children's concert (21%), individual board members having discussions with Maori parents (20%), asking Maori parents as a group to develop policy (15%), maintaining close relations with the local marae (15%), or asking individual Maori parents to develop appropriate policy (9%). Only 4% sponsored a hui to discuss issues.

The next table shows the decline in issues brought to consultation with the Maori community, and the clear link of this school consultation and the proportion of Maori enrolment in the school.

Table 59
Consultations with Maori Community by Topic
and Proportion of Maori Enrolment at the School

Topic of Consultation	Maori Enrolment							
	Very low %		Low %		Moderate %		High %	
	1990 (n=164)	1993 (n=108)	1990 (n=37)	1993 (n=50)	1990 (n=56)	1993 (n=70)	1990 (n=53)	1993 (n=64)
Maori Education funding	15	9	31	18	37	17 *-	38	39
Bilingual units		1		9		14		39
Maori children's achievement		6		15		13		24
Appointments		2		11		7		23
Curriculum		5		11		14		23
Maori Education policy	18	6 *-	47	9 *-	50	21 *-	47	18 *-
Treaty of Waitangi	23	12 *-	36	18	44	21 *-	55	16 *-
Discipline	0	2	3	5	2	15 *+	17	16
Equal learning opportunity		6		11		8		16
ERO report		0		7		4		15
All issues	24	3 *-	28	11	22	11	28	13
Staffing		0		5		7		11

Parent Involvement in Policy Development

Trustees' satisfaction with parent involvement in developing school policies remained much the same as in 1991: 38% were generally satisfied, 28% expressed satisfaction for some policy areas, 26% were not satisfied, and 5% were unsure. The next table sets out trustees' views of the involvement of parents other than themselves in some key policy areas, showing much the same picture as in 1991.

Table 60
Trustee Views of Parent (other than Trustee)
Involvement in Policy Development and Decisions

Policy Area (n = 292)	Most %	A Few %	None %	Not Sure %
Reporting to parents on student progress	18	22	49	8
Reporting to parents on school policy and programmes	16	30	45	6
Playground behaviour	13	40	37	6
Curriculum	11	31	47	9
'Healthy schools' "	11	28	25	13
Equity issues	9	26	48	11

Of particular interest is the level of participation in the 'healthy schools' policy area. This NZSTA initiative gathered momentum in 1992. It pulls together work previously developed by the Department of Education and schools to improve students' self-esteem, responsibility and safety. It has already achieved much the same level of parent participation as other policy areas, indicating both its interest to parents, and the activity already taking place in schools. But the stability of the pattern since 1991 would also seem to indicate that parent involvement in school policymaking, given present school structures, settles at similar levels, whatever the particular policy area.

But there have been some changes in principals' perception of parent involvement in school policymaking. The next table sets out principals' view of parents involvement in four of the same areas. Since parents were not specified in this question, it is likely that trustees were included in the answers to this question. However, differences in trustees' and principals' reports of general parental involvement in curriculum are not statistically significant.

Table 61
Principals' View of Parent Involvement in Policy Development in their School

	General %	Some %	Not yet %	Not interested %	Not appropriate %	Not involved %
School discipline	36 *+	38	4	7	4	10
Equity issues	25 *+	36	10	19	4	6
Special needs	21	42	7	10	9	10
Curriculum	21 *+	41	8	21 *+	7 *-	6 *-
'Healthy schools'	14	39	13	7	2	16

What is of most interest is that very few principals now find curriculum an inappropriate area for parent involvement in policy development. Discipline also shows most parent involvement, mirroring its dominance in issues raised by parents to their school board.

Summary

Charters have provided the ground for policy development. They have been less effective than originally planned in promoting the development of programmes and policies to improve the provision of educational opportunity for members of disadvantaged groups.

While there was marked development of such provision, it is now unlikely that schools which have seen no need to change policy or programmes will do so without a further push or incentive from government. Consultation with the Maori community has shown a marked decline since 1991.

Policy development is most marked in areas of school life which could improve the school's public image and maintain or increase student numbers. This may simply be because there is a national curriculum which schools are expected to adhere to.

Policy development as far as marketing is concerned is affected by what is happening in other local schools, more so in urban than rural areas.

Parental contribution to policy formation remains limited to a small number of parents. While the range of issues raised by parents to their school board remains much the same as in 1991, boards seem to be more responsive as far as holding public meetings, setting up working groups, or taking the issue to others beyond the school itself.

15 - CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT

One of the rationales for the shift to school-based management was that it would encourage school diversity as schools became more responsive to their local community for those who saw the reforms as answering long-standing calls for more community involvement in schools (Barrington 1990), or to parents seeking a different education for their children, for those who saw the reforms as a way of encouraging competition between schools.

But two other strands of the reforms to education administration effectively limit the degree of curriculum change likely to occur in New Zealand schools. First the inclusion of mandatory national curriculum in charters and the National Education Guidelines (1993). Second, the stress on school accountability for its performance, and the need for government to receive information on school achievements which would satisfy it that public money was being spent appropriately (and efficiently). This meant, among other things, the development of systemic assessment running through all levels of the school system, and no longer limited to the upper end of the secondary schools.

A nationally set curriculum allows government control over what is taught, without having to be responsible for the details. Such a curriculum was not new in New Zealand. New Zealand teachers were accustomed to a national curriculum which gave primary schools flexibility in what they covered, and when, within an overall set of guidelines. School staff could also choose their own textbooks (or disregard those which came free from the Department of Education).

What was new in the recent reforms was that parents and the local community were given channels of power and consultation to influence the choices made by the school professionals.

Equity considerations gave another reason for retaining national curriculum guidelines. Existing guidelines had recently provided a channel for curriculum and teaching methods reform, addressing gender or ethnic bias, for example. The retention of this ability to positively influence educational provision was of particular importance to those who feared that local school management would foster parochialism and, in conservative communities, narrow educational provision.

In fact, the most radical changes to curriculum seem to have occurred less in existing schools than in the new Maori immersion schools, Kura Kaupapa Maori whose setting-up became slightly easier and slightly better funded with the reforms but these schools have also had to develop their own curriculum resources, almost from scratch.[21] There remains a paucity of curriculum resources for these schools, indicating the fundamental reliance of mainstream schools on government development of curriculum and accompanying resources.

The new NZ Curriculum Framework was introduced in 1993, with mathematics and

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[21] A 1993 NZEI survey of government provided reading texts in Maori show only enough oral reading texts for 3 - 7½ year olds for 5 weeks learning of the 180 weeks of school in this age-range; only 20 weeks worth of reading texts for the 160 weeks of school between the ages of 5 to 8, and 12-15 weeks reading to last 200 weeks of schooling between 8 to 12 years of age. A companion survey of Maori language fluency in the Wellington region showed only 13% of teachers in Maori immersion classes with fluency; a 1990 national survey showed only 30% of teachers in bilingual or immersion classes were fluent in the use of the language (Hamilton 1993).

science first up. In the past, frameworks for particular curriculum areas were developed over some years, with classroom teachers coming into the central Department of Education to work with curriculum specialists, and a set of school trials of draft curricula taking place, providing a way to spread acceptance of the new developments as well as give useful feedback to the developers.

With the shift to school-based management, and the splitting up of the old Department of Education functions into new government departments and agencies with more defined goals, curriculum in each area is now developed by a policy group approved by the Minister of Education. Schools are invited to apply to participate in curriculum development, and to tender to work on different aspects, both as a form of teacher development, and, it is hoped, as a way of encouraging innovations which can then be made available to others, a model of dissemination by good practice rather than the former (near) universal coverage.

So what should we expect to have happened to curriculum in the first 4 years of school self-management? Realistically, not very much initiation at school level. Other than the spread of computers in classrooms and some increase in Maori language classes, previous NZCER surveys found little change to the curriculum reported by teachers and principals. This may have been a reflection of the initial emphasis on new administrative and accountability frameworks.

Teachers' Reports of Curriculum Change

In the 1993 survey, only 8% of the teachers responding said there had been no change over the past year to the curriculum they taught. This is substantially down on the 23% who noted no change in the 1991 survey. Moreover, more teachers were reporting substantial change (57% compared to 28% in 1991).

The New Zealand Curriculum Framework was cited as one of the two leading reasons for change (64%). Meeting children's needs was also ticked by 64% of the teachers. Other major reasons were to match the children's level of learning (33%) and to match school charter objectives (32%). Meeting parental interest was only noted as a reason for curriculum change by 13%.

Teachers from schools serving low-middle income areas were more likely to report no changes in their curriculum over the past year (18% compared to 9% for those in middle-class schools, or those drawing on a wide socio-economic range, and 3% in low income areas). Those teaching new entrant or specialist classes were also more likely to report no change to curriculum (20% and 25% respectively).

The next table which sets out these changes shows little sign of the narrowed curriculum which some feared would come from local school management. Instead it seems to indicate a continuation of curriculum trends which were at work before the reforms, and to underline the importance of changes at the national level.

Table 62
Changes to Curriculum

	% (n = 302)
More use of computers	62
More emphasis on assessment	57
Change to subject syllabus	49 *+
More integration of subjects	46 *+
More Maori language	38
More emphasis on social skills	37
More emphasis on basic skills	27
More education outside the classroom	13

Only 3% of teachers who had made changes were providing more religious or moral education, and 2% had introduced a language other than English or Maori.

There were no associations between the different curriculum areas asked about. This means, for example, that teachers putting more emphasis on computers were just as likely as those giving more prominence to basic skills to be putting more emphasis on social skills also. It is hard from these answers to draw a clear line separating 'progressive' schools from 'traditional' schools.

Different types of schools serving different populations were not heading off in different directions, apart from the unsurprising finding that 19% of integrated school teachers reported more moral or religious education compared to 1% of state schools.

Another exception to this general lack of different patterns associated with different school communities emerges in analysing hours spent on different subject areas. Twenty-two percent of teachers in high Maori enrolment schools spent at least 2 hours a week on Maori, compared to 3% of those in moderate Maori enrolment schools, and none of the others. This trend was already apparent in the 1991 survey findings, and provides further weight to the analysis presented in chapter 14 that efforts to address equity stem from the early years of the reforms, and that provision of this kind was unlikely to be initiated now.

Education Outside the Classroom

One of the pointers to good quality primary schooling identified by the London longitudinal study of primary learning progress (Mortimore et al 1988) was the frequency of class outings. A question on this has been included in all the NZCER surveys since 1989. Only 3% of teachers who had made curriculum change were providing less education outside the classroom. No change (or improvement) in the pattern has been noted in the first four years of the switch to school-based management. Fifty-nine percent of the 1993 teachers responding took their children out once or twice a term, 21% 2 or 3 times a term, 5% 3 or 4 times, and 3% more than this. Eight percent said class outings were rare. Parents remained the main financial contributors for such excursions for 83% of the teachers, with 26% (including 17% of those who nominated parents as the main contributors) mentioning the school, and 2% teachers. Only one teacher mentioned an outside organization.

Not surprisingly, this reliance on parental contributions led to differences between schools serving different areas. Only 35% of teachers in low income area schools said that all their students could afford to go on their outside education sessions, compared to 61% of teachers in other areas. (Thirteen percent of teachers in low income schools said between 11-19% of their students could sometimes not afford these trips, and 9% of teachers at low income schools reported 20% or more of their students unable to afford these excursions; compared to 3% of teachers in low-middle income areas and 1% of teachers in middle class schools for each category.)

The same pattern holds for school proportion of Maori enrolment: 64% of teachers in schools with less than 15% Maori enrolment said that all their students could afford to go on these sessions, compared to 41% of teachers in moderate Maori enrolment and 44% of teachers at schools with high Maori enrolment. (Thirteen percent of the high Maori enrolment school teachers said between 11-19% of their students could not afford these sessions, and 9% said 20% or more of their students could not afford to go, compared to 2% average for teachers at other schools having more than 10% of their students unable to join sessions outside the classroom.

Education outside the classroom, or the cost of it, is one of the top 10 issues which parents raised to their school boards.

Has Parental Interest Increased?

Curriculum change in schools was not accompanied by a rise in parental interest. Only 16% of the teachers responding reported a general rise in parental interest. Another 28% noted that increased interest was limited to a few parents only. However, 30% of the teachers in low-middle income areas noted a general increase. No associations could be found between kind of curriculum change reported and changes in parental satisfaction. So, for example, those reporting no change in parental interest were just as likely as those who reported increased parental interest to be using computers more, integrating subjects, having more Maori language or putting more emphasis on basic skills.

The New Curriculum Framework

At the time the 1993 questionnaires were sent out, the outline of the new NZ Curriculum Framework had been in schools for two months.

Almost all the teachers (92%) had seen the new Curriculum Framework, and most (73%) had discussed it in staff meetings. Asked for their own view of the framework in an open-ended question, 52% made a positive comment. Twenty percent commented on the need for time, money, or training to implement it. Fifteen percent made some criticism of the content, including the related assessment procedures. Five percent thought it was very much like their present curriculum.

In a related closed question, 44% of the teachers thought the new framework would enhance particular curriculum emphases that their school had initiated since 1989. Thirty-one percent thought they would have to alter some of their internal school development, but only 2% thought they would have to drop altogether what had been internally initiated. Twenty-two percent of the teachers were unsure what impact the Curriculum Framework would have for their school.

Just over half the trustees had seen the NZ Curriculum Framework document (57%), with a further 10% unsure. Fifty-seven percent of the principals, and 38% of the trustees (with 12% unsure) said their school's board had discussed the framework - a

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figure which probably says more about the ability of boards to address national policy documents in the time-frame of 2 months than their interest in the matter. Ten percent of the principals and 9% of the trustees commented that their discussion had been brief, and 5% that the board had felt unqualified to comment, and had left that task to the school staff.

Fifty-seven percent of the principals and 21% of the trustees expressed positive views about the new framework in open-ended questions. Eighteen percent of the principals and 6% of the trustees responding thought it would need time, training, and money to implement; 6% qualified their support. Twelve percent of trustees were critical overall, with a further 3% expressing reservations about the related assessment framework. Five percent thought it was no great change from their school's present provision, and 7% were unsure what impact it would have.

Most of the principals responding (72%) said it would have resource implications for their school, with another 19% unsure. Equipment for maths, science and/or technology were specifically mentioned in response to the invitation to comment further by 20%, new books or equipment in general by 8%, staff development by 7%. Nine percent said it would mean some adjustments to their budget, and 7% reiterated that they would need more money to implement it. Only 6% of the principals said the new framework would change their school's programme.

Rather more - 97% - said in response to a closed question that their staff would need training to support the new curricula for maths, science and technology. While some principals commented here that staff had had training, or were currently receiving some training, 15% emphasized the need for a lot of training, for all staff to receive training, rather than just one teacher, and for training in depth.

Forty percent of the principals responding said that the new Curriculum Framework would enhance particular curriculum emphases which had been initiated at their school since 1989, 31% that they might have to alter some of what had been initiated, and 2% that they might have to drop what they had initiated. These figures indicate that school curriculum development under school-based management has not involved a great deal of radical departure from current practice in most schools - and also, that the new framework is not a radical departure from this practice.

The main initiative that teachers reported to implement the Curriculum Framework was staff development: 80% said school staff were attending outside courses, and 60% mentioned some internal staff development. Eighty-seven percent said they needed training themselves to support the new curricula for maths, science and technology.

Sixty percent of the teachers responding said their school had either introduced a new programme (27%), or was developing one (33%). Fifty-nine percent noted that the school was developing its own resources. A parent evening about the Framework was noted by 18% of the teachers.

What Role do Trustees and Parents Now Play in School Curriculum?

In the first year of the reforms, 35% of the principals responding said that trustees took part in decisionmaking on curriculum; by 1993, that had risen significantly to 59%. Trustees reported in this survey that their involvement in curriculum decisions is not hands-on, but at the level of monitoring and approving (or sending back for further work), as recommended by NZSTA in recent training for trustees.

Table 63
Trustees' Perceptions of their Board's role in
School Curriculum and Assessment

Role	% (n = 292)
Regular updates of school activities at board meetings	83
Discuss school activities/programmes with regard to school development plan	60
Discuss student performance data with regard to school development plan	18
Join staff in working groups on specific curriculum areas	12
No role	10
Sub-committee works with school staff	8

To monitor successfully, trustees do need to have some understanding of what the curriculum is about. Curriculum figured prominently amongst the topics trustees would like included in their training. More knowledge of the curriculum was the major area mentioned by almost two-fifths of the 23% of trustees responding who would like more involvement in their school than they had. (Other main areas mentioned were more help in the classroom (13% of those who would like more involvement), or more input into the day to day running of the school (4%).

Parents who are not trustees have not become part of the school's decisionmaking process on curriculum. This was explored more fully in chapters 11 and 13.

Assessment

Assessment has definitely increased since the shift to school-based management. Seventy-four percent of the teachers said the amount they did had increased over the past year. Twenty percent of the teachers said their amount of assessment had stayed the same, and 5% had changed their class or level.

Forty-nine percent of the teachers responding said their increased assessment gave them a better picture of individual learners, and 14% had made changes to their curriculum as a result of their increased assessment. However 35% of the teachers said they now had less time to give individual children attention, and 25% had less time to cover the curriculum.

Fifty-four percent said they were now doing more assessment outside class hours. There was a steady increase in the proportion of teachers reporting that they did more work related to assessment outside class hours. This was related to class size (from 43% for those teaching classes of fewer than 20, to 68% of those with classes between 35 and 39). There has been an increase in the mean hours teachers worked outside class hours of 1½ hours a week since 1991.

Thirty-nine percent of the teachers also said the amount of reporting to parents had increased over the past year. The main effect of this was to increase teachers' workloads (77% of those whose reporting to parents had increased). It had also brought half of these teachers closer to parents, was thought by 43% of the teachers to have increased parent confidence in their teaching, or to have enabled some children to make better progress. Increased reporting to parents had also increased the confidence of 21% of the teachers. Twelve percent of the teachers reported a decrease in their own confidence. As with

curriculum, parental interest in their child's progress had not increased markedly over the past year: 17% of the teachers overall noted more interest from parents in general; and 28% said only a few parents were more interested than the previous year.

What Kind of Assessment?

Although teachers are doing more assessment, there is little change in what they are doing: apart from more use of the profiles which were already spreading through the system at the time of the reforms, in draft form, and an increase in spelling tests (often parentally popular, a recognizable kind of assessment from their own memories of school).

Table 64
Assessment Procedures Reported by Teachers

	New Entrants % (n = 54)	Junior % (n = 107)	Standard % (n = 85)	Form 1 & 2 % (n = 49)
Running records	100	98	96	86
Work samples	96	96	94	92
Primary progress records	94	90	89 *+	67
Behaviour observations	83	77 *-	74	69
Curriculum checkpoints[22]	70	77	71 *+	55
Six year reading net	93	89	21 *+	10
School entry check	76	57	16	14
Profiles	56	57	62	37
Behavioural checklists	43	51	39	55
Individual education plans	41	42	34	39
Standardised tests	33	51	91	86
Spelling tests	26	49 *+	88	84
Self-assessment	24	26	59	76
General ability/IQ tests	4	5	6	16
Other	9	7	4	12

The material in this table shows a wide range of assessment tools used to build up a picture of children's learning needs. Teachers were clearly not relying on one tool or method alone to give them a clear picture.

Main sources of the assessment procedures were usually the school itself (49%), the teacher her- or himself (45%), and outside sources (40%). One difference from 1991 survey figures is that marginally fewer teachers of junior classes were reporting the use of assessment devised outside the school (42% in 1993 compared with 61% in 1991).

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[22] These include the BSM checkpoints used to gauge mastery of one cycle and readiness to move onto the next,

Assessment for particular groups of students

There has been growing interest in whether teachers use additional assessment tools to work with children from groups which have enjoyed less success than others in the New Zealand school system. Teachers were asked in an open-ended set of questions how they assessed the learning needs of these groups.

Table 65
Assessment Methods Used for Students with Particular Learning Needs

Method	Maori % (n = 101)	Students from Another Culture % (n = 147)	Gifted % (n = 251)	Special Needs % (n = 259)
Same as other children in class	71	36	32	
Observations	30	30	37	28
Standardized tests	19	8	30	
Information from parents/community	19	23	11	10
Reading recovery	19			
Take a different approach (eg. oral assessment)	16	4		
Individual conferencing		18	19	15
ESOL specialist		17		
Focus on language		12		
Child's personality/approach		5	6	7
SES staff/psychologist			9	34
Checklists			8	12
Previous teachers' observations			6	
Other teachers in school			6	17

Overall, it would seem that where teachers recognized a need for additional information on the learning needs of children from these groups, they would either do more assessment of a kind already familiar to them, or they would use resources created or available outside the classroom. This would suggest that if additional perspectives and information are needed for these groups, a co-ordinated approach to developing appropriate assessment methods, which did not put the full weight of development on individual teachers, is advisable.

Aggregation of Assessment Results

The increased accountability of individual schools in the current forms of accounting for public money puts emphasis on demonstrating results, and hence encourages the use of aggregated children's individual achievement data to provide such evidence. This use of achievement data is new for many schools and teachers (e.g. Wylie & Smith 1992), though it has long been suggested by researchers (e.g. Clay 1979, Croft 1984).

About half the teachers reported some aggregation of children's individual assessment results: 46% to obtain a profile of the whole class, or for some curriculum areas (maths and reading were the most mentioned). Fifteen percent did it to obtain a profile for some groups of children. A fifth of the teachers who brought together results at class level also did so for some curriculum areas, and 16% for some groups of children.

In contrast, only 17% of the principals reported no aggregation of individual student data occurring in their school. Sixty-two percent of the principals said individual students' assessment results were brought together to provide class profiles; 36% that they were used in the school development plan, and 24% that aggregated results were reported to the board of trustees. Just over half the principals reported only one use of aggregation of student results, 17% of principals reported 2, and 12% reported aggregation of student results for all 3 uses asked about.

Summary

The survey results certainly show scant sign of radical change in curriculum and assessment. Most of the change is due to previous or current developments or provision from the national level, raising some questions about what we can realistically expect schools to develop on their own. When trustees and principals reported school initiatives and projects during 1993, curriculum came well below the development of the school's physical plant.

But the survey findings also show that the new environment in which schools operate is having some effect, perhaps more subtly than directly. More attention has been paid to assessment and reporting to parents at the classroom level. Teachers report both positive and negative effects from these increases. Most of the negative effects stem from lack of time to tackle both assessment and the curriculum.

The integration of assessment results with school reporting and planning systems is yet to occur on a widespread basis.

16 - ARE WE MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE DISADVANTAGED?

One of the hopes of the reforms was to address inequity in school provision, and to improve the education opportunities for disadvantaged children. However, fears were expressed that shifting to school-based management might in fact further deepen the already existing gaps in provision, especially if schools were given the right to set their own enrolment policies (which happened in 1991). There are three lines of enquiry reported here: adequacy of resources; changes to school provision; and the unintended consequences of changes to funding formulae and enrolment policies.

School Resources

Earlier chapters, particularly the material reported in chapters 1, 2, and 8 showed that the reforms have not increased the resources available to schools serving disadvantaged groups - those in low income areas, and/or with a high proportion of Maori enrolment. Nor have they narrowed the differentials between these schools and others that predated the shift to school-based management.

A multivariate analysis of variance on principals' answers to the 1990, 1991 and 1993 surveys to questions on 8 key aspects of adequacy of resourcing showed that these 8 items were significantly related overall to the socioeconomic composition of the school's community (p < .001), and to the school's proportion of Maori enrolment (p < .001).[23]

The 8 key areas were: the adequacy of Ministry funding for the school, level of community support for the school, difficulty in getting parental help, the proportion of parents not paying the school donation/fee, difficulty in finding suitable teachers, spending on staff development, and relationships between principal and board, and the progress of the board.

Half the principals responding reported a decline in the economic circumstances of their school's children since 1991, and 9% a substantial decline. Three percent each noted improvement, or substantial improvement, and 35% had seen no change. Most of the schools in middle-class areas fell into the latter categories. (see Figures 18 & 19 in Appendix D for associations with socio-economic status of the school community, and proportion of Maori enrolment). Figure 20 in Appendix D shows the link between school community socio-economic status and teachers' reports of childrens' health needs, or hunger.

The main effects principals noted on children's learning were poor health, poor concentration, behaviour problems (a 1993 source of dissatisfaction for teachers not mentioned in 1991 responses), unsettled home life, and less money available for learning activities or excursions. Main effects on the school were to increase the demands on staff and reduce money coming through fees or fundraising. Schools were using their own funds

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[23] The technical details: The SAS analysis uses 4 tests (Wilks' Lambda, Pillai's Trace, Hotelling-Lawley Trace, and Roy's Greatest Root. All 4 tests showed significant relationships of the variables with socio-economic status and proportion of Maori enrolment. The Wilks' Lambda results are reported below.

Socioeconomic status of school community:
1990 $F_{(24, 520)}$ = 2.2686 p = .0006
1991 $F_{(24, 465)}$ = 2.7506 p = .0001
1993 $F_{(24, 491)}$ = 3.5702 p = .0001

Proportion of Maori enrolment:
1990 $F_{(24, 520)}$ = 3.0079 p = .0001
1991 $F_{(24, 465)}$ = 3.7273 p = .0001
1993 $F_{(24, 491)}$ = 3.1454 p = .0001

to pay for student activities that parents formerly paid for. A few thought there had been a fall in standards of achievement.

Schools whose principals described them as having significant proportions of Maori or Pacific Island students were also more likely to have had a change in socio-economic composition. This applied to 33% of high Maori enrolment schools compared to 15% average for other schools.

In broad terms, this means that white middle-class schools have experienced little change to their school social composition and resources since the switch to school self-management, while schools with moderate or high Maori enrolment, often in low-income areas, had greater changes to wrestle with, and changes that promise a long-term deterioration in the parental resources available to the school.

Changes to School Provision

The results reported in chapter 14 show that while the emphasis on equity through encouraging schools to make changes to their provision for hitherto disadvantaged groups had some effect in the initial stages of the reforms, its effect has now waned.

Moreover, teacher and principal answers to the impact of the reforms on the quality of children's learning, and on the changes made to classroom teaching as a result of the reform, show little variation in relation to the school community's socio-economic status, or the degree of Maori enrolment in the school. If more attention was being paid to students from disadvantaged groups, one would expect teachers in schools where disadvantaged children predominate to be reporting significantly more positive impacts than they are. But school characteristics made no significant differences to these patterns.

On the other hand, this might well mean that the resource gaps showing up for schools with high Maori enrolment and in low-income areas have not so far in fact had negative effects on the interaction between teachers and students.

Changes to School Rolls: Demographics and 'Choice'

Before the shift to school-based management, access to primary schools was on the basis of serving the local community first, and then, if spare places were available, availability was on an open basis to parents who wanted to choose the school, often on a first in, first served basis. The reforms have altered this picture slightly by leaving enrolment policies and enrolment limitations up to boards. More public emphasis has been placed on parents' entitlement to choose their child's school, with much debate about the fact that final decisions are actually made by schools, not parents.

Where there are in fact several schools within parental reach, this policy change has begun to have some effect at the secondary level on school ethnic and socio-economic composition, on school rolls - and therefore resourcing (Fowler 1993, Lauder et al 1994). What effect has this emphasis on choice (both parental and school) had at the primary level?

While the overall pattern of school size reported in the 1993 survey was much the same as in 1989 - using what may be rather coarse categories - this disguises movements within individual school rolls. Only 27% of the principals said their school's roll was much the same as it had been in 1989. Fifteen percent reported it was much higher, 25% that it was slightly higher, and conversely, 21% said their roll was slightly reduced, and 9% that their roll was much lower.

The main reason given for changes in school rolls was in fact a general population

change in the area (59% of principals responding); 19% mentioned changes in student preferences. Other reasons included a change in what the school offered (6 schools retaining form 1 and 2 students, 4 offering bilingual classes or becoming a Kura Kaupapa Maori). Eight principals mentioned an increasing number of students from a wider catchment than the local area, two principals mentioned 'white flight' specifically, and one principal noted that the school was getting other school's problem students. Three principals put the changes down to the school's own promotion of itself.

The pattern of student loss since 1989 was associated with the socio-economic character of the community served by the school. The proportion of principals in low income areas reporting a loss in student numbers was double that of principals in middle-class areas (49% compared to 22%).

More intermediate principals also reported a much reduced roll (33% compared to 7% of primary schools), and were more likely to give the reason for the changes in their school roll as due to a change in student preferences (50% compared to 17% of primary schools). None of the intermediate schools in the survey had put an enrolment scheme in place since 1989, compared to 14% of primary schools (the difference was not, however, statistically significant).

Schools serving a wide socio-economic range were the most likely to have put in place such a scheme (28%), compared to 11% of middle class schools, 8% of schools in low-middle income areas, and 4% of those in low-income areas. Schools with enrolment schemes were also more likely, but not always, to have a much bigger roll than in 1989 (32% compared to 12% of others).

Thirty-seven percent of the principals said that the actions of other schools in their area had led to changes in their own rolls, with a further 11% unsure. Principals from schools suffering major roll losses were more likely to say they had been affected by other schools' actions (71%). Not surprisingly, intermediate principals were more likely to report negative effects of the reforms on their relations with other local schools (17% major, compared to 2% for primary schools, and 58% minor compared to 22% of contributing, and 12% of full, primary schools). These figures also tell us that it is those on the receiving end who view the effects negatively: those who have gained do not!

What is also striking about the answers to the questions about the impact of other schools' actions, in the competition for student numbers (funding), is that there is very little difference otherwise between schools that gained students, and those who lost in terms of the central work of schools, curriculum and assessment. It is only the student profile - and funding base - which shows significant change. There is little sign in these survey results that competition between schools does provide the incentives for school improvement which its proponents believed would occur.

Changes in Ethnic Composition

A quarter of the principals responding said there had been some change in the ethnic composition of the school roll since 1989. The main change reported was an increase in Maori students (10%), in line with the projected increase in the Maori population, with 3% noting a decline in Pakeha/European. However, 4% also noted a decline in Maori or Pacific Island students. Other changes reported were an increase in Pacific Island or Asian or Pakeha/European students (2% each).

Principals of high Maori enrolment schools were most likely to note a change in the school's ethnic composition (43% compared to 21% of those with very low Maori enrolment, 13% of those with low Maori enrolment, and 19% of those with moderate Maori enrolment). However, unlike the association between roll change and school socio-

economic status, there were no significant associations between schools with different proportions of Maori enrolment and their roll changes.

Those principals whose school had had a change in ethnic composition were more likely to also say they had had a change in the school's socio-economic composition (31% compared to 11% of principals in schools where no ethnic change occurred).

Sixteen percent of the principals responding thought that the actions of other local schools had led to changes in their own school's ethnic composition, with another 5% unsure. This was particularly marked for high Maori enrolment schools (31% of their principals said the actions of other schools had altered their own ethnic composition, compared to 19% of moderate, 9% of low, and 5% of very low Maori enrolment).

Seventeen percent of the intermediate principals (one of the school types most likely to lose students) noted that their student roll was mainly Maori and Pacific Island, compared to 2% of the primary schools.

Changes in Socio-economic Composition

Again, there has been little change in the overall pattern of schools' socioeconomic profiles reported by principals since 1990 (when the question was first asked in these surveys). Thirty-five percent described the community serviced by their school as mainly middle-class, 26% as mainly low socio-economic, 25% as wide ranging, 15% as low-middle class, and 6% as other (See Table 75, Appendix A for links between socio-economic status and other school characteristics).

Twenty percent of the principals said the socio-economic composition of their school had changed since 1989. The main reason they gave was an increase in unemployment in the area (15%), with 1% ascribing the change to children coming to the school from out of the local area.

Thirteen percent of the principals thought that other local schools' actions had had an effect on the socio-economic composition of their own school, with a further 6% unsure. Most of these principals were located in cities or small towns.

How Soon is Choice Made?

Case studies of the impact of school self-promotion (Ainsworth et al 1994, Lauder et al 1994) showed discouraging results for those who would like to believe marketing can turn around falling rolls. This is largely because of the more vital roles played in family school choice by proximity and local demographic factors - as well as, but not only, the valuation of school quality and appropriateness to the child. Other research has shown the importance of 'being local' to parental choice (e.g. Hughes et al 1990).

In this survey, parents were asked whether they had chosen their child's next school (likely to be either an intermediate or secondary school). Seventy-one percent of the parents said the school they would like their child would attend next was already decided. Eighteen percent had not decided on the next school, and 10% were unsure. The decision had already been made by 63% of new entrant parents, and 88% of those with children in form 1 or 2.

In other words, family decisions regarding schools have been made up to 4-6 years before the child is to move on. This means that school marketing may not have immediate effects (in time to stop roll declines), and may be targeted too late.

Sixty-three percent of those who had made a decision on their child's next school saw no obstacle to their child being able to attend the school they would like. A quarter of those who had made a choice mentioned money as an obstacle, 15% transport, and

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14% the school's enrolment scheme. The group most likely to mention money as an obstacle to their child attending the school of their choice were those parents who were in unskilled or manual work (36%).

Summary

So far, while the reforms have provided some benefits in terms of increased attention in some schools to policies and provision for disadvantaged students, the resource base needed for these schools to deliver on these policies is doubtful. Moreover, the 'winning' schools from the shift to school-based management and the opening up of school home zones are not these schools, and their students: but on the contrary, those who were already well served by the education system before the reforms.

This gap between reform intention and reality is the most striking of the effects found in these surveys, and unless it can be addressed, will undermine what has been achieved in the shift to school-based management.

17 - IMPACT ON STUDENTS' LEARNING

Since no systematic nationwide picture of children's learning was available before the shift to school-based management, no clear 'before and after' comparison can ever be made to assess whether or not the reforms improved overall standards of educational achievement in New Zealand.

Up until the 1993 survey the reforms did not seem to teachers to have made much impression on classrooms and children's learning. Positive and negative impacts were small, with a leaning to positive impacts for teaching content, teaching style, and relations with parents, and a pronounced leaning to negative impacts for job satisfaction for teachers. Principals saw significantly more positive impacts than negative for teaching content, teaching style, relations between teachers and parents, their relations with other schools - and the quality of children's learning.

Trustees' Views

Fifty-three percent of the trustees responding to the 1993 survey thought there had been some improvement in the teaching and learning at their child's school over the past year, a substantial increase over the 33% who thought so in the 1990 survey. A further 25% were unsure. Only 89 trustees made comments here, reporting contributing factors as curriculum change (often from the introduction of the NZ Curriculum Framework), a change in staff, addition of staff, the already high quality of provision, staff development, staff stability or improved morale, good relations between board and school staff, or improved assessment.

Positive Outcomes, and their Price

The next table shows some significant changes since the 1990 survey. It also shows that overall, positive changes seen by teachers to be attributable to the reforms now outweigh negative impacts in most areas, with some important exceptions: job satisfaction, the quality of teachers' life outside their work, and their relations with their principal.

Teachers in the smallest schools were more likely to feel they could not tell whether the education administration changes had had any impact on their relations with parents (45%, compared with 19% of teachers at the largest schools), though they were also more likely to describe major positive effects than others (27% falling to 4% for those in the largest schools).

More intermediate teachers reported a major negative impact on their relationship with their principal (15% compared to 5% for primary teachers) and a minor negative impact on their relations with other teachers (26% compared to 11% of primary teachers).

Table 66
Teachers' Views on the Impact of the Tomorrow's Schools Changes

Area (n = 336)	Impact Major + ve %	Minor + ve %	No impact %	Hard to tell %	Minor -ve %	Major -ve %
Teaching content	13 *+	37 *+	16	21 *+	8	3
Quality of children's learning	11 *+	30 *+	28 *-	19	6	1
Relations with principal	8	14	34 *-	14	14	6
Teaching style	7 *+	38	25	18	7	1
Relations with parents	7	25	33	24 *+	7	2
Relations with fellow teachers	7	20	35 *-	20	12 *+	2
Job satisfaction	7	18	10	11	31	17 *+
Relations with support staff ⁿ	6	19	43	21	5	1
Relations with other local teachers ⁿ	4	16	43	25	5	1
Quality of your life outside school ⁿ	2	4	11	11	35	32

Some exploration was done through cross-tabulation and testing for significance at the .05 level to see whether there were any associations between judgements on changes to the quality of children's learning in their class with other changes reported by teachers. What emerges through this preliminary analysis is that those who report major changes in the quality of children's learning in their class were also significantly more likely to report major positive changes in what they teach, their teaching style, their relations with teaching colleagues, their job satisfaction, and to a lesser extent, in their relations with their principal and with parents.

Those who report minor positive changes in both their practice and relationships were significantly more likely to report minor positive change in the overall quality of their children's learning than those who noted no changes in the set of activities and relationships listed above.

The pattern of those who reported major or minor negative changes in this set was different again. As one might expect, they were more likely than others to report major or minor declines in the quality of children's learning - but negative changes in the set above were also statistically associated with minor positive gains for the overall quality of children's learning.

This exploration therefore raises a number of questions which need more in-depth study. The first is whether the reforms are most likely to be judged positively by teachers when they have also made **major** changes in their own practice, changes which meet with their own approval, changes which they have initiated. Cross-tabulation of the kinds of curriculum changes teachers reported showed no links between particular curriculum changes and their perception of changes to the quality of children's learning in their class: increasing the use of computers was just as likely as increasing Maori language or basic skills to be associated with judgements that the quality of children's learning was improved.

The second is whether some activities and relationships are in fact more important for improving learning than others. Is it simply teachers' concentration on the classroom domain that makes what happens there much clearer than in, say, their relationships with

parents? The latter have not changed significantly since 1989, though doubtless the reforms' emphasis on parental satisfaction has played an indirect role in decisions on curriculum emphasis (such as the prominent place of computers).

Principals' Views

Principals are more positive than teachers about the impact of the reforms on the quality of children's learning, and on their relations with their teaching staff. And overall, their perceptions of positive impacts outweighed perceptions of negative impacts for all areas but teachers' relations with other teachers.

Table 67
Principals' Views on the Impact of the Tomorrow's
Schools Changes on Their Schools

Area (n = 191)	Impact Major + ve %	Minor + ve %	No impact %	Hard to tell %	Minor -ve %	Major -ve %
Quality of children's learning	23	23 *+	26 *-	19	6	3
Relations between teachers and parents	15 *+	34	20	10 *-	14	7 *+
Relations with other local schools	12	30	23 *-	11	19	3
						↑ 1990
						↓ 1991
Relations between principal and teachers	12	25 *+	28 *-	16	16	2
Relations between teachers	9	26	30 *-	16	15 *+	2
Teaching content	8	40 *+	27 *-	18	6	1
Teaching style	7	36 *+	32 *-	17	5	2

NOTE: Significant change since 1990 is noted for teaching content, style, and for relations between teachers, and teachers relations with parents. Significant change since 1991 is noted for quality of children learning, relations between principal and teachers, and relations with other local schools.

  To fit the table design, those who ticked 'yes-generally' in the question on the quality of children's learning have been put in the 'major positive' column, those answering 'yes- some' have been put into the 'minor positive' column; those ticking 'no-generally' in the 'major negative' column, and those 'no-some' in the 'minor negative' column.

The only principals to say there had been general negative impacts on the learning of students at their school were located in cities: 28% of urban principals reported negative impacts for some students, compared to only 11% of rural principals. Fewer teaching principals noted minor positive gains in the relations between teachers (20% compared to 35% of non-teaching principals).

There were no associations between school characteristics and principals' answers on changes to the overall quality of children's learning, to the delivery of teaching, or to relations within the school. This is a particularly important finding when one considers that one of the aims of school self-management was to encourage schools to meet local needs, and to meet the needs of disadvantaged groups on the assumption that these might be rather different from what schools were already offering. On this premise, one would have expected schools with high proportions of Maori enrolment, and those in low-income areas, to have made more changes than others. They have not.

Competition between schools does not seem to have spurred change in teaching content or style either. Only 20% of rural principals said their teachers had made no changes to what they taught, compared to 40% of city principals - who are faced with a more competitive environment than rural schools. Similarly, only 21% of rural principals said teachers had made no changes to their teaching style compared to 44% of city principals. Small town principals were most likely however to report some change to teaching content (only 4% did not), but 35% said the school had not changed its teaching methods.

In comparison to their city colleagues, rural principals were more likely also to report that the reforms had had a negative impact on relations between teachers and parents (13% major, compared with 3% of city principals, and 19% minor, compared to 10% of city principals).

There was only one statistical association between principal judgements of changes to the quality of students' learning, and changes to school policies as a result of the reforms: 50% of those principals at schools where major changes had been made to the presentation of their school or class programmes to parents thought that children's learning had generally improved in the school, compared to 23% of those who had made minor changes, and 16% of those who had made no changes in this respect.

Those who had had no roll changes or changes in ethnic composition due to other schools' actions tended to be more likely to report no changes in the quality of their student's learning, but there were no clear associations otherwise between roll changes and students learning, whether positive or negative.

What about links between the quality of students' learning and the effect of any changes in teaching content or style, or in relationships, ascribed to the reforms? As with teachers, between 30 - 50% of those principals who reported a major positive impact on teaching practice or relationships were also likely to report a general improvement in the quality of their students' learning. Unlike the teachers, however, these differences do not emerge as statistically significant through cross-tabulation, with the exception of those reporting no change in relations between teachers, and in the relationship between principal and teachers. This may be because of the small numbers in some of the cells (particularly those reporting negative change).

Parental Views

Forty percent of the parents said they had noticed some change in their child's school which they thought due to the move to school-based management. Another 21% each

thought no change had occurred, or were uncertain. Sixteen percent of the parents had not had a child at the school before the changes.

Table 68
Parents' Views of Changes at their School

Area (n = 634)	View	Positive %	Neutral %	Negative %
Better provision for some learners		18	4	4
More information from school on classroom programme/curriculum		16	6	2
More information from school on child's progress		15	5	2
More call on parents for time		14	11	8
Changes to child's learning progress		11	5	5
School staff are busier		9	7	14
Changes to classroom programme/curriculum		8	7	2
More call on parents for money		5	8	23
Emphasis on administration rather than teaching		3	7	15

Summary

The positive gains for children's learning from the shift to school-based management have taken some time to become apparent to teachers, principals and trustees. From the teachers' material, these gains seem to result from making changes in the classroom, rather than simply through the relationships between teachers and parents. From the principals' material, it would seem to be linked to changes in information given to parents, and again, not to any changes in the relationships at school level as a result of the reforms. It is interesting however that more parents perceive changes to the information they now get on class programmes and children's progress than they do changes to curriculum itself.

Competition between schools does not seem to be a spur to curriculum or teaching change.

The cost of those changes appears to be high for teachers. Principals' estimate of improvements in relations between parents and teachers, and in relations between teachers and themselves is somewhat more rosier than that of teachers themselves.

18 - ACHIEVEMENTS & ISSUES

Earlier NZCER surveys found that the people in schools responsible for making the reforms work were generally pleased with their involvement, and felt they had been able to accomplish things. The issues they identified were mostly concerned with the level of external resourcing (finance, staffing, property - much as the parents surveyed in the 1987 Heylen poll), and the timing of central initiatives which involved work for them: matters which are not within their control.

How Well Are Boards Doing?

Trustees' Views of their Board's Main Achievements

Being able to maintain the existing quality of the school (48%) was the main achievement noted by trustees, when asked to note their board's 3 main achievements over the year.

Twenty percent each mentioned good relations between the board and school staff, or the development of policies or plans for the future. Nineteen percent thought it a major achievement for their board to have kept within its budget, and 17% to have in place a good financial system.

In the next group of achievements (mentioned by 7% to 12% of the trustees responding to the survey) came staff appointments made, the development of a good board of trustees, good community support, the curriculum offered at the school, improved staff numbers or school roll, fundraising or winning grants, and improving the quality of the school. Four or five percent mentioned the avoidance or defusing of conflict, provision for Maori students, provision of computers, or staff development.

School Initiatives

Both principals and trustees were asked in an open-ended question whether there was any project or initiative which was particularly important for their school in 1993. The dominant area here was a development, remodelling, or addition to the school's physical plant or grounds, for example, the addition of a classroom, an adventure playground, or modernizing aging halls (principals 37%, trustees 40%).

The curriculum areas which were priorities for the new Curriculum Framework (maths, science and technology) were mentioned by 15% of the principals, some of whom had had Ministry of Education curriculum development contracts, and another curriculum area by 9%. Provision for Maori students was mentioned by 5% of the principals and 4% of the trustees responding to the survey. Trustees mentioned the acquisition of computers, successful fundraising or grant applications (6% each), and staff appointments (4%). Principals mentioned school camps (7%), assessment or reporting to parents (2%), or a an initiative to improve equity in the school's provision of learning opportunities (1%).

While 28% of the principals said the active support or funding for this initiative came only from the school and its parents, 26% mentioned business firms, 15% voluntary organizations, 13% service organizations, 7% other local schools, and 5% the Ministry of Education. Two percent also mentioned ex-pupils, or members of students' families other than their parents.

A Fluid Confidence?

The picture which emerges in comparing the views of different groups involved in schools, at school level, on how well their board is doing shows confidence amongst many, but also a sizeable proportion of boards judged to be either coping or struggling: 27% of trustees, and 41% of principals.

Table 69
Views of How Board is Doing 1993

View	Parent % (n = 634)	Trustee % (n = 292)	Teacher % (n = 336)	Principal % (n = 191)
On top of task	14	27	29	21
Making steady progress	32	45	41	36
Coping	18	23	18	31
Struggling	3	4	4	10
Do not know	33	1	7	0

This picture of board performance has remained pretty much the same since 1990. However, analysis of individual schools through the 1990, 1991 and 1993 surveys shows that movement between categories is common. Of the 23 schools in the inter-year sample whose 1990 trustees described them as 'on top of things', 8 were described in 1991 or 1993 as only coping or struggling. The pattern for principals was almost identical, with 9 of these schools moving to a coping or struggling category. On the other hand, 41 of the 68 schools described by their trustees as making good progress in 1990 were described as on top of things in 1993. Twenty-two had moved into the coping/struggling sphere. Of the 36 schools who were described this way in 1990, however, 25 had moved upward in confidence by 1993. Principal patterns were very similar.

While the 1992 elections spring to mind as one possible factor for this mobility, there was almost as much movement in judgement of board performance between 1990 and 1991 as between 1991 and 1993. This fluidity in confidence then serves as a fair indication of how changeable school life can be.

But there were also associations with financial resources. Trustees' views of how their board was doing were related to their perception of the adequacy of their Ministry of Education funding: 61% of those who thought their board was on top of its task also thought their funding was adequate, compared to 30% of those who did not find their funding adequate; and 55% of those who described their board as coping thought their funding inadequate, compared to 36% of those who found the funding adequate. This relationship did not, however, show up amongst those who described their board as struggling - indicating either that the numbers were too small for any pattern to show clearly, or that though the level of outside funding plays a significant part in trustees' perception of their own effectiveness, it is not the only factor involved.

Trustees from schools in low income or low-middle income areas were more likely to describe their board as coping or struggling (31% compared to 18% of those in middle- or wide-range schools). Seven of the 9 trustees who described their board as struggling came from schools in low income or low-middle income areas.

Issues which People in Schools see facing their boards

There was much commonality across all four groups surveyed when it came to identifying 3 major issues facing their school board, though principals and teachers paid slightly more attention to internal aspects of board work than did others.

Forty percent of the *principals* thought that the board's structure, composition, or need for training was a major issue. Thirty-four percent mentioned funding or budget, and 26% property and maintenance. Updating, reviewing and creating school policies came fourth on the principals' list of major issues (18%). Board workload, or trustees' lack of time to carry out their responsibilities (14%) came next on the principals' identification of issues confronting boards.

Other concerns were: class sizes (8%), the board's role as an employer (7%), maintaining or improving students numbers (7%), changing Government policies (7%), the future of the school (6%), curriculum development (5%), staff appointments (5%), provision for Maori students (4%), provision for other specified groups of students (mainly special needs) (3%), bulk funding of teacher salaries (3%), improving the board's communication with staff and parents (2%), marketing the school (2%), and addressing equity issues (2%).

Funding (35%), and property and maintenance (23%) stand out amongst *teachers'* answers to this question. The next group contains the composition of the board and its training (13%), and staffing numbers or relations with the principal and/or staff (12%). Mentioned by 5 - 8% of teachers overall were: parental/community support, the board's workload or lack of time for board work, policy development, maintaining or improving student numbers, updating policies or making strategic decisions as to their priority, curriculum development, and staff appointments. Between 1 - 4% mentioned salary bulk funding, budgeting for 1994, providing for Maori students, an upcoming ERO review, the future of the school, providing for a specified group of students other than Maori, school transport, discipline, staff redundancy, equity issues and the need for trustees to have realistic expectations of school staff.

The emphasis on funding and property maintenance was also notable amongst the *trustees'* answers to this question (33%, and 22%). Staffing numbers (17%) and maintaining or improving student numbers form the next group. Between 5 - 9% mentioned board relations with the principal or staff, board composition or need for training, salary bulk funding, curriculum development, updating policy or making strategic decisions on their priority order, staff appointments, or the future of the school, Between 2 to 4% mentioned parental/community support, providing for Maori students or a specific group of students other than Maori, changing Government policies, policy development, or staff development.

Funding was also at the top of *parents'* list of the issues facing their school's board: 33% of all parents responding. Next came property maintenance (14%) and class sizes or staff workloads (13%). Six percent were concerned with maintaining or improving student numbers at their school.

Between 1 - 4% of parents mentioned a wide range of other issues: staff appointments, parental or community support, provision for Maori students or another specified group, the standard of education at their child's school, children's behaviour at the school, changes to policy affecting schools such as salary bulk funding or the outcome of the school property taskforce, the future of the school, board workload, relations between trustees or between trustees and staff, and the need to develop school policies.

Where Now?

Principals

More principals expressed positive views about the effects of the education administration changes on their school than did others. Sixteen percent simply said it had been good for the school, without specifying, 5% were positive about their ability to make decisions on their own, 3% about increased parental participation, and 2% on the ability to make staff appointments.

The increase in workload and consequent strain on people in the school was the main impact concerning principals (39%). There were also concerns about: funding (7%), government department requirements (7%), the lack of any noticeable benefits for children's learning (6%), expectations put on trustees (6%), and the pace and amount of the change (6%).

Concerns also outweighed benefits as far as the general impact of the changes on New Zealand education as a whole. Fifty-four percent of the principals responding expressed some concern, compared to the 9% who saw some benefit to the system as a whole.

The main concerns expressed by principals were that the administrative workload and central agency requirements made it difficult to be innovative or address children's learning needs (15%), that they had simply created more work for each school (11%), that the operating environment for schools was less stable, through central policy or school roll changes, funding levels or formulae were inadequate, principals' workloads were too high (6% each), that inequity in education provision was growing, the system was deteriorating, education was under political attack, or staff morale was low (5% each).

Teachers

Teachers were more likely than trustees or parents to make a positive comment about the effects of the reforms on their school (15%). They also had a wide range of concerns, with staff workload and stress the most pronounced (21%). Others were paperwork (8%), concern over funding and the need for stability rather than more change (6% each), the emphasis on administration at the cost of education, and morale or poor leadership at the school (5% each), concern over falling rolls or staffing levels, and their board's penchant for a critical rather than supportive stance (4% each), concern at the workload expected of trustees, at the time taken in assessment, or a criticism of government departments or politicians (3% each), and a concern about children missing out, or the quality of the school's property (2% each).

Workload was also prominent in teachers' comments about the effects of the changes on New Zealand education as a whole (12%). Close behind were concerns about growing inequality (10%), and inadequate funding (8%). Seven percent took a positive view of the changes and their overall impact. Concern with the pace of change or the lay domination of education was voiced by 7% each. Six percent thought that the standard of education was deteriorating. Other concerns were voiced about staffing levels, the time taken by assessment or the loss of career paths for teachers (4% each), increasing school competition or parochialism (3%), and about the fear that money was deciding children's access to education rather than their needs, or a criticism of politicians or policymakers (2% each).

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Trustees

Eleven percent of the trustees responding made positive comments about the changes to their school as a result of the reforms.

Workload also dominated the main concerns expressed by trustees in the final request for any other comments they might wish to make on the impact of the education administration changes on their school. Too much was expected of trustees (14%), there was too much paperwork (9%), and 8% were concerned at their principal's workload. There was also concern about funding (9%). Between 4% and 1% mentioned a need for stability rather than further change or a desire for more autonomy for boards, expressed concerns with staffing levels, property and maintenance, or school transport, or made a criticism of one of the central Government education departments.

Funding (11%) and a concern for equity (10%) were the two topics at the head of trustees' comments on the impact of the changes on New Zealand education as a whole. In the next grouping came positive views of the changes, but also concerns that the workload for schools was too great (7% each). Mentioned by 1-4% were concerns about the quality of education deteriorating, educational provision in rural areas, the adequacy of staffing levels, the domination of administrative responsibilities rather than teaching at school level, lay domination of teaching staff, the cost to parents of tertiary education, the need to maintain national guidelines, and property maintenance. Three percent made a positive comment on the NZ Curriculum Framework, while 1% made negative comments on its implementation.

Parents

Lack of money and the domination of administration at the expense of teaching (10% each) headed the comments made to the open question *Is there anything else you would like to say about the changes to education administration and their effects on your child's school.*

Also prominent were concerns about class size, and too much being left to trustees or parents (7% each). Positive comments came from 5% of the parents. Five percent also felt that some children were missing out, 3% expressed a concern with the curriculum, and 2% with the standard of children's behaviour at school. Four percent said they did not know what the changes entailed.

When it came to the system wide effects of the changes, funding was again most prominent (13%) - but with a concern about the growth of inequality not far behind (10%). Class size and the domination of administration over learning (7% each) were also marked features of the comments here.

Five percent of the parents responding thought that overall quality was deteriorating, 4% were concerned that parents were paying more for their child's schooling, or about the curriculum, 2% about a group of children whose learning needs were not being met. Four percent had general concerns about the whole reforms, and 3% made some criticism of the politicians responsible. Three percent found something positive to say about the changes.

Summary

While many principals, trustees and teachers show confidence in school self-management, concerns about the resourcing of the reforms continue to outweigh the benefits identified. Initiatives taken show more emphasis on the physical plant of the school - the conditions under which learning takes place - than the curriculum itself.

19 - COUNTERING FEARS, REVISING HOPES

Hopes

In the fifth year after *Tomorrow's Schools* shifted much responsibility to individual schools, these survey results show that 3 of the 9 hopes outlined in the introduction to this report have been realised, 3 others have been partially realised, and the remaining 3 seem unlikely to be achieved unless changes are made to the present system.

Realised Hopes

1. There has been more immediate delivery of resources to schools, and principals and trustees have enjoyed making decisions to suit local needs.

2. Teachers do show 'greater responsibility', if that means a greater awareness of the environment in which they operate, and efforts to improve their teaching practice through increasing staff development and making changes in their classrooms.

3. Trustees have become important supporters of education. Public interest in education has increased; (so too has the interest of business lobby groups).

Partially Realised Hopes

1. Some parents have entered school life as trustees; parental involvement in schools is otherwise unchanged.

2. By 1993, school staff and trustees were seeing positive results from the reforms as far as children's learning was concerned. Since 1989 more schools have policies and programmes to meet the needs of some disadvantaged groups.
    On the other hand, schools serving such groups had more resource problems than others, and showed no more positive results than other schools.

3. School charters seem to have been instrumental in raising the awareness of people in schools about the need to address the learning needs of students from disadvantaged groups: but by 1993 the impetus they provided had faded.

Unrealised Hopes

1. Maori educational initiatives are still struggling to find the resource-base they need to reach the same level of education offered by mainstream schools.

2. There is little sign of innovation in curriculum and teaching methods that is school-initiated.

3. Devolution does not save money. (Indeed, the Coopers Lybrand analysis for the British government suggests it is likely to cost slightly more).

Fears

Of the 8 fears expressed when the reforms were announced, 5 are being realised, 2 are still likely, but avoidable, and 2 have not been realised.

Realised Fears

1.   Resource disparities between schools have increased, even with the safeguards of nationally set staffing schedules and central responsibility for most teaching salaries.

2.   The schools least well resourced are those serving disadvantaged groups. The charter components and equity funding pools are not enough to seriously address the inequalities in New Zealand educational provision.

3.   Increased competition between schools is apparent even at the primary level. It results more in increased marketing efforts than in changes to curriculum or teaching method.

4.   Parents are making more financial contributions to their child's school. The level of government funding is also becoming increasingly inadequate for many schools.

5.   High workloads are inescapable if school-based management is to work.

Remaining Fears

1.   There is a much stronger emphasis on assessment and accountability, which demands national forms of reporting to enable comparisons to be made. It is not clear how much latitude will be allowed in schools.

2.   The resource differences between schools, and any further move toward a pure model of school self-management would suggest a dissolution of the national system of education into a patchwork of variable provision.
    But so far few trustees and principals have shown interest in following a pure model.

Unrealised Fears

1.   While schools are more reliant on their own human resources, there are no signs of widespread parochialism and insularity. This may be because outside support services have been available, and not solely dependent on school budgets.

2.   Narrow interest groups have not been successful in moving into existing schools except in a few instances.

3.   The partnership between professionals and lay volunteers has been maintained, and has seldom turned to antagonism.

4.   Professionals and trustees at most schools have successfully managed the shift to school-based management. Problems do arise, but most are able to be dealt with, often with the support or advice of people outside the school.

The Value of a Balanced System of School Management

Overall, the successes of the New Zealand system of school-based management show the value of a balanced approach to devolution. It is probably this approach which enabled such a large change, involving so many people at all levels learning new roles, to occur relatively smoothly. A balanced approach to school self-management does not switch the largest responsibilities (staffing, curriculum and property) to schools. It leaves schools with some external support-systems, and develops others (e.g. NZSTA). It stresses partnership and co-operative relationships at school level. The New Zealand system has also shown some initial central latitude on deadlines to be met by schools.

But the cost has been high in terms of additional workloads, and in terms of teacher morale. It is not clear whether New Zealand education can continue to rely on people carrying such loads without some relief. It is clear that school communities have probably reached the limit of what they can provide in money and time.

There are two hopes which school-based management should not be asked to realise.

First, it cannot, of and by itself, improve the educational provision for students from disadvantaged groups. Government leadership and improved resourcing overall is necessary if schools are to make any more headway on the most critical challenge facing New Zealand education.

Second, curriculum development also hinges on government leadership and adequate resourcing; it cannot be left to schools alone.

APPENDIX A

Characteristics of Sample Responses

Table 70
Principals

	Sample Schools %	1989 %	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %	1993 Ministry School Statistics %
Type						
Full	53	46	52	46	50	54
Contributing	40	46	43	45	44	40
Intermediate	7	8	6	7	8	6
Size						
1-34	17	15	16	15	15	17
35-99	26	24	25	25	22	24
100-200	20	21	20	19	20	22
200-300	16	20	17	19	19	18
300+	22	20	22	20	23	19
Location						
Urban	39	41	42	41	42	45
Rural	44	41	39	39	42	40
Minor Urban	13	12	14	12	12	10
Secondary Urban	5	6	5	6	4	6
% Maori						
<8%	42	45	52	50	33	32
8-14%	19	19	12	13	14	17
15-29%	15	17	16	16	23	23
30%+	22	19	20	20	29	28
Authority						
State	91	92	91	89	92	91
Integrated	9	8	9	9	8	9
Returns						
N		174/239	207	186	191	
%		75	87	78	79	

Table 71
Teachers

	Sample Schools %	1989 %	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %	1993 Ministry School Statistics %
Type						
Full	53	44	45	39	48	54
Contributing	40	47	44	52	42	40
Intermediate	7	9	11	10	10	6
Size						
1-34	17	4	4	7	3	17
35-99	26	17	19	17	20	24
100-200	20	28	26	19	27	22
200-300	16	23	23	26	25	18
300+	22	28	28	30	24	19
Location						
Urban	39	54	51	55	53	45
Rural	44	24	26	24	26	40
Minor Urban	13	16	16	14	17	10
Secondary Urban	5	6	7	7	5	6
% Maori						
<8%	42	39	45	50	32	32
8-14%	19	23	15	16	16	17
15-29%	15	18	18	16	30	23
30%+	22	20	22	17	22	28
Authority						
State	91	90	92	90	89	91
Integrated	9	10	8	8	11	7
Returns						
N		414/546	373	396	336	
%		75	68	73	62	

Table 72
Trustees

	Sample Schools %	1989 %	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %	1993 Ministry School Statistics %
Type						
Full	53	54	53	48	56	54
Contributing	40	41	39	39	37	40
Intermediate	7	5	8	8	7	6
Size						
1-34	17	16	18	12	15	17
35-99	26	26	24	25	27	24
100-200	20	23	21	16	23	22
200-300	16	16	16	22	16	18
‹300+	22	19	21	25	19	19
Location						
Urban	39	36	39	41	39	45
Rural	44	44	44	37	44	40
Minor Urban	13	14	13	14	13	10
Secondary Urban	5	7	5	5	5	6
% Maori						
<8%	42	45	53	51	37	32
8-14%	19	18	12	12	17	17
15-29%	15	15	18	15	24	23
30%+	22	22	17	17	22	28
Authority						
State	92	91	92	87	93	91
Integrated	8	9	8	8	7	9
Returns						
N		334/476	310	322	292	
%		70	65	68	61	

Table 73
Socio-economic Composition of School Community

	Principals		Trustees		Teachers		Parents	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Middle-class	63	33	85	29	91	27	189	30
Wide range	44	23	61	21	66	20	121	19
Low-middle	23	12	22	12	31	9	18	3
Low income	47	25	44	23	61	18	95	15
Missing	14	7	80	27	87	26	205	32
	191		292		336		634	

Table 74
Representativeness of Parental Response by School Characteristics

Characteristic	Survey Respondents			National Roll Figures		
	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %	1990 %	1991 %	1993 %
Location						
Urban	62	65	64	66	67	67
Secondary Urban	2	3	2	8	9	14
Minor Urban	18	17	8	13	11	11
Rural	18	15	27	12	13	14
Maori %						
<8%	48	38	53	27	30	28
8-14%	25	34	6	21	19	17
15-29%	18	18	26	28	27	26
30%+	9	10	15	24	24	25
Type						
Full Primary	19	20	28	32	35	37
Contributing Primary	58	57	63	53	50	49
Intermediate	23	23	9	15	15	14
Size						
<35	4	3	3	2	2	2
35-99	9	9	11	8	9	9
100-200	19	19	16	17	18	19
200-300	20	20	22	26	27	26
300+	49	49	48	46	44	44

Table 75
Relationship of School Community Socio-economic Status
to Other School Characteristics

	Middle-class %	Wide-range %	Low-Middle %	Low %
Maori Enrolment				
<8%	62	30	12	0
8.14%	17	13	12	9
15.25%	17	30	17	24
30%+	3	28	9	67
Location				
Rural	44	55	30	32
Minor urban	5	11	26	13
Secondary urban	3	2	4	6
Urban	48	32	39	49
Size				
<35	13	20	13	17
35-99	30	20	22	15
100-199	13	20	30	34
200-299	22	20	26	13
300+	22	18	9	21
Type				
Full	44	45	61	53
Contributing	48	52	35	36
Intermediate	8	2	4	11

Table 76
Representativeness of Samples Used for Interyear Comparisons

	Principals (n = 134)	Trustees (n = 125)	Teachers (n = 171)	1993 Ministry School Statistics
Size				
1-34	10	15	3	17
35-99	24	26	18	24
100-200	22	24	31	22
200-300	21	14	28	18
300+	22	21	21	19
Location				
Urban	46	37	50	45
Rural	40	45	25	40
Minor Urban	11	14	19	10
Secondary Urban	3	4	5	6
% Maori				
<8%	37	41	30	32
8-14%	14	17	15	17
15-29%	26	25	30	23
30%+	23	17	25	28
Socio-economic Status Middle-class				1993 Survey Principals
Wide range	38	39	32	33
Low-middle	24	23	26	23
Low income	13	11	16	12
	23	23	19	25

Table 77
Trustees' and Parents' Socio-Economic Status

Elley Irving Group	School Committee Members 1977		Labour Force 1986		NZCER Survey					
					Trustees				Parents	
					Male		Female			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	1989	1993	1989	1993	Male 1993	Female 1993
1	27	13	7	2	21	17	8	4	21	19
2	37	20	11	6	22	20	31	32	20	19
3	15	40	23	24	17	22	24	33	20	20
4	17	20	27	35	27	32	24	23	24	29
5	14	8	17	21	4	4	6	6	13	10
6			9	13	1	5	0	1	3	3

APPENDIX B

Support Staff

Table 78
Need for Additional Support Staff Hours

Area (n = 191)	1-5 hours %	6-10 hours %	11 + hours %
Teacher aides	13	16	16
Special needs aides	6	12	13
Library	15	12	9
Clerical/accounts	10	9	10
Kaiarahi i te Reo	3	1	9
Caretaking/cleaning	4	1	2

Table 79
Support Staff Hours

Area (n = 191)	1-5 hours %	6-10 hours %	11 + hours %
Caretaking/cleaning	6	10	65
Clerical/accounts	13	8	53
Teacher aides (op. grant)	20	17	39
Teacher aides (Ministry funded)	24	15	19
Special needs aides	17	12	17
Library	16	8	7
Kaiarahi i te Reo	6	4	8

APPENDIX C

Sources of Information and Advice

Table 80
School Sources of Information and Advice 1993 (1)

Source (n = 191)	Curriculum % 1993
Advisors	98
Cluster group	56
College of Education	42
Books, articles	87
Schools' own teachers	87
NZEI	52
Principal's Federation	51
School Trustees Association	42
Education Review Office	31
Ministry of Education	47
School community	51
Special Education Service	60
University staff	16
Psychologists	
Children's parents	
Department of Social Welfare	
Public health nurses	
No-one	
Consultants	26
Kaumatua/Kuia	22
Other schools	66

Table 81
School Sources of Information and Advice 1993 (2)

Source (n = 191)	Staff development		Communication with parents		Assessment policy and practice	
	1990 %	1993 %	1990 %	1993 %	1990 %	1993 %
Advisors	96	95	35	27	52	63 *
Cluster group	80	40 *	39	13 *	48	27 *
College of Education	57	47	12	5 *	17	21
Books, articles	82	77	43	28 *	57	59
Schools' own teachers	83	80	72	70	65	75 *
NZEI	58	24 *	14	15	21	15
Principal's Federation	51	29 *	15	6 *	22	16
NZSTA	30	12 *	16	20	8	12
Education Review Office	14	9	6	16 *	21	33 *
Ministry of Education	52	13 *	30	13 *	25	18
School community	38	11 *	54	41 *	20	23
Special Education Service		32	18	25	17	20
University staff		10			4	4
Psychologists					20	17
No-one	0	0	5	12 *	6	3
Other schools		39		18		32
Consultants		23		6		10
Kaumatua/kuia		10		16		6
PTA				31		

Table 82
School Sources of Information and Advice 1993 (3)

Source (h = 191)	Individual children's problems 1990	1993	Treaty of Waitangi issues 1990	1993	Gender equity issues 1990	1993	Equity for special needs children 1990	1993
Advisors	53	49	4	26 *	20	9 *	32	25
Cluster group	14	16	6	5	8	7	6	7
College of Education	3	3	9	4 *	9	2 *	4	4
Books, articles	36	37	48	23 *	42	26 *	27	18
Schools' own teachers	82	80	47	37	45	42	52	50
NZEI	3	4	16	9	24	15 *	10	5
Principal's Federation	3	3	7	3	10	5	6	4
NZSTA	1	1	4	5	9	18 *	3	4
Education Review Office	1	3	5	10	9	16	5	4
Ministry of Education	14	14	19	10 *	22	15	24	24
School community	25	29	33	13 *	18	13	18	8 *
Special Education Service	56	76 *	0	1	2	1	47	56
Maori teachers			31	28				
Local Maori community			47	38				
Local marae			12	17				
Children's parents	85	83			10	6	36	44
Department of Social Welfare	40	46						
Public health nurses	86	84						
Visiting teacher		41						
No-one	1	1	11	25 *	23	28	17	17
Kaumatua/kuia		12		19		2		1
Consultants		2	0	1		1		
Other schools		20		7		7		12
Private providers								3

Table 83
School Sources of Information and Advice 1993 (4)

Source (n = 191)	Art and Craft materials		Building maintenance repairs		Financial/ accounting system	
	1990 %	1993 %	1990 %	1993 %	1990 %	1993 %
Advisors	30	40 *	11	14	11	13
Cluster group	8	5	20	6 *	32	7 *
College of Education	5	3	2	0	6	1 *
Books, articles	23	35 *	16	10	20	16
School's own teachers	61	59	28	40 *	22	38 *
Private firms	45	54	58	72 *	38	32
Education service centre	60	31 *	50	37 *	46	49
Parents			64	45 *	39	19 *
Voluntary people			51	38 *	21	12 *
No-one	10	8	4	1	1	2
Other schools		10		17		11
Review of Trustees		12		77		77
Ministry of Education				60		

Table 84
Teachers' Three Major Sources of Advice and Information

Sources (n = 336)	Curriculum Framework	Curriculum	Teaching Methods	Assessment Methods	Needs of students from different culture	Communication with parents	School Management and Organisation	Conditions of Employment
Advisors	56	73	59	55	35 *-	10 *-	21	7
Other teachers in school	50	61	63	65	46	56	54	38
Principal	51	29 *-	26 *-	47 *-	18 *-	66	82	64
Teachers in other schools	16	33	42	32	24	13	16	11
Books and journals	44	55	47 *+	43	32	9	19	17
Community contacts	1	3	2	0	27 *-	18	1	3
NZEI	15	4	1	2	2	2	10	79
Trustees	1	0	0	1	0	16	25	20
Parents	0	1	1	0	20	32	2	0
University/college lecturer "	7	17	15	10	8	2	10	1
Subject association "	4	13	10	6	2	1	1	1
Private firm "	1	3	3	2	0		1	1
Ministry of education "	26			8	8		7	9
Kaumatua/kuia "				8				
None	3	1	2	3	10		9	3

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Table 85
Teachers' Use of Non-teaching Time

Use of Time	Teachers in position of responsibility		Others	
	1990 % (n = 127)	1993 % (n = 139)	1990 % (n = 237)	1993 % (n = 189)
School administration	29	38	5	13
Update pupil records	25	31	19	19
Discuss work with other staff	21	24	15	12
Talk to parents	17	24	5	7
Prepare resources		24		18
Test children	21	22	12	12
Appraise staff		21		0
Mark work		19		17
Teach other teachers' classes		19		6
Plan lessons	19	19	17	16
Attend management meetings		18		4
Develop school policy	23	18	3	3
Observe other staff	23	17	4	4
Update teaching skills and knowledge		12		5
Discussions with staff in other schools	11	9	5	4
Maintain library		9		5

APPENDIX D

Figure 17: Proportion of Parents Not Paying Full Donation by Maori Enrolment in School

Figure 18: Change in Students' Economic Circumstances by School Socio-economic Composition
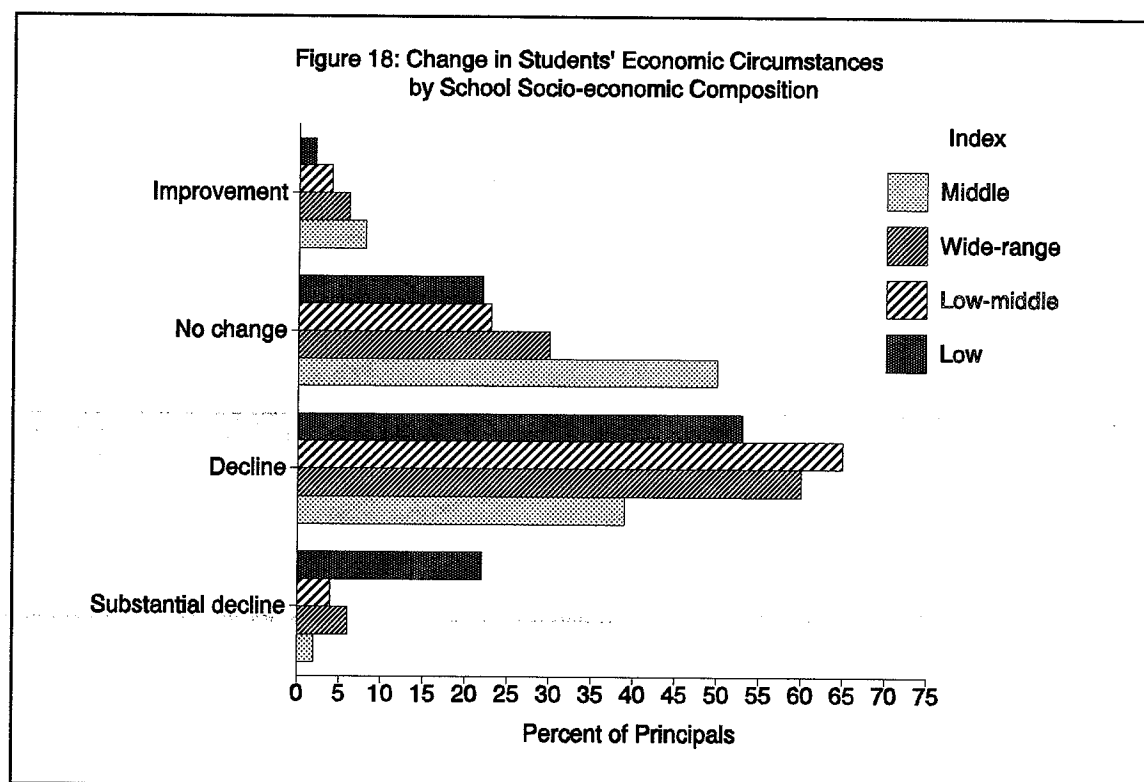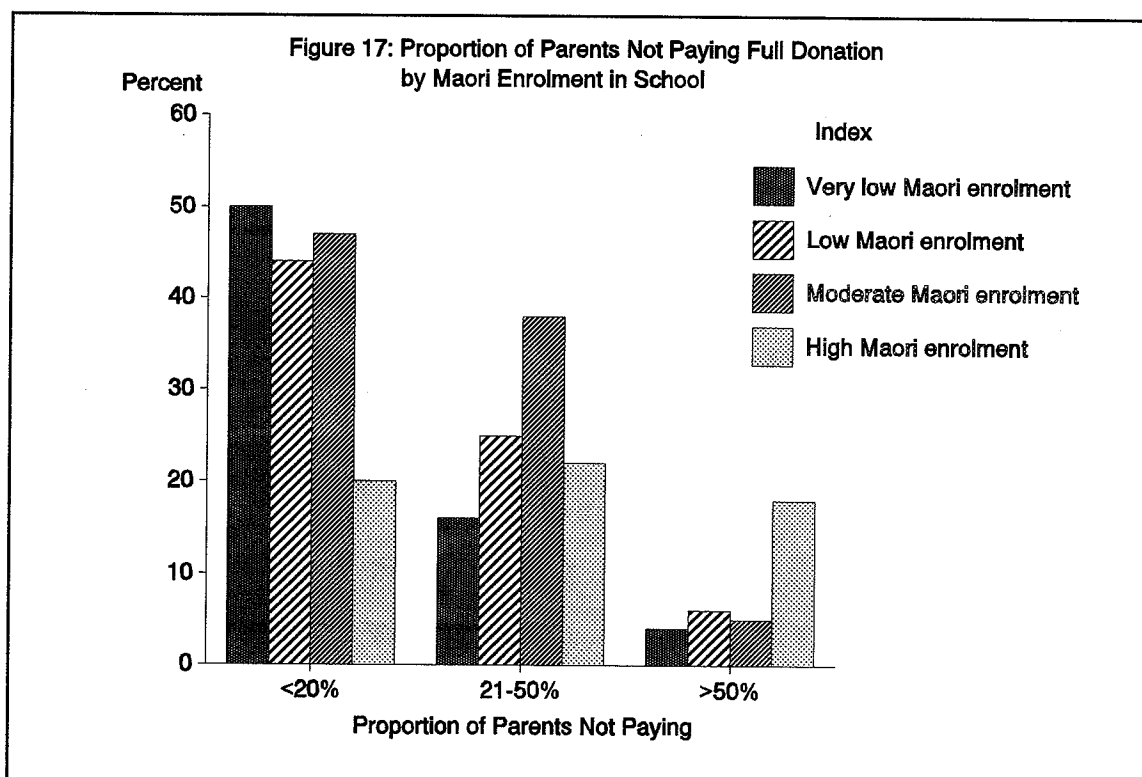
Figure 19: Change in Students' Economic Circumstances by Maori Enrolment in School

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Very low Maori enrolment

Low Maori enrolment
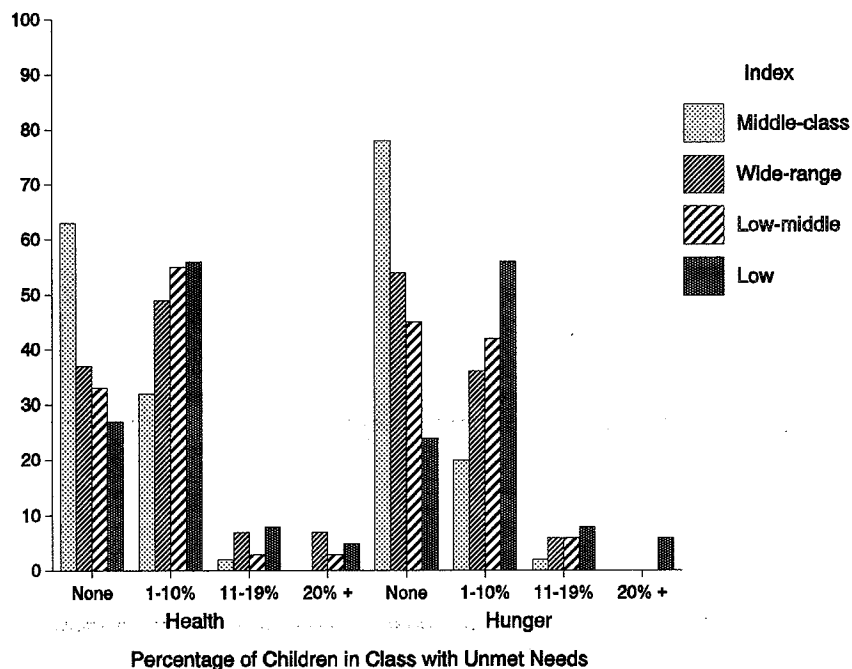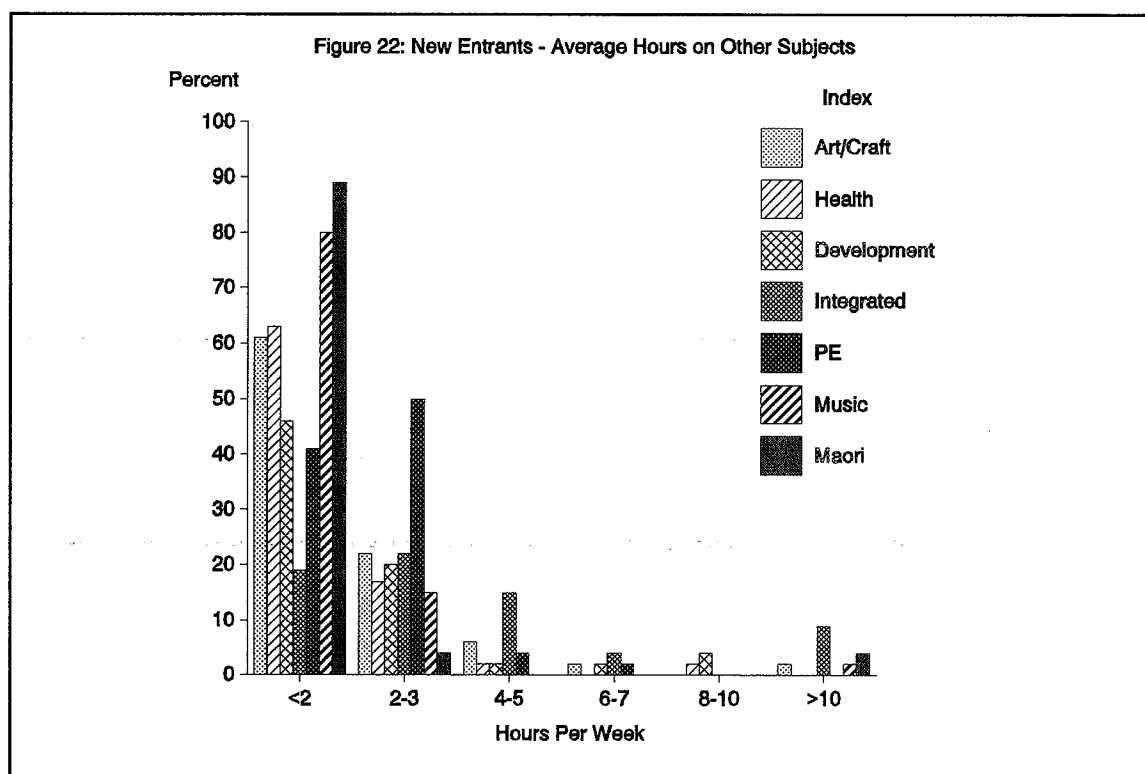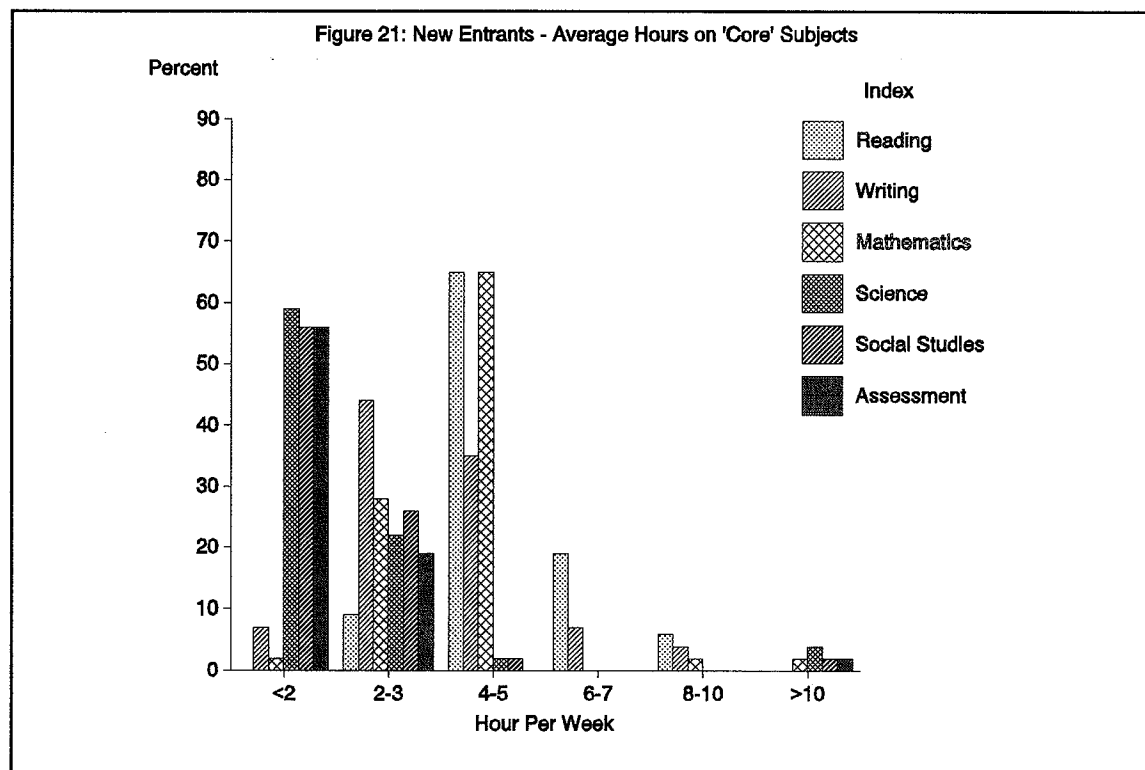
Moderate Maori enrolment

High Maori enrolment

Percent
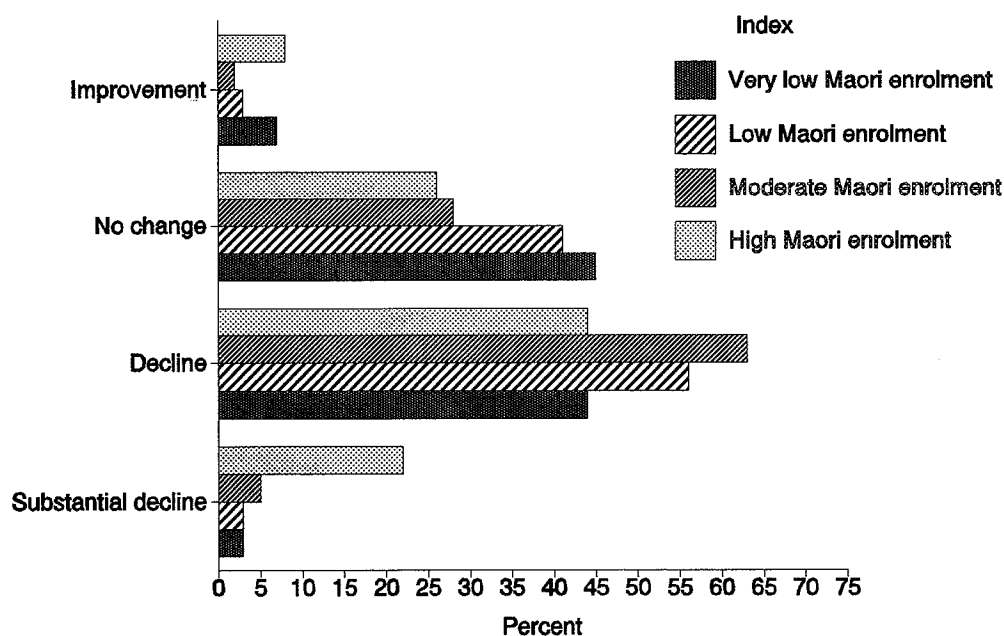
Figure 20: Children's Unmet Health and Food Needs

Index

Middle-class

Wide-range

Low-middle

Low

Health   Hunger

Percentage of Children in Class with Unmet Needs

156

APPENDIX E - CLASSROOM HOURS

New Entrants

Figure 21: New Entrants - Average Hours on 'Core' Subjects

Figure 22: New Entrants - Average Hours on Other Subjects

Junior Classes

Figure 23: Juniors - Average Hours on 'Core' Subjects

Index
- Reading
- Writing
- Mathematics
- Science
- Social Studies
- Assessment

Percent / Hours Per Week
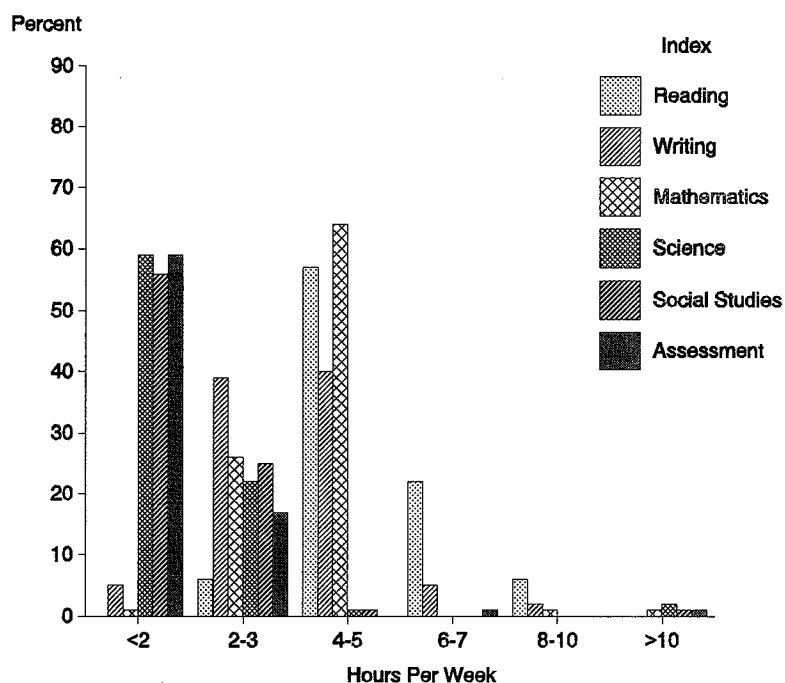
Figure 24: Juniors - Average Hours on Other Subjects

Index
- Art/Craft
- Health
- Development
- Integrated
- PE
- Music
- Maori

Percent / Hours Per Week

158

Standard Classes

Figure 25: Standards - Average Hours Per Week on 'Core' Subjects

Figure 26: Standards - Average Hours Per Week on Other Subjects

Forms 1 & 2

Figure 27: Forms 1 & 2 - Average Hours Per Week on 'Core' Subjects

Figure 28: Forms 1 & 2 - Average Hours Per Week on Other Subjects
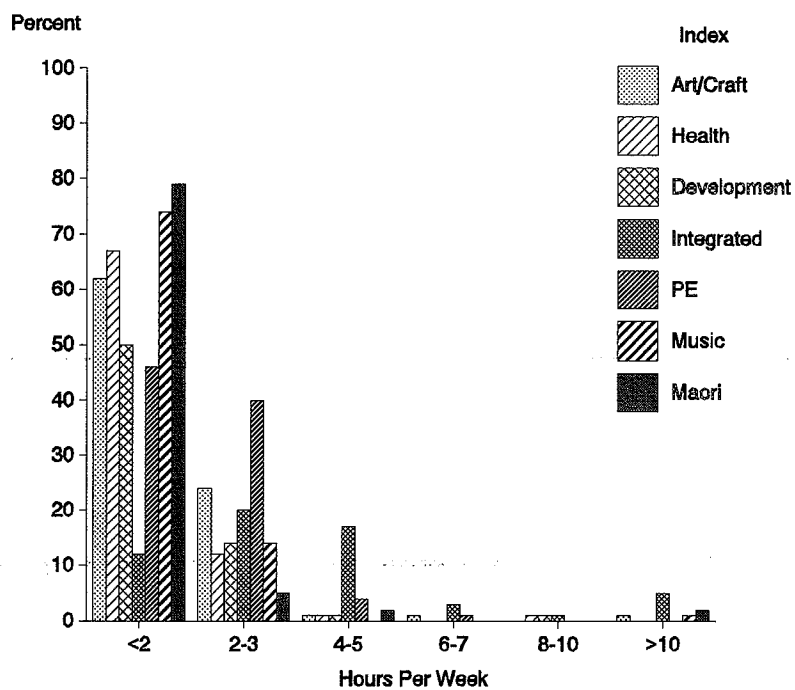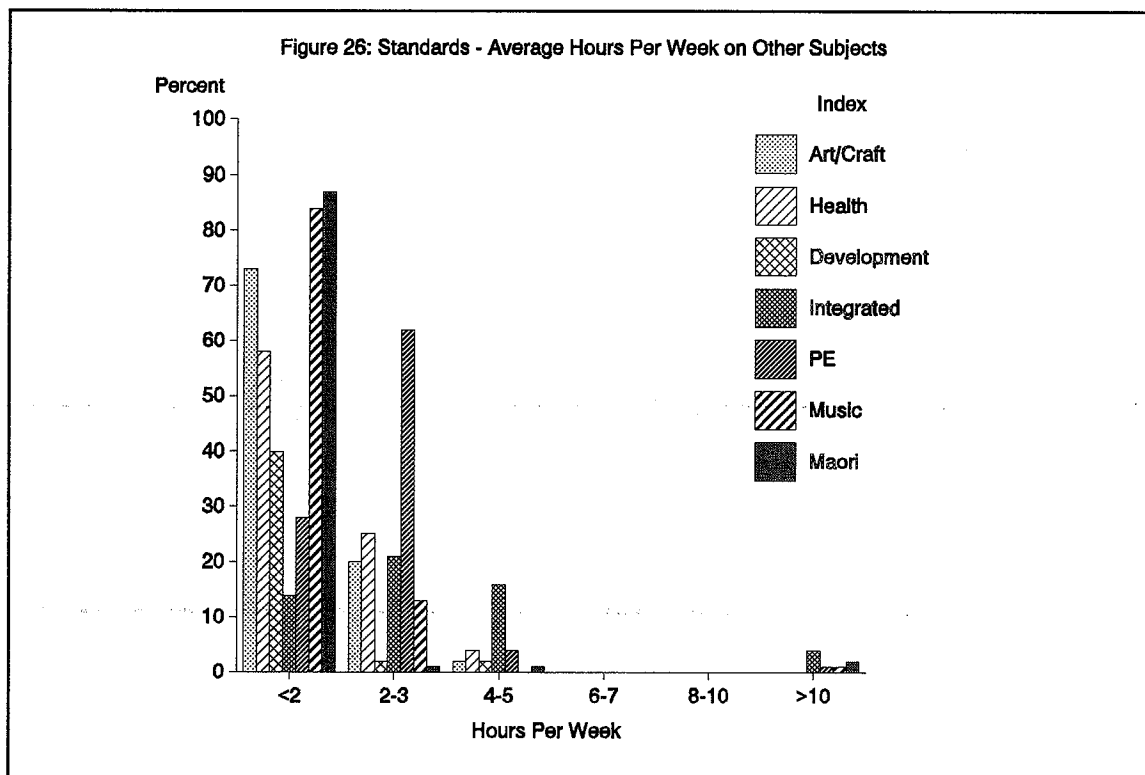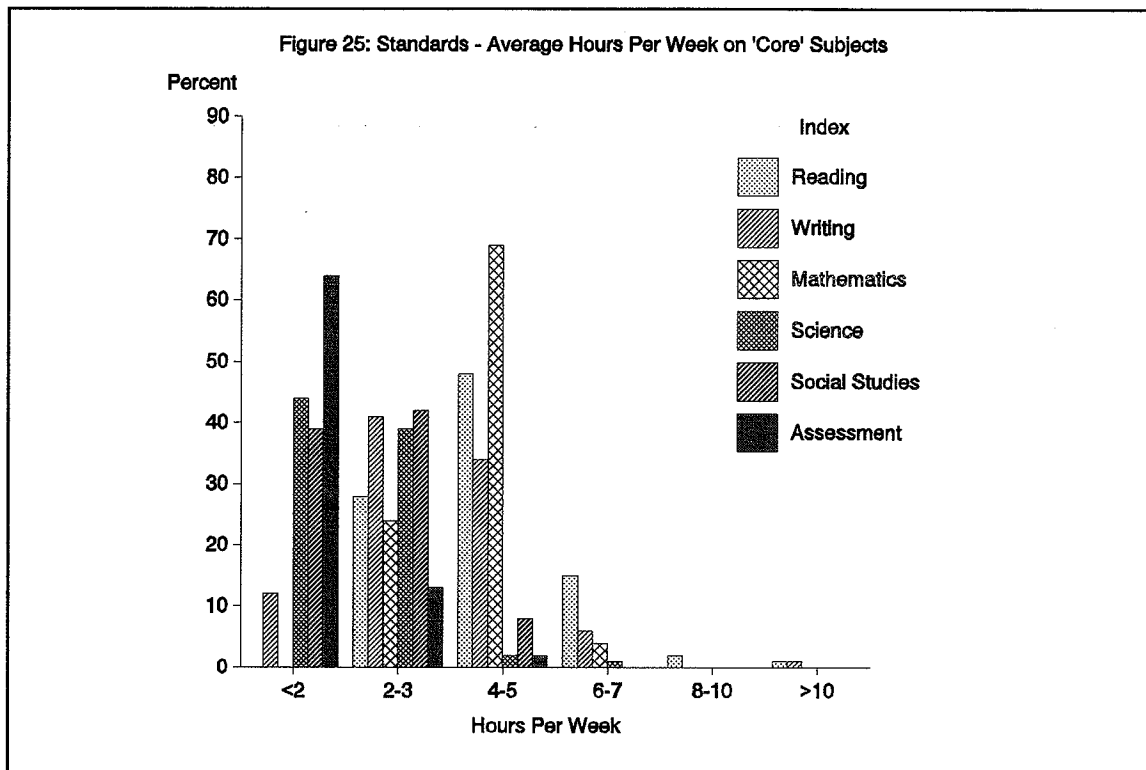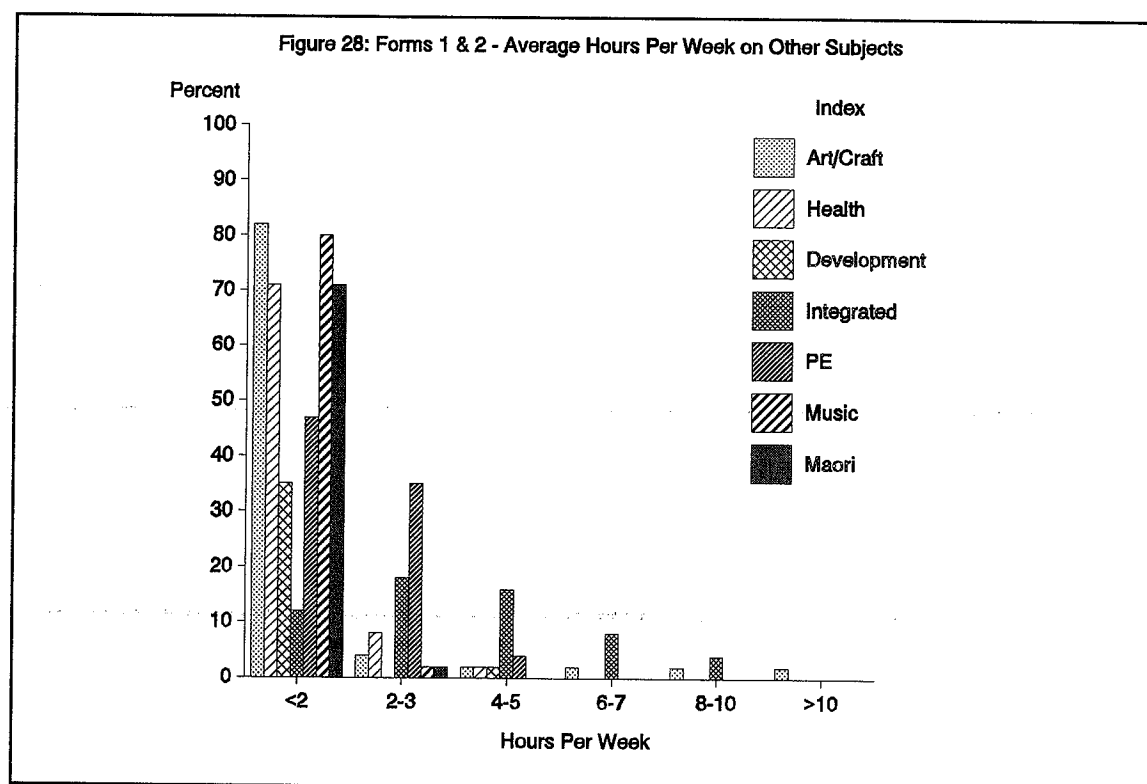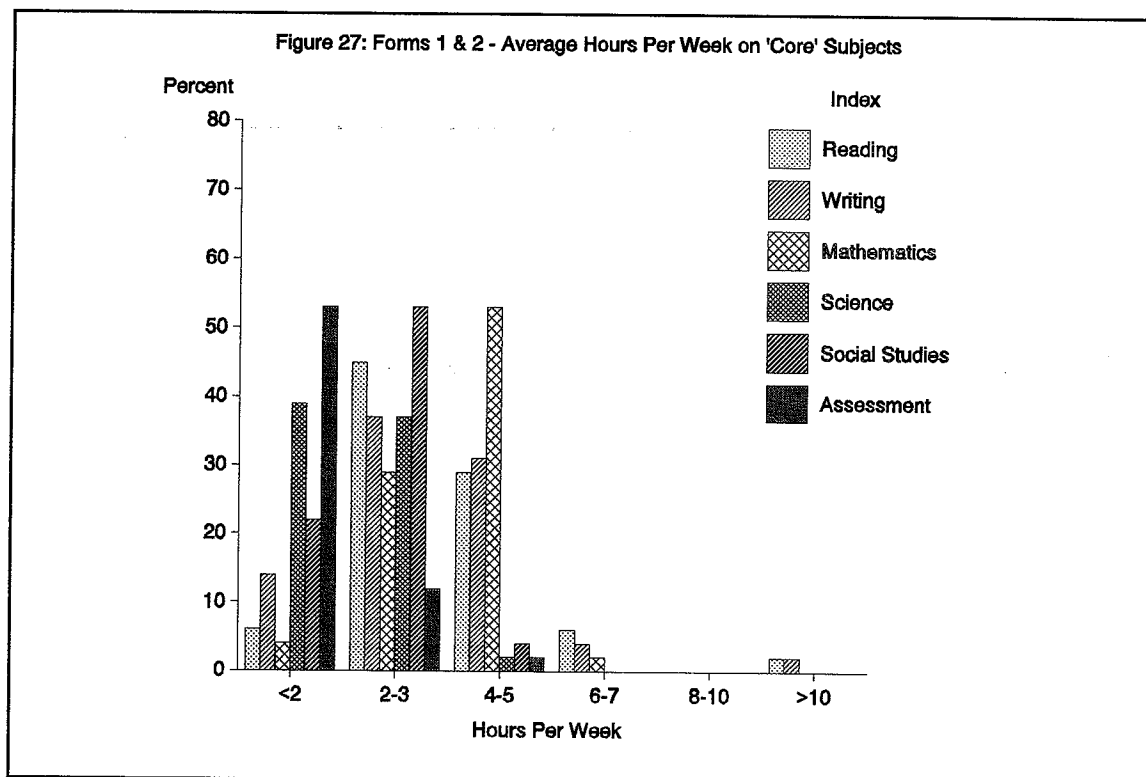
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