

National Survey of Secondary Schools 2003

Rosemary Hipkins with Edith Hodgen



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Executive summary

More than a decade has passed since the reforms initially known as *Tomorrow's Schools* began. A whole generation of students, and their parents, have known no other system of educational administration than the system of individually self-managing schools, governed by boards of trustees elected by parents of current students, that came into place in 1989. While NZCER has been monitoring the impact of the reforms on primary and intermediate schools since 1989, this is the first systematic survey we have carried out in secondary schools. The following are the key findings of the 2003 NZCER *National Survey of Secondary Schools*.

Funding

- The schools struggled to make ends meet financially and most said they could not do so on government-provided funds. More than a third expected to be in deficit at the end of the 2003 year, and slightly fewer expected to be in this position at the end of the 2004 year.
- There was a consensus view amongst principals, teachers, trustees, and parents that funding was one of the three key issues facing boards and schools.
- All schools stretched their financial resources by raising funds locally, with varying degrees of success. International students made the highest contribution to locally raised funds, followed by school fees and donations/grants/sponsorships.
- Schools faced issues with deferred maintenance. At the time of the survey many boards had signed a 5-year property agreement with the Ministry of Education and 60 percent of them had upgraded or developed new property as a result.
- Vandalism was a problem in most schools, with graffiti/tagging and broken windows the most common type of damage.
- Trustees often saw financial management and property maintenance as areas of personal strength.

Staffing

- The staffing entitlement was not sufficient to meet the needs of these secondary schools. Most schools employed additional teaching staff and funded them in a variety of ways. These additional teachers typically provided additional learning support in areas such as ESOL, special needs, or literacy or numeracy programmes.

- Staffing levels and teacher quality were seen by principals, teachers, trustees, and parents as one of the three key issues to which the government should give priority.
- Most schools, and especially lower decile schools, were experiencing difficulty attracting suitably qualified teachers and relieving teachers, especially in the core curriculum subjects. Applicants seen as unsuitable for teaching positions often had poor English, or a lack of appropriate qualifications or local knowledge.
- Most schools employed provisionally registered teachers (PRTs). Some providers were seen as being better than others at preparing beginning teachers, with ability to manage student behaviour the most common area of concern. A third of the 2003 PRTs did not have any formal support programme and group meetings were the most common formal support provided. Only some PRTs had opportunities to observe other teachers at work.
- A majority of teachers had some help from support staff, although the extent of this help was very variable. Most teachers and principals would like modest amounts of additional help from support staff but cannot afford it.
- For a variety of reasons, around half the teachers expected to be leaving teaching within the next 5 years, with mid-career teachers those most likely to be staying. Just under half the principals also expected to change careers, retire, or were not sure about their career directions.

Advice and professional development

- Many principals turned to their peers as a preferred source of advice, via principals' groups, cluster meetings, informal and email contact. They often used School Support Services and their own teaching staff for advice on curriculum matters and New Zealand School Trustees Association (NZSTA) for advice about management questions and issues. Most principals took part in professional development in 2003, often focusing on literacy leadership. Around half took part in NCEA-related professional development.
- Teachers also preferred to seek advice from their peers, from colleagues, or via conferences and one-off events. Teachers frequently shared ideas, teaching and assessment resources, and lesson planning, but it was less common for them to give and receive feedback based on observations of each other's teaching.
- Teachers' professional development was dominated by NCEA training in 2003, especially the Jumbo Days. Most teachers also took part in at least one other type of professional development. Many teachers who attended one-off conferences and seminars paid for this themselves.
- NZSTA was the most frequently accessed external source of advice for school trustees, most often via written newsletters and other documents. Two-thirds of trustees undertook professional development in 2003. Most wanted more training in strategic planning, board and school self-review.

Boards of trustees and their responsibilities

- Most trustees were parents of students at the school. Co-opted trustees often had specific skills. For example, Māori were likely to be co-opted as trustees to deal with Māori issues. A few trustees were appointed when vacancies arose.
- There was a steady turnover of school trustees, with a very small number staying for terms of 10 years or more. Most left because their lives were moving on. Either their children had changed schools, or they had changed employment or shifted to a new location.
- Trustees tended to be over-representative of professional and managerial occupational groups when compared to the overall parent population of the schools.
- Some trustees said their boards lacked experience in strategic planning and legal expertise. Nevertheless many trustees took pride in good strategic planning and financial management.
- Trustees' workloads averaged a manageable 4 hours per week although some experienced trustees were spending considerably longer on board work.
- The majority view was that boards should not have to take responsibility for negotiating the principal's salary and conditions. Appointment of new teaching staff, including senior management staff, was most frequently seen as a shared responsibility for some combination of the principal, trustees, and other teaching staff.
- Around half the principals, teachers, and trustees thought the amount of responsibility devolved to the board was about right. Boards were more often seen as "making steady progress" than "on top of the task".

Workload issues

- Workloads were very high, with principals working an average 67 hours per week, and teachers spending an average 17 additional hours per week above their class-contact time.
- Administration and paperwork were major contributors to workloads. Most principals and teachers wanted to reduce the amount of this work they had to do.
- The predominant use of computers was for administration and communication purposes, including activities such as word processing, record keeping, planning, and the use of email.
- The NCEA implementation has increased teachers' workloads. A third of them wanted more non-contact time.
- In general, teachers in larger schools were teaching bigger classes, with some of them having no classes of fewer than 30 students.
- Teachers' non-contact time was mostly used for face-to-face interactions with others in the school community, leaving preparation for classroom work, marking, assessment, and report writing to be carried out in after-school time.
- Many teachers preferred to use their home computer for work-related tasks. Most did not have personal costs such as Internet access or printing of materials reimbursed.

- Principals' morale was generally high. They took pride in providing good leadership and a sound educational environment. Principals wanted more time to read, reflect, and innovate but fewer principals than teachers wanted to reduce their overall workload.
- Teachers' morale was lower overall. Those who were fully involved in the working environment of the school had higher morale than those who felt excluded from collegial sharing and decision making.

Teaching and assessing the curriculum

- In general, parents were satisfied with the education their children were receiving. Few parents rated their school's learning programme and their child's learning progress as poor or very poor. They would like more information about progress and achievement, assessment including the NCEA, and school planning. A majority of parents want their children to move on to tertiary education when they leave school.
- Curriculum change was ongoing, with many teachers desirous of making even more curriculum changes such as the introduction of critical and creative thinking. Teachers who supported the development of self-regulated learning skills were more likely to do so by promoting individual autonomy and less likely to do so by sharing assessment and learning decisions with the whole class.
- In general principals were more supportive of the NCEA than teachers. However, many teachers rated the NCEA implementation as a main achievement for the 2002–2003 year. Successful implementation was associated with higher morale. Negativity about the NCEA was associated with negativity about the services provided by the Ministry of Education (MoE).
- There was little unqualified support for the introduction of standardised national testing.
- Lack of time, and the time taken for NCEA implementation, were seen as barriers to making curriculum changes. Principals saw lack of money as a constraint and for some teachers class size could be seen as a barrier to making changes.
- Specialist facilities such as the library, science laboratories, and ICT rooms were likely to be in better condition than classrooms or other spaces used by teachers and administrative staff. Spaces for teaching the arts were often seen as inadequate. A majority of teachers perceived they did not have adequate resources for their classroom programmes.
- Ease of student access to computers was a barrier to the use of ICT for learning but teachers also needed more time to build their confidence and skill levels. Teachers were more likely to use ICTs for low-level applications such as word processing than to use them for more complex tasks that integrated ICTs into the learning programme.
- Information provided to aid students' transitions between schools varied. In general principals said they received better information from their local primary schools than they did when students transferred from other secondary schools.

Reducing disparity in learning opportunities

- Students from families and schools with greater financial resources were advantaged in multiple ways. High decile and state-integrated schools gained more local funding from school fees and fundraising, hosted higher numbers of international students, and were less likely to have to pay for damages resulting from vandalism. Parents of students in these schools spent considerably more on all aspects of schooling, including out of school tuition.
- Around half the schools appeared not to have a marae. High decile schools, and state-integrated schools, were less likely to see local Māori groups as part of the school community, and they were less likely to use a range of consultation methods with them.
- Most schools had a policy for countering educational disadvantage for Māori students, but this was seldom seen as a priority for target setting within the school planning and review framework. Fewer schools had policies for Pasifika students, or for other groups who may be educationally disadvantaged.
- Small numbers of transient or “boomerang” students can be found in many schools, but there were more of them in low decile schools. Students who had stable attendance patterns were more likely to stay at school beyond Year 11. Most schools had initiatives to monitor truancy.
- Many teachers taught special needs students but less than half of them could access Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) support.

Parental involvement in schools

- There were low levels of direct parental involvement in the surveyed secondary schools and the majority of parents did not want to be more involved because they worked and lacked the time.
- Direct involvement was usually episodic, in areas such as sport, fundraising, or school trips.
- Formal parent teacher interviews were the main form of contact between parents and secondary teachers, but participation varied considerably. Parents of students in lower decile schools were more likely not to talk with teachers, and to express discomfort about the prospect of doing so.
- Parent responses indicated a level of uncertainty about the NCEA. The higher “not sure” response lowered their overall support levels compared to principals and teachers.
- Boards tended to use paper-based methods to consult parents and the community, but few parents said they received board newsletters. The local Māori community was more likely to be consulted through face-to-face discussions in a variety of settings.
- Boards wanted to consult parents about policy and planning but parents tended to raise more prosaic issues with boards—for example, discipline issues or concerns about specific teachers.

Schools and their communities

- In 2003, a majority of schools had rolls that were growing in the lower secondary area, although a few reported losing students through competition with other schools.
- Many principals of larger urban schools did not want their school to grow any bigger and these schools were more likely to have enrolment schemes.
- Some parents sent their children to schools that were not the closest to their home. In 2003, just over half the students did attend the school closest to their home and many of them walked or cycled to school.

School self-review

- Most secondary schools had an established process for school self-review and school relationships were mostly in good heart.
- Some people in schools saw the new planning and review framework as being of more use for national policy development than for school improvement. Some principals thought it would be used to tell schools what to do.
- Developing improved literacy skills was the curriculum initiative most frequently reported by principals. Some schools had also initiated ICT and numeracy initiatives.
- A majority of schools had access to student achievement data with which to evaluate their success in reaching their student achievement targets.
- Opinion was fairly evenly divided over whether the one key role of the board is providing direction for the school, working in partnership with the staff, or representing the parents. In reality, boards spent most time on financial management and property maintenance.
- While many teachers felt their ideas were listened to, fewer saw themselves as taking an active role in school decision making. Information flows may need to be strengthened in some schools if teachers are to be more fully involved in decision making.
- Most teachers had been appraised, with multiple methods employed for this process. The outcomes were used to identify professional development needs.
- The change to “assess and assist” Education Review Office (ERO) reviews has been well received in secondary schools. Most schools that had undergone such a review found the process helpful.
- People in schools put local responsibilities above national ones. They rated their responsibility to the government and its various education agencies lower than their responsibility to each other and to students, parents, and others in their local community.
- The policy work that underpins the setting of national educational goals did not appear to be well understood. There were high levels of uncertainty about the involvement of government agencies in national policy discussions and decision making.
- Very few schools were not involved in some type of educational research in 2002 and a number of schools were involved in multiple projects.

1. Introduction

A whole generation of students, and their parents, have known no other system of educational administration than the system of individually self-managing schools, governed by boards of trustees elected by parents of current students, that came into place in 1989. This was a major change for New Zealand. We were not alone in decentralising to the school level, but we were more radical in leaving no intermediate or district level to bridge individual schools and central government agencies.

NZCER has been monitoring the impact of the reforms (initially known as *Tomorrow's Schools*) on primary and intermediate schools since 1989, through a series of national surveys of people at schools: principals, trustees, teachers, and parents.¹ In 2003, NZCER expanded the scope of this research to include secondary schools and early childhood providers as well as primary and intermediate schools.

This report describes the results of the 2003 survey of New Zealand's secondary schools. Results of the seventh survey of primary schools will be published separately. To set the context for this report, we first provide an overview of the stages through which we have travelled since the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms first began.

Curriculum and assessment reform

At around the same time as the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms got underway, central government initiated the first steps in widespread curriculum and assessment reforms that are still ongoing. There was widespread consultation on New Zealand's school curriculum in the mid-1980s. Then in the early 1990s new curriculum documents began to appear. An overarching curriculum framework (Ministry of Education, 1993) was written to serve as an umbrella for separate curriculum documents in seven essential learning areas. Documents for these were progressively developed through the 1990s and into the early 2000s, with *The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2000) completing the process.

¹ Reported in Wylie, C. *The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1989*; *The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1990*; *The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1991*; *Self-Managing Schools in New Zealand: the fifth year*; *Self-Managing Schools Seven Years On – what have we learnt? Ten years on: how schools view educational reform*. All published by NZCER, Wellington (www.nzcer.org.nz).

While most secondary teachers needed to come to grips with one or perhaps two of these seven new documents, for primary teachers the need to accommodate curriculum change was ongoing because it encompassed all seven essential learning areas. By the late 1990s concerns were such that a curriculum stocktake process was begun. As part of this stocktake, extensive surveys of teachers' views and patterns of use of the individual curriculum documents were progressively carried out by Waikato University. For this reason, the NZCER survey has taken a minor focus on curriculum, compared with other areas surveyed.

Finally reporting in 2002 (Ministry of Education, 2002), the *Curriculum Stocktake Report* recommended that “the existing curriculum framework be modified using a process of consultation and trialling” (p. 6). At the time this survey was carried out in 2003 the *Curriculum Project* was underway and such consultation was gathering momentum. While teachers' views of curriculum content are not reported in this *NZCER National Survey*, some aspects of their classroom practice are. At the time of writing this report, it seems likely that the *Curriculum Project* will lead to a focus on “key competencies” rather than the more traditional focus on core content. This could free up curriculum delivery to allow schools more local control over their curriculum, and allow them to more robustly address areas of concern in education both nationally and internationally—for example the development of critical literacy, critical and creative thinking, and lifelong learning habits. The findings reported here provide national data against which shifts in these aspects of teachers' practice can be tracked in the future.

For secondary teachers, the reform of processes for awarding senior secondary school qualifications has arguably had a more profound impact on teaching practice than have the curriculum reforms. In this, as in curriculum review and devolution of governance, New Zealand has not been alone (Strachan, 2001). Since the late 1980s, many nations have wrestled with dilemmas of certification of school learning, especially as traditional norm-referenced examinations are so all pervasive and familiar. However their traditional purpose—to sort out students who were seen as suitable for ongoing education from those who would go straight out to work—is no longer seen as appropriate. Over the last decade there has been a strong trend for most students to stay longer at secondary school, and they are expected to undertake some form of ongoing tertiary education when they leave. In this context, certifying a wider range of learning, and making provision for movement between different types of educational opportunities, has become increasingly important.

The New Zealand government's response to this was to develop an overarching Qualifications Framework, followed by a set of New Zealand Certificates of Educational Achievement (NCEA Levels 1, 2, and 3) that use standards-based processes for assessing and reporting on a wider range of student learning. The national survey was carried out in the second of a 3-year staged implementation of the NCEA, and so captures some baseline data against which ongoing shifts in teaching and assessment practices may be compared.

The evolving stages of recent educational reforms

The New Zealand education system has recently been compared with three others that decentralised about the same time (Wylie, 2002). This analysis showed four phases to decentralisation reforms. In the earliest stage of the reforms governance and management took the spotlight, with a flurry of activity as trustees/governors and educators took on new responsibilities, relationships, and workloads. However, after a few years there was growing unease that simply shifting more administrative responsibility to schools did not seem to raise student achievement. The clear division between governance and management so confidently stated at the start of the reforms was difficult to achieve in practice. There seemed to be more paperwork and “bureaucratic” requirements, not less. At the same time, decisions made by one school impacted on others. Issues were raised about continuing or growing inequities of educational opportunity and resourcing, about exclusions of students with special needs or those who were troublesome. The central agency had difficulty intervening, or setting things up so that these issues were less likely to occur. It had difficulty planning, or reallocating the money it had available.

In response to these issues a growing emphasis on school accountability emerged. Some national systems began, subtly, to make more support available to schools. Others took a “name and blame/shame” approach, putting schools on probation or in “special measures”, and promising closure or rebirth under new governance and staff if progress was not made. In this respect there are real cultural and political differences between the four systems, with New Zealand boards being given more scope to set their own goals than in the other systems. In New Zealand, the punitive approach was less in evidence, and was not systematic. In New Zealand, as elsewhere, questions were raised about the capacity of educators and governors to meet the accountability requirements, and there were growing questions about the reality and effectiveness of school autonomy. Few schools innovated, and those that did had little way to contribute to other schools’ understanding: there were no processes to develop new systemic approaches.

Finally—at least for now—there is recognition that school-site management and governance does need real support: not just for administration, but for teaching and learning. There is a substantial emphasis on the centre taking a leading role in designing and funding professional development and teaching resources. Reconnecting schools and centre has become important, often through a closer local presence of the central authority with the aim of working with individual schools, as well as providing planning capacity and ensuring some common infrastructure is available to schools in the area. The focus is student achievement—not governance and management.

Accountability provisions remain, with some systems making more public and comparative use of the information about school performance than others. Though the focus on student learning and achievement makes sense to most, the realignment also raises more questions about the role of the school board—is it primarily a manifestation of local interests and control, which is largely centred around its school—an inward focus—or is it a (very poorly paid) agent of government? And vice versa: can we make noticeable gains in learning and achievement if the school remains

unconnected, and the role of the centre is still separate from the role of the board and its staff? Is there some happy medium that can be found?

The New Zealand story

There are striking similarities between the issues faced by New Zealand schools in the past decade and those that have pertained in similar national education systems. This report provides a rich accounting of the issues and dilemmas of the current stage of educational reforms, as these apply in New Zealand secondary schools.

The structure of the report

The report begins with an explanation of the methodology used (Section 2) then is divided into 15 sections that report findings for a range of themes. As far as possible, these sections have followed the structure and format of the 1999 NZCER national survey of primary schools, so that those who wish to make comparisons across these time/sector differences can do so. The report concludes with a discussion of key findings, and relates these to key features of the fourth stage of devolution reforms, as outlined above.

In recognition of its rapidly growing importance and influence in education, one new thematic section has been added. Section 13 addresses ICT issues in schools. The introduction to the NCEA is addressed in Section 12 of the report—Curriculum and assessment.

2. Survey design and analysis

The school sample

This is the first NZCER national survey of current issues for secondary schools. For this survey we selected a stratified random sample (stratified by roll size and decile) of 200 secondary schools.

All principals at these sample schools were sent questionnaires, and at each school two trustees' names were randomly drawn, and one to three teachers' names, depending on the size of the school. The parent sample was drawn from 25 secondary schools, randomly chosen to provide a cross section of the school characteristics of the total sample.

Appendix 1 sets out the characteristics of secondary schools nationwide, the characteristics of the 2003 survey sample of 200 schools, and the school characteristics of participants. It shows that on the whole, the sample and responses are broadly representative of secondary schools nationwide. Composite schools (Year 1–13) are under-represented in all samples (and are not represented at all in the teacher sample), as are smaller schools (possibly those in minor urban areas), those with a high Māori enrolment, state-integrated schools (in principal and teacher surveys), and decile 1 and 2 schools. Schools that are over-represented are the very large schools, those with a low Māori enrolment, and decile 9 and 10 schools.

Questionnaire development

The questionnaires were developed through an iterative process. We started with the 1999 primary school questionnaires and findings, discarding items that were no longer relevant, those that were not relevant to secondary schools, and drawing up a set of issues that had emerged since or were relevant to secondary schools. We talked with sector organisations including the Ministry of Education (MoE), the Education Review Office (ERO), the Post Primary Teachers' Association (PPTA), the Principals' Federation, and the New Zealand School Trustees Association (NZSTA). We used these conversations to add to our question set, and to check our understanding of the main issues of interest, and gain further insight. When we had developed draft questionnaires, we asked the people we had talked with for feedback. Changes made as a result of piloting the primary school survey were made to the equivalent secondary school questions.

Response profiles

Principals

The overall response rate for principals was 48 percent, from 95 of the 200 schools in the survey sample. Thirty-one percent of those responding were female, equal to the percentage obtained from tables supplied by the Ministry of Education for early 2004.

Most of the principals responding (95 percent) identified as Pākehā/European, 4 percent as Māori, and a single respondent identified as being “a New Zealander”. There were too few non-Pākehā principals to analyse responses by ethnicity.

Thirty-five percent of the principals responding had become principals in the last 2 years. A further 19 percent had served between 3 and 5 years, 26 percent between six and 10 years, 9 percent between 11 and 15 years, and 8 percent over 15 years.² Compared to the situation in the primary schools, more secondary principals were new to the job, and correspondingly fewer had substantial experience.

Although a number of principals were new to the job, there were only two who were under 40, 35 percent were in their 40s, the majority (53 percent) were in their 50s, and 8 percent were in their 60s.

Teachers

Forty-eight percent of the 1,543 teachers (744) responded. Sixty-one percent of the respondents were female, which is similar to the 59 percent of teachers that are female according to the tables supplied by the Ministry of Education for early 2004.

Sixty-one percent of the teachers had some management responsibility. Thirty-nine percent were curriculum or faculty leaders, 12 percent were deans, 3 percent were assistant principals, 5 percent were deputy principals, and the remainder had other positions of responsibility for which management units were paid.

Eighty-eight percent of the respondents identified as Pākehā/European, 6 percent identified as Māori, 3 percent as Pasifika, 3 percent as Asian, 2 percent as a “New Zealander”, and 3 percent identified with other ethnic groups.³

Māori and Pasifika teachers tended to be newer to teaching (35 and 57 percent, respectively, compared with 18 percent of Pākehā/European teachers). They correspondingly also tended to be younger, with 44 and 59 percent, respectively, being under 40, compared with 26 percent of

² Numbers do not always add to 100 percent because of rounding, and because of non-responses in some cases.

³ Where multiple response were given, numbers may add to more than 100 percent.

Pākehā/European teachers. In our teacher sample, 28 percent of teachers were under 40, which is close to the Ministry of Education data giving 32 percent of all teaching staff (including principals) aged under 40.

Trustees

Forty-five percent of the trustees (180 of 400) responded. As described in Section 8 they tended to be better educated than the parents who responded, and more likely to have managerial or professional jobs.

Parents

Questionnaires were sent to 1 in 12 of the parents at a randomly selected sub-sample of 30 schools.⁴ Most of the schools selected their own systematic sample of parents (selecting every 12th parent on the student roll after a randomly selected start), but eight of the schools requested that NZCER select their sample. Responses were obtained from 604 parents, from approximately 1,831 questionnaires that were sent out, a rate of 33 percent.

Seventy-six percent of the respondents were female. Seventy-two percent identified as being Pākehā/European, 14 percent as being Māori, 8 percent as being Pasifika, 7 percent as Asian, 3 percent as being a “New Zealander”, and 2 percent as being of some other ethnicity. Three percent did not give their ethnicity. These proportions are comparable to the 2001 Census figures for those in similar age groups. They tended to be better educated, and to be better educated than the 2001 Census figures for a similar age group.

Analysis

Because the aim of this project has been to provide a comprehensive picture from which to monitor ongoing change in secondary schools, the questionnaires used in this survey were comprehensive, and therefore lengthy, though, we are told, otherwise user-friendly. Copies are available from NZCER. There were common questions in each of the questionnaires for the four different groups.

Many of the questions asked were in the form of closed questions, with boxes to tick. Answers to open-ended questions and comments have been categorised. Frequencies of the answers have been reported on their own, and the answers have also been cross-tabulated with a set of school characteristics—size, location, proportion of Māori enrolment, the socioeconomic decile rating

⁴ The aim was to have 30 schools, but the schools had to agree to be in the sub-sample. Those that indicated early enough that they would not participate were replaced, but some schools did not give such a response in time. Responses were obtained from 25 schools (the school numbers were removed from two of the responses, from one school from which we had no other responses).

assigned to each non-private school by the Ministry of Education (a 1 indicates lowest ranking; 10, the highest socioeconomic status ranking)—to find out if these characteristics are reflected in any differences in answers.

It is worth noting that some of these school characteristics overlap, particularly the characteristics of proportion of Māori enrolment, and school decile ranking, and size and location.

Personal characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, education, and occupation have also been used in analysing parent and trustee data. Comparisons were also made between different groups' responses to the same questions. Where appropriate some comparisons have been made with the results of NZCER's previous national surveys of primary schools.

Cross-tabulations were done using SAS, and results tested for significance using chi-squares. Only differences significant at the $p < 0.05$ level are included. 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. Tests of significance do not imply causal relationships, simply statistical association.

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 percent.

The four categories used in analysing school location differences are urban, secondary urban, minor urban/small town (corresponding to the Ministry of Education's minor urban category; Balclutha is an example), and rural. In many cases, the state and state-integrated character of schools has not been used to analyse answers.

Although comparison of proportions alone can seem to show differences, these differences may not be statistically significant once the size of the group is taken into account. In the report, the term "trend" refers to differences which were just above the $p < 0.05$ level, where a larger sample might have revealed them to be significant.

3. Funding

School boards have had legal responsibility for creating their own budgets and managing their own finances since 1989, when educational administration was decentralised to the individual school level. Prior to this, school committees at primary schools and boards of governors at secondary schools did handle small amounts of money. Money raised from voluntary parental donations, activity fees, and local fundraising by parent-teacher associations (PTAs) was able to be used by the school for its own purposes, usually small property and programme enhancements, but not the employment of staff. PTAs were likely to make decisions on how the money they had raised through school galas and the like should be spent.

Government resourcing that is allocated on an individual school basis for schools to decide how to use comes in two forms: staff, and cash. Staffing—teachers and school principals—takes 66 percent of the government funding that goes to individual schools. Operational funding takes 25 percent, and property, 9 percent.

Schools are allocated full-time equivalent teaching staff numbers on the basis of “the lesser of the Ministry’s prediction and the school’s prediction submitted on the July roll return for each type of student for each year of schooling”.⁵ This “entitlement” staffing is paid centrally.⁶ The money for this staffing appears in school budgets, but is not seen by schools as part of their budget. Schools can now “bank” staffing to give them some flexibility (this was originally to allow schools to initiate programmes or support mid-way through the year, but is also used by schools to manage their own funds by having their lowest-paid staff members paid from the “banked staffing” component).

Schools receive operational funding from the Ministry of Education; this includes a base-grant up to certain roll sizes, and per student capita funding, with around 15 percent nationally based on the socioeconomic decile. This decile-linked funding, TFEA (targeted funding for educational achievement) and SEG (special educational grant), is a much higher component of operational funding for low decile schools, and provides them with higher per capita government funding than

⁵ Ministry of Education, School Resourcing Handbook, *School Staffing*, p. 6, 1 September 2003.

⁶ Previous governments offered “bulk funding”, also known as “full-funding” or “direct-resourcing”, which included funding for teacher salaries within operational grants. This was an attractive option for schools that did not have the majority of their teaching staff at or near the top of the salary scale, because it funded teacher FTEs at the top of the salary scale. The final version of this funding also allowed schools to return to central funding after 3 years.

high decile schools. Prior to decentralisation, these schools usually had higher government resourcing than others, in the form of additional staff.

Operational funding has some components that are identified in Ministry of Education advice of funding entitlement given to each school, but the components are not targeted, and do not need to be separately accounted for. Operational funding is described in the Ministry of Education school resources handbook as:

The money a board of trustees receives from the Government to implement the goals of the school's charter and for the running of the school. Operational funding does not include the salaries of entitlement teachers, property, or other large capital items. The funding is paid quarterly in a bulk grant directly to the board. Although the grant is made up of set components, boards are free to decide how the grant should be spent.⁷

Operational funding has been increased by just over 10 percent per student since 1999, after adjusting for inflation and roll growth.⁸ Between 1990 and 1999, however, the increase in per student funding was only 4.4 percent after adjusting for inflation, with the increase coming only from 1996, after a loss of 10 percent in schools' purchasing power between 1990 and 1996.⁹ Thus schools were faced with the need to raise more funds locally from the early 1990s to maintain revenue levels and programmes, and it may be that cutbacks to spending that were needed during the first part of the 1990s have had later repercussions for school budgets, such as needing to buy more curriculum resources, or attend to capital and property items that were deferred as non-essential.

Locally raised funds have increased since decentralisation began in 1989. Ministry of Education calculations showed an increase of 45 percent per student in locally raised funds from 1995–2001 for the compulsory school sector, somewhat more than the increase of 32 percent per student in total government grants over the same period.¹⁰ The rate of increase has been higher for locally raised funds, but government grants continue to provide more money: the increase over this period was \$304 per student from that source, compared with \$168 from locally raised funds. In terms of the money that schools have to allocate, net locally raised funds were \$174 million in 2001, and operational funding provided \$837 million.

In aggregate, locally raised funds appear to provide around 17 percent of the funds schools have at their disposal. However, the proportion varies considerably among individual schools and is much

⁷ Ministry of Education, School Resourcing Handbook, *Operational Funding*, p. 5, 1 September 2003.

⁸ Minister of Education (2004), speech to the NZ School Trustees Annual Conference, Palmerston North, 10 July.

⁹ Ministry of Education. (1996). *Briefing papers for the incoming government*. Wellington: Author.

¹⁰ Ministry of Education. (2003). *School revenue and locally raised funds*. Paper for the Schools Consultative Committee, prepared by Schools Resourcing Policy, February 2003.

higher in secondary schools: in 2001, 26 percent raised more money themselves than they received through their government operational funding.¹¹

The Ministry of Education takes action when a school's financial statements show a working capital deficit or operating deficit 2 years running. For the financial years from 2000/01, the estimate has been for 350–400. The actual number of schools that met one of these criteria was somewhat higher, but some schools fell into both categories. Schools were more likely to have operating deficits: 367 schools in 2000/01, 327 in 2002/03, and 320 in 2003/04. Seventy-four schools, 3 percent of the total number of schools, had both operating and capital deficits in 2003/04. Thus, most schools manage within their budgets, using their government revenue and the revenue they raise themselves. Managing within budgets necessitates careful prioritisation, monitoring of costs, and conservative planning and spending. Even then, schools can be caught out by unexpected events, particularly roll declines or property costs.¹²

Adequacy of government funding

There was a widespread view that funding for secondary schools is not adequate. Ninety-four percent of principals and 84 percent of trustees reported this was the case for their school. Trustees in state-integrated schools were more likely to think that government funding was enough to meet the school's needs.

Dealing with financial issues

Thirteen percent of trustees said the basis of their school's funding for that year was not clear to them, and 26 percent were not sure, or were still learning about it. Experience is helpful for understanding this aspect of the board's work—the small number who had been trustees for 7 or more years were more likely to say the basis of the school's funding was clear. Newer trustees, elected at or after the 2001 elections, were more likely to say they were still learning.

Fifty-two percent of trustees said their board had faced financial management issues or problems in the last 3 years. As might be expected, trustees who identified financial management issues were also more likely to say the government funding was not enough to meet the school's needs.

Trustees who had faced issues of financial management, reported taking a range of measures, with varying degrees of success. The following table shows the frequency with which varying types of measures were taken. Some boards cut back on spending across the board, some did so in a few areas only. Reducing support staff hours (8 percent), or pay and conditions (2 percent), were less

¹¹ Watkins, T. (2003). "Free schools: a legacy lost." *Weekend [NZ] Herald*, B6, 20–21 September.

¹² For further description and analysis of schools' financial management, See Wylie, C. & King, J. (2004). *How do effective schools manage their finances?* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research (on www.sta.org.nz and www.nzcer.org.nz).

commonly taken spending cuts. Of those who sought to increase their funding levels, taking international students was the most common measure, followed by putting more effort into local fundraising, or seeking outside sponsorship. Some boards made changes to the way they managed their financial systems, most commonly changing their accounting system or changing the people responsible for financial management. Hiring temporary help from a private firm was tried by a small number of boards. Boards most often sought advice from the Ministry of Education, followed by New Zealand School Trustees Association. A small number of boards sought help from the Post Primary Teachers' Association, other schools (2 percent), or the Principals' Association. No trustees whose boards faced issues said their board did nothing, and just one respondent did not know what action had been taken.

Table 1 **Action taken by trustees to address financial management issues**

Action taken (last 3 years)	(n=180) %
Cut back spending across the board	24
Took international students	24
Changed accounting system	15
Cut back spending in few areas only	13
Sought help/advice from MoE	13
Changed people responsible for work	12
Put more effort into local fundraising	11
Sought outside sponsorship	10
Sought help/advice from NZSTA	8
Reduced support staff hours	8
Got help from MoE	7
Used temporary help from private firm	6
Other	5
Sought help/advice from PPTA	4
Sought help/advice from Principals' Association	3

In 13 percent of cases trustees said the actions they had taken had solved the issue, and 22 percent said they had been partially successful. Nine percent said it was too soon to tell. For 2 percent the actions taken had not been successful and another 2 percent said their financial problems were beyond the board's capacity to resolve.

Seeking other sources of funding

There are a number of sources of contestable funding available to secondary schools through the Ministry of Education. Principals reported varying degrees of success when applying for funding from these sources. As the next table shows, the STAR¹³ initiative appeared to provide by far the most accessible additional funding source. This fund was designed to improve retention in the senior secondary school and to facilitate school-tertiary transitions. Other NZCER research has

¹³ Secondary-Tertiary Alliance Resource.

shown that STAR programmes have made a very positive contribution to provision of a wider variety of learning experiences, but also that STAR courses may lack status in the overall school curriculum. This is problematic in schools where STAR funding goes directly into the general operations grant, and may not be used in its entirety for the purposes intended (Vaughan & Kenneally, 2003).

Table 2 **Contestable funding sought**

Type of funding	Applied and funded to level sought (n=95) %	Applied and got some funding (n=95) %	Applied – not funded (n=95) %	Total applications (n=95) %
STAR	60	33		99
Alternative education	22	13	1	36
Second language learning funding pool	22	22		44
Other MoE funding/scheme	17	13	2	32
Enhanced programme funding	12	12	23	47
Numeracy professional development projects	5	6	3	14
Philanthropic trust	5	16	2	23
School property for future scheme	4	4	7	15
Collaborative innovations funding	3	4	13	20
Innovative funding for those at risk	3	4	6	13
Community-based language initiative	2		2	2
Corporate sponsorship	2	8	4	14
Funding for a study centre		2	4	6
LEOTC		1	3	4
School administration cluster		1	3	4
lwi grant		1	2	3

It is evident that in around half of the instances when principals applied for frequently accessed MoE funding they were likely to receive the total sum requested. However for sources such as philanthropic funding, applications were likely to be partially funded, if at all. Funding for various types of innovations was less often sought, perhaps because such applications were more likely to be unsuccessful, or only partially successful.

Local fundraising

The following table shows the extent to which secondary schools are dependent on locally raised funds. Fewer than 10 percent of the responding schools raised less than \$30,000 a year to supplement their funding. At the other end of the scale, 30 percent raised half a million dollars or more per year. The average was estimated at \$370,000.¹⁴

¹⁴ To estimate the mean amount, the midpoints of the classes were used, and the midpoint of the highest open class was taken to be \$1,500,000.

Table 3 Local funds raised in 1 year

Amount	(n=95) %
Less than \$20,000	7
\$20,001–\$25,000	1
\$25,001–\$30,000	2
\$30,001–\$50,000	4
\$50,001–\$100,000	9
\$100,000–\$200,000	17
\$200,001–\$500,000	25
\$500,001–\$1,000,000	21
Over \$1,000,000	9

Principals were asked to give the approximate percent of locally raised funds gained from different sources. As might be expected from the responses above, the generation of funds by taking in international students made the highest average contribution to locally raised funds.

International students contributed around 30 percent of local funds, ranging from a contribution of less than 10 percent in 13 percent of schools to a 76 percent or more contribution in 12 percent of schools. International students contributed an average of just 8 percent in decile 1–2 schools, compared to 35 percent in decile 3–8 schools, and 31 percent in decile 9–10 schools. Fees from international students contributed less on average to the funds of rural schools (16 percent) and minor urban schools (23 percent), compared to secondary and main urban schools (both 35 percent). State schools gain a higher average proportion of funds this way (33 percent) compared to state-integrated schools (23 percent).

School fees/donations from parents contributed around 19 percent of local funds. The percentage of this average contribution also increased with decile levels. Fees and donations contributed an average 5 percent in decile 1–2 schools, 15 percent in decile 3–4 schools, 20 percent in decile 5–8 schools, and 30 percent in decile 9–10 schools. These fees contributed less on average to the funds of rural schools (12 percent) compared to secondary and minor urban (both 19 percent) and main urban schools (21 percent). They contributed higher average funds to state-integrated schools (32 percent) than to state schools (17 percent). There was no clear trend in relationships between the size of the school and average funds generated.

Donations/grants/sponsorships from organisations and businesses contributed around 9 percent of local funds. *Activity fees (including stationary fees)* contributed around 8 percent, and *fundraising* around 6 percent of local funds. State-integrated schools were likely to derive a greater proportion of their income from fundraising.

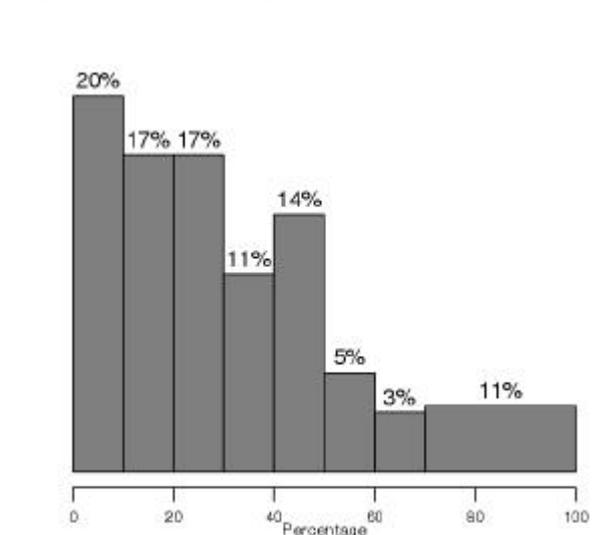
Hire of school facilities and *investments (including interest on MoE funding)* both contributed around 5 percent, while *running the school canteen* contributed around 4 percent of local funds. Other sources of local funds included school uniform or stationery shops (mentioned by 10 percent of principals) and student hostels, community education, sports fees, school trips, and school bus (mentioned by 3 percent or fewer).

School fees

Ninety-seven percent of secondary schools requested a school fee. For state schools, fees were likely to be lowest in rural schools and highest in main urban schools. State-integrated schools had considerably higher fees, and fees comprised a greater proportion of the income in these schools.

Schools experienced varying degrees of success in collecting school fees from parents. In the next figure the relative frequencies (%) of principals' estimates of levels of non-payment are written above the bars. The first seven bars represent 10–70 percent non-payment levels respectively and the wider bar represents the open (70+ percent) class provided on the survey. In the best case scenario 20 percent of the principals estimated that 10 percent of parents or less did not pay the school fee (i.e. the bar on the extreme left). In the worst case scenarios, in 11 percent of schools, 75+ percent of parents did not pay.

Figure 1 **Percentage of parents who did not pay school fee/donation**



State-integrated schools were more successful in collecting school fees than state schools. Whereas 71 percent of state-integrated schools reported non-payment rates of 0–10 percent, 39 percent of state schools reported non-payment rates of 31 percent or higher.

International students

We have already noted that international students provided the greatest proportion of locally raised funds on average. Eighty-four percent of principals said there were international students in their school. For the 71 schools whose principals provided relevant data, average numbers of international students were low at Year 8 or below (two students per school on average). Average numbers were somewhat higher at Years 9–11 (six students per year level), and highest in the senior secondary school (12.5 students per year level).

Total numbers of international students ranged from 20 or less in a third of the responding schools to more than 90 in 10 percent of schools. Schools of less than 500 students were more likely to

have 10 or fewer international students. Schools with roll numbers between 500 and 999 were more likely to have 61–80, while those with rolls of 1,000+ were more likely to have 81+ international students. Because the higher numbers were enrolled in the larger main urban schools, these students comprised less than 10 percent of total roll in all but 1 percent of secondary schools with international students.¹⁵

The main reasons for enrolling international students were financial, with 58 percent of principals reporting the fee added to the school’s funding sources, and 7 percent saying the fee allowed the school to maintain or improve current staffing. Some principals (15 percent) saw a benefit in adding diversity to the school. Just 2 percent said they took these students because the school had spare space.

The specific uses of funds generated from international students are shown in the next table. In more than half of the schools, at least some of the funds generated are used to directly meet the needs of the international students through the provision of ESOL and other additional support staff. It is also relatively common for fees to be used to hire additional teaching staff, or to become part of the school’s working capital. Also mentioned were “additional buildings” (1 percent).

Table 4 Principals’ views of use of international student fees

Funding use	(n=95) %
Specialist/ESOL teachers	59
Additional teaching staff	56
Additional support staff	50
Goes into total working capital	46
ICT equipment/Internet access	30
Additional curriculum resources	28
Increase subject choice	24
ICT support	20
Remedial programme	16
Maintain subject choice	16
Extension programme	12
Sports facilities/coaching	7
Arts facilities/teaching	3

Sixty-two percent of teachers said they taught international students and 37 percent said they did not. Teachers in state-integrated schools, decile 9 and 10, and main urban schools were more likely to be teaching international students. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to be teaching international students.

¹⁵ MoE data for 2003 show international students actually comprised more than 10 percent of the roll in nine (2.7 percent) NZ secondary schools, a small difference from our sample (www.minedu.govt.nz).

Teachers who taught international students, and principals who said they had these students in their schools, were asked if they thought their presence had impacted on the curriculum or the teaching in these classes. They were also asked whether there were impacts on local students in these classes. Responses show broad agreement, although the non-response rate from teachers (42 percent) was much higher than from principals (19 percent).

Where impacts had been indicated, follow-up open questions about the nature of those impacts were asked. Response rates to the two open questions were low, as shown in the table below. For those who did respond, the nature of the impacts was seen somewhat differently by principals and teachers.

Unsurprisingly, teachers' comments about the impact on curriculum and teaching were more specific than those made by principals. For example, 16 percent of principals made general comments about the slowing down of the teaching process, whereas teachers said they needed to simplify and clarify instructions (11 percent) and to spend extra time checking that students understood explanations (11 percent). Six percent of principals but only 1 percent of teachers reported an increased focus on literacy/language. Similarly, 7 percent of principals but only 2 percent of teachers said there was a need to prepare extra notes and summaries. Teachers said these notes needed to be written down, not dictated. Five percent of principals said teachers needed to develop better skills and awareness for working with international students. Four percent of teachers said they developed alternative programmes for these students.

There was more similarity between principals' and teachers' comments about the nature of impacts on local students but whereas principals tended to identify positive impacts, teachers were more likely to mention negative impacts.

Table 5 **Impact of international students on local students**

Impacts on other students	Teachers' views (n=195) %	Principals' views (n=33) %
Positive impact on other students (e.g. awareness of other cultures)	14	46
Less time for NZ students/slows teaching progress	10.5	7
General negative impact	3	-
Resentment/racial intolerance increases	3	2
More resources available	1	5
Increases academic competition	-	2

Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to say that teaching international students had resulted in them having less time for New Zealand students.

At its 2004 annual conference the PPTA discussed the impact of international students in New Zealand secondary schools. It was suggested that schools' "critical financial dependency on being able to recruit international students" amounted to a "trade" that "represents significant

privatisation of education".¹⁶ The findings of this survey support the PPTA's concern that the financial benefits of hosting a number of international students are predominantly accruing to larger, high decile, urban schools. But there is less evidence to suggest there is widespread concern about the impact of these students on school life.

Balancing the books

Nineteen percent of principals expected their school to be in a surplus position at the end of 2003, 40 percent expected to break even, and 38 percent expected to be in deficit. By the end of 2004, 19 percent expected to be in surplus, 39 percent expected to break even, and 28 percent expected to be in deficit, but 13 percent were not sure (up from 3 percent for 2003). There was a high degree of correlation between principals' expectations of their positions at the end of 2003 and 2004—few principals expected their situation to have changed.

Parents' estimates of money spent on their children's education

The next table shows average estimates¹⁷ of the amount of money parents spent on various aspects of their youngest child's secondary education. Although there has been considerable discussion of school fees in the above sections, three of the four highest costs were for the more prosaic clothing of students, getting them to and from school, and providing the materials needed for written work.

¹⁶ *International Students in New Zealand Secondary Schools*, annual conference paper prepared by the PPTA Executive (www.ppta.org.nz).

¹⁷ The mean amount spent was estimated using the midpoints for the classes provided, with the midpoint of the highest class being estimated variably, depending on the frequency in that class, and of the immediately preceding classes. For example, 54 respondents paid \$501+ for school fees, but only 1 reported paying as much for NZQA fees. It was assumed that the average school fee paid by the 54 was higher than the NZQA fees paid by the 1. The highest midpoint was assumed to range between \$700 for transport, \$690 for school fees, and \$525 for NZQA fees, with five other midpoints in the \$500s, and the same number in the \$600s.

Table 6 Parents' estimates of money spent

Aspect of education	Average \$ estimate (n=503)
Uniforms	266
School fee/donation	186
Transport	143
Stationery	109
School trips/camps	109
Classes outside school	92
Activity fees	89
Other costs	75
NZQA fees	72
School fundraising	41
Other donations	37

Those who gave estimates of total educational costs in all categories between \$100 and \$1,499 were more likely to be state school parents. Those who estimated total costs in all categories over \$1,500 were more likely to be integrated school parents. As might be expected, parents of students in decile 9 or 10 schools were more likely to spend over \$1,900 in total.

On average, parents paid higher fees to state-integrated schools (average = \$527) than to state schools (average = \$106). Uniform costs were higher in state-integrated schools (average = \$278) than in state schools (average = \$215). Parents spent an average \$156 on additional classes for students in state-integrated schools, compared to \$77 for students in state schools. Parents of students in state-integrated schools were also likely to give higher estimates of spending on a range of other education-related costs, including activity fees, school trips, transport, donations, fundraising, and stationery.

There was a trend for fees to increase as decile increased (average for decile 1–2 = \$119; decile 3–4 = \$98; decile 5–6 = \$166; decile 7–8 = \$288; decile 9–10 = \$278). There was also a clear trend for spending on classes outside school to increase as decile increased (average for decile 1–2 = \$49; decile 3–4 = \$58; decile 5–6 = \$85; decile 7–8 = \$121; decile 9–10 = \$144). Similarly, parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to spend less than \$200 on activity fees, while those with children in decile 7–10 schools were more likely to spend \$200+.

Transport costs were higher for students in rural (average = \$173) and main urban schools (average = \$162) compared to schools in smaller urban areas (secondary urban average = \$79; minor urban average = \$54). Overall, however, parents of students in rural schools were more likely to be the lowest spenders on their child's education.

Saving for further education

Fifty percent of parents said they were putting money aside for their child's future education and 44 percent said they were not. Parents employed as managers were more likely to be making

savings for education purposes, while parents in service or technical employment roles, or who were unemployed, were less likely to be doing so.

Summary

Schools struggled to make ends meet financially and most said they could not do so on government-provided funds. More than a third expected to be in deficit at the end of the 2003 year, and slightly fewer expected to be in this position at the end of the 2004 year.

Cutbacks on spending were more likely to be made across the board than in specific areas, but only a quarter of the schools reported this solution to anticipated financial problems.

All schools stretched their financial resources by raising funds locally, with varying degrees of success. International students made the highest contribution to locally raised funds, followed by school fees and donations/grants/sponsorships. Of the various contestable funding sources, gaining access to STAR funding is most likely to be successful and it is used by most schools.

During 2004 there has been lively debate in the media on differential treatment of certain groups in society with respect to government funding policies. While some schools do gain additional funding via decile-linked and TFEA funding, this survey found an overall pattern that students from families and schools with greater financial resources were likely to be advantaged in multiple ways:

- High decile schools and state-integrated schools gained proportionally more local funding from school fees and fundraising.
- International students contributed significant additional funding to large, urban, high decile schools but relatively less to smaller, lower decile schools in towns or rural areas.
- Parents of students in high decile schools and in state-integrated schools spent considerably more on all aspects of schooling, including out of school tuition.

4. Staffing

Roll numbers are used to generate a teaching and management staffing entitlement for each school, weighted by year levels. These are full-time equivalents, giving boards some flexibility in employment, for example, employing part-time teachers, and in the allocation of management units.

The teacher:student ratios used to decide entitlement staffing were improved in 1996, when the ratios became 1:25 for Years 9 and 10, 1:23 for Year 11, 1:18 for Year 12, and 1:17 for Year 13 students. These increases came from recommendations of the 1995 Ministerial Reference Group, a sector-wide working party. A similar process was used 5 years later, with a report from the School Staffing Review Group, chaired by the Minister of Education in early 2001. This resulted in further increases, particularly in small schools, kura kaupapa Māori, and low decile schools, that are being phased in over time. This group also recommended lowering the ratios by two students for each year level, adding an additional 1.0 FTE for school management to each school, and research on minimum staffing levels to deliver an adequate curriculum.¹⁸

Nationally, the numbers of teachers employed above entitlement staffing using school revenues rose from 1,562 in 1999 (3.9 percent of all teachers) to 2,716 (6.2 percent) in 2004.¹⁹ This suggests that many schools are not finding their entitlement staffing sufficient to meet the needs they perceive.

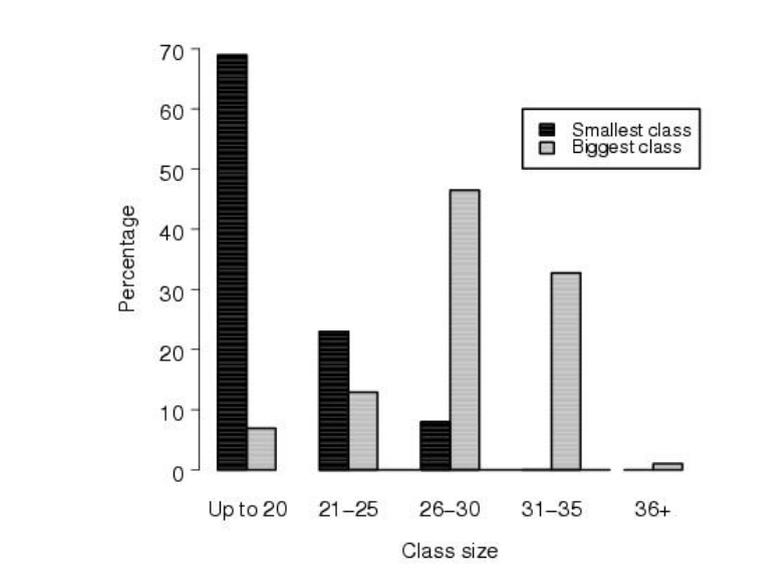
Class size

The pupil:teacher ratios provided by the government funding formula do not translate into classes of consistent size. There is wide variation in the size of classes being taught at the secondary school level. The bar chart below compares numbers of students in teachers' smallest classes with numbers in their biggest classes. While many teachers taught at least some classes of less than 20, some said their *smallest* classes had 26–30 students in them and most teachers have 30 or more students in their biggest classes.

¹⁸ Ministry of Education. (2001). *Report of the school staffing review group*. Available on www.minedu.govt.nz

¹⁹ Using the first pay period for the year. Source: *Statistics on teaching staff at March 2004*, available on www.minedu.govt.nz

Figure 2 Largest and smallest classes taught by teachers



There can be considerable variation in numbers per class within a school. Those teaching “core” curriculum subjects may be allocated more students per class if other teachers have smaller numbers of students because their curriculum area is in less demand. This is a balancing act for school managers as they try to keep a wide range of curriculum choices, yet also keep class sizes manageable, within their available funding (Hipkins, Vaughan, Beals, & Ferral, 2004). In 2003 many schools were also beginning to accommodate a demographic “bulge” of Year 9 and 10 students, who attract less per-pupil funding than senior students.²⁰

There was also a relationship between school size and class sizes. In general, the bigger the school, the higher the student numbers in both largest and smallest classes. In small schools²¹ just three “biggest classes” had more than 31 students, and there were less than 20 students in 93 percent of the smallest classes in these same schools. At the other end of the scale, two teachers in schools with over 500 students said there were 31–35 students in their *smallest* classes. Teachers in main urban and secondary urban schools were more likely to think their classes were generally too big. A similar pattern of increasing class size with increasing school size was found in a recent survey of Scottish schools (Thorpe, Kirk, & Whitcombe, 2003).

There are obvious workload implications for teachers who consistently take very large classes, especially if some of these are at the senior level where NCEA-related assessment and moderation pressures increase. Forty-two percent of teachers said there were too many students in their classes generally, while 56 percent thought numbers were satisfactory and just 2 percent thought

²⁰ This and other factors that contribute to class size issues are more fully outlined in *Class Sizes and the Classroom Teacher*, a briefing paper prepared by the Auckland Region for the PPTA Annual Conference, 2004. Available on www.ppta.org.nz

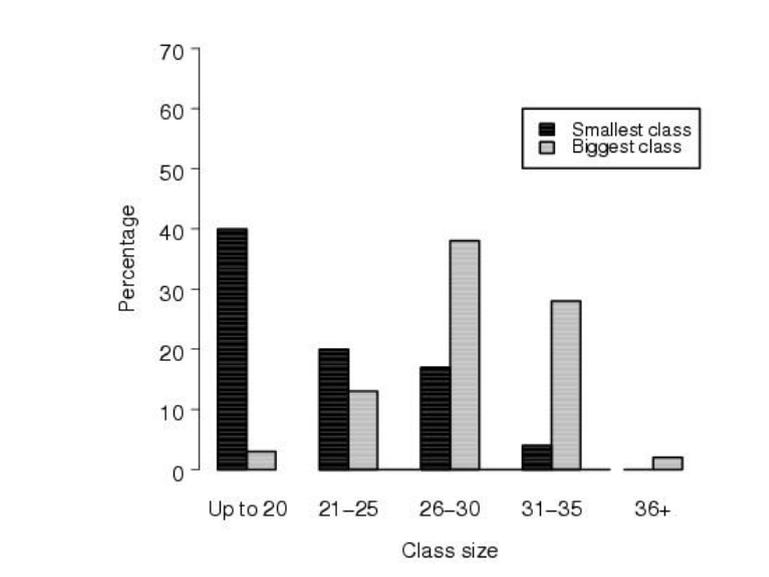
²¹ Throughout the report “small” schools are those with less than 300 students.

they had too few students generally. Unsurprisingly, those teachers who thought they had too many students were more likely to also be teaching in schools of 500+ students.

Parents' impressions of class sizes

As the next figure shows, there was considerable variation in parents' estimates of the sizes of their youngest child's biggest and smallest classes, with some parents not sure how big they were (smallest class, 17 percent unsure; biggest class, 14 percent unsure). While 40 percent of students were in at least one relatively small class, 21 percent had no class smaller than 26 students. A majority of students (68 percent) were in at least one class of more than 26 students, and 30 percent of them were in at least one class of 30 or more students.

Figure 3 Largest and smallest classes reported by parents



A majority of parents thought the number of students in their youngest child's classes generally was satisfactory (65 percent), but nearly a third thought there were too many (31 percent). No parents said there were too few.

Teaching staff

Relatively low numbers of principals (18 percent) and trustees (17 percent) said the school staffing levels were adequate. Most said they were not (79 percent of principals; 72 percent of trustees). Three percent of principals and 12 percent of trustees were unsure. Eighty-three percent of principals reported they were already employing staff above their MoE entitlement, and 2 percent said they planned to do so later in the year.

Schools showed considerable resourcefulness in making provision for the employment of teaching staff above their entitlement. As the next table shows, funding for additional staffing came from a

wide range of sources, including the school’s operational grant and international students. In Section 3 we noted that STAR funding is the contestable MoE funding source most often successfully accessed by principals. Like STAR, SEG (special education grant) and TFEA (targeted funding for educational achievement) funding provide additional staffing to support the school’s ability to meet learning needs of specific groups of students.

Table 7 Sources of funding for teaching staff employed above staffing entitlement

Funding source	(n=95) %
International students	57
Operational funds	52
STAR funding	33
SEG funding	27
TFEA funding	25
Using additional MoE contract/programme funding	19
Not currently employing teaching staff above MoE-funded entitlement	17
Locally raised funds	16
Using “banked” staffing	13
School fees	4

Rural schools were less likely to have funded additional staff by income generated from international students, while schools of 1,000+ students were more likely to fund staff above MoE entitlement from this source. This pattern is entirely predictable in the light of trends reported in Section 3.

Teaching staff employed above the MoE entitlement carried out a variety of roles. From a provided list, principals who use such staff selected an average of 3.7 roles. Additional teachers were more likely to be working with students perceived to have specific types of learning needs than in traditional curriculum areas. ESOL, special needs students, and literacy and numeracy support were the most common uses of additional teaching staff. Far fewer additional teachers were working with extension students. Additional teachers working in core curriculum areas were more commonly teaching the core curriculum subjects of mathematics, science, and English than optional curriculum subjects.

Table 8 **Work done by teaching staff employed above staffing entitlement**

Work done	(n=95) %
ESOL	50
Special needs/learning assistance	43
Literacy/numeracy support	38
Maths teacher	25
Science teacher	21
Pastoral care	18
English teacher	17
Not currently employing teaching staff above MoE-funded entitlement	17
Life/work skills	14
Te reo Māori	11
Other	10
Extension studies	8
Physical education/health teacher	7
Technology teacher	6
Languages	6
Arts teacher	5
Music	5
Social studies teacher	4
Various	4

Rural schools were less likely to have additional staff who worked as ESOL teachers, or to use funding from international students for this purpose.

Teaching supply

Finding teachers to fill vacancies was an issue for 85 percent of principals. Those in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to say they had no difficulty finding suitable teachers for vacancies.

Difficulties resulting from limited numbers of suitable applications were reported across the curriculum, but were particularly acute in the core curriculum areas of science, mathematics, and English and in technology.

Table 9 Curriculum areas where suitable teachers were difficult to find

Areas	(n=95) %
Science	83
Mathematics	79
English	73
Technology	72
Te reo	53
Senior management	36
ICT	35
Physical education/health	31
Arts	27
Languages	27
Social studies	19

Secondary urban schools, and decile 3 and 4 schools, were more likely to have difficulties in getting mathematics teachers. Decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to have difficulty getting English teachers. Decile 9 and 10 schools were less likely to have difficulty in getting mathematics and science teachers.

Across the curriculum, the lack of availability of suitable applicants was seen as the main reason for these difficulties. Factors seen to make teachers unsuitable are shown in the next table.

Table 10 Reasons some teacher applicants are seen to be unsuitable

Reasons	(n=95) %
Poor quality of oral English	55
Overseas qualified, but unsuitable qualifications	51
Curriculum expertise lacking	47
Evidence of unsuccessful teaching elsewhere	38
New Zealand qualified, but unsuitable qualifications	19
Unlikely to share school values	19
Too inexperienced/beginning teachers	16
Very few applicants	3

Principals of state-integrated schools were less likely to say applicants were unsuitable because they had poor quality oral English.

A recent study of teacher mobility in New Zealand found that, in times of overall teacher shortage, teachers tend to move from low to high decile schools, leaving low decile schools to recruit from whatever sources they can. These circumstances can result in disproportionate numbers of overseas-trained, beginning, and older returning teachers on the staff of low decile schools (Ritchie, 2004). This research is food for thought, given the indications that secondary

schools are currently having difficulty in accessing suitable teaching staff,²² that these problems tend to be worse in low decile schools, and that overseas-trained teachers are applying to take up these positions.

Employment of non-registered and limited authority teachers

Fifteen percent of principals said they currently employed one or more non-registered teachers, and 85 percent did not. This pattern was reversed for teachers with limited authority to teach. Eighty percent of principals said they currently employed one or more limited authority teachers, while 19 percent did not. Roles carried out by non-registered teachers or those with a limited authority to teach are shown in the next table. Collectively, supporting and relieving roles are predominant, although a number of these people do have more autonomous classroom teaching roles.

Table 11 Roles for non-registered and limited authority teachers

Roles	Non-registered	Limited authority
	%	%
Teacher aide	8	27
Part-time classroom teachers	–	23
Short-term relievers	4	22
Full-time classroom teachers	3	20
ESOL support	4	20
Long-term relievers	–	14
Subject specialists	3	12
Withdrawing special needs students	1	12
Remedial work	3	8
Music	–	7
Guidance/careers	–	5
Community education	–	1

The main reasons principals gave for employing non-registered or limited authority teachers were that they gained access to specialist expertise that was otherwise not available (43 percent), that there were local people available with suitable knowledge (26 percent), that it was hard to get registered teachers (25 percent), or registered relievers (19 percent). A few principals said there was competition with other schools for the best relievers (6 percent), or that teachers were employed for their fluency in te reo Māori, or because student numbers had increased during the year (both 4 percent). Just 3 percent of principals said they employed non-registered or limited authority teachers because it cost less.

²² At the time of the study carried out by Ritchie – the mid to late 1990s – primary school teachers were in short supply but secondary school teachers were not.

Day relievers

Only 23 percent of principals reported they had no problems finding day relievers. This was frequently difficult for 20 percent and occasionally difficult for 57 percent, mainly because of a shortage of registered teachers (64 percent) or good quality relievers (47 percent), many of whom are now in long-term relieving positions (30 percent) or don't work in the areas needed (8 percent).

The data show a trend towards finding it harder to get day relievers in rural and secondary urban schools. Principals in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely, and those in decile 9 and 10 schools less likely, to say they had difficulty finding registered day relievers.

Teacherless classes

In 59 percent of the schools there were no days in 2002 when a class was without a teacher. However for 35 percent of schools there were days when a class had no teacher, or classes were temporarily joined to cover for the lack of a teacher. Most often this situation lasted 3–5 days (17 percent of cases) but the duration ranged from 1–2 days (8 percent), 6–10 days (4 percent), up to 11+ days (6 percent).

In 51 percent of the schools there was no extended period of time in 2002 when a class was without a teacher with appropriate curriculum expertise. However in 27 percent of schools 1–2 classes were taught for all or part of the year by a teacher who lacked the appropriate expertise. The problem of lack of appropriate staff for an extended period was more acute in some schools, affecting 3–5 classes in 9 percent of schools, 6–10 classes in 1 percent, 11–20 classes in 4 percent, and 21+ classes in 3 percent of schools.

There was some indication that students in state schools were more likely to be in at least some classes taught by a teacher without appropriate curriculum expertise.

Provisionally registered teachers

Principals reported employing a median of three provisionally registered teachers (PRTs). The number in any one school ranged from none (11 percent) to 10 or more (9 percent) but three was the most common number. State schools were more likely to have three or more provisionally registered teachers whereas integrated schools were more likely to have two or fewer.

A bare majority of principals who employed PRTs were satisfied with the quality of these teachers' pre-service training (55 percent). Seven percent said they were not satisfied, while 27 percent chose the qualified option, saying they were satisfied with PRTs from some providers but not others. Sixty-four percent of principals said that PRTs needed more training in some areas. These areas are shown in the next table. As might be expected, classroom management tops the list of principals' concerns.

Table 12 **Areas where provisionally registered teachers needed more pre-service preparation**

Areas	(n=95) %
Behaviour management	46
Assessment	22
Classroom planning/administration	22
Communication skills	14
Subject content	8
ICT	7
Other	7
Understanding other cultures	4

Principals of decile 9 or 10 schools were less likely to say provisionally registered teachers needed more preparation in behaviour management. It could be that behaviour management is not such an issue in these schools, and so the fledgling skills of PRTs are not as severely tested.

Schools are given funding that provides for a 0.2 reduction in class contact time for PRTs as they continue their professional learning. Most commonly, support was provided in the form of group meetings for PRTs (73 percent) or individual mentoring with another teacher from the subject area (61 percent). Both of these practices have been identified in a recent ERO review as factors that contribute to effective learning for beginning teachers, and ERO has recommended that more time is provided to both second year teachers and their mentors, to facilitate the provision of such support (Education Review Office, 2004). Less than half the PRTs were expected to observe other teachers' classes (47 percent) and 31 percent of PRTs had no formal support programme but were expected to use their release time for planning and preparation. Given the ERO finding that just 52 percent of year two teachers met expectations of effectiveness across all areas of their practice (Education Review Office, 2004), the lack of formal support for nearly a third of the PRTs in the survey schools is of concern.

There was a relationship between the nature of the programme provided and school size. Larger schools have bigger curriculum teams, with a correspondingly greater variety of potential opportunities to learn from more experienced colleagues. This difference was reflected in principals' responses. Schools of 300–499 students were less likely to use the time for mentoring by another teacher in the subject area, or for observation of other teachers, while schools of 1,000+ were more likely to do both of these. All principals in schools of 1,000+ said some of the time was used for support meetings of all provisionally registered teachers. Again this was less likely to happen in schools with rolls of 300–499 students.

Eighty-three percent of principals were satisfied that their school's advice and guidance programme for PRTs was working as it should be and just 5 percent were not. No specific pattern was discernible in the reasons given for this dissatisfaction.

Principals' and teachers' careers

Principals

Few principals were aged under 40 (2 percent) or were 60+ (8 percent). Most were between 40–49 (35 percent) or 50–59 (53 percent). Many principals were relatively new to the role, with 35 percent having been principals for less than 2 years and 19 percent for between 3–5 years. Twenty-six percent of principals had between 6–10 years' experience. Smaller numbers of longer-serving principals had 11–15 years' experience (9 percent) or more than 15 years' experience (8 percent).

As might be expected, both principals under 40 had been in the role less than 2 years and most of those between 40–49 had been in the role for 5 years or less. There were some older principals who were relatively new to the role—14 principals aged 50 or over had been in the role less than 2 years, and 7 more for between 3 and 5 years.

Male principals (67 percent) outnumbered females (31 percent).²³ This sample slightly over-represents females, who make up 29 percent of all New Zealand secondary school principals.²⁴ Female principals were more likely to be in state-integrated schools (53 percent) while male principals were more likely to be in state schools (73 percent).

Almost all the principals identified as Pākehā /European (95 percent). Four percent were Māori and one principal identified as a “New Zealander”. There were no Pasifika principals in the sample.

Principal turnover

Almost all the principals who had been at their school for less than 2 years (38 percent) were new to the role. Terms of between 3–5 years (22 percent) and 6–10 years (32 percent) were common. Just 2 percent of principals had been in the same school for 11–15 years, and 4 percent for more than 15 years.

A majority of schools (59 percent) had had two principals in the last 10 years. Some had had three (22 percent). Smaller numbers of schools had had no turnover of principal in that time (12 percent) or had had higher levels of principal turnover with four (4 percent) or even five (1 percent) principals in 10 years.

²³ Two percent did not give their gender.

²⁴ All comparative data on staffing have been sourced from *Statistics on teaching staff at March 2004*, available on www.minedu.govt.nz

Teachers

Most responding teachers held permanent positions (89 percent) and almost all of these worked full-time (88 percent). Eight percent were on fixed term contracts and 3 percent were relieving. Just 1 percent of the part-time teachers worked for less than 0.5 of a full-time equivalent position.

Responding teachers were spread across a range of age brackets. The next table compares the age composition of the surveyed teachers with MoE statistics for full-time permanent secondary staff.

Table 13 Teachers' age distribution

Age bracket	Surveyed teachers (n=744) %	MoE data (n=14,705) %
Under 40	28	32
40–49	34	29
50–59	32	29
60 and over	7	6

Younger teachers are slightly under-represented in the sample, and older teachers correspondingly slightly over-represented. Female teachers (61 percent) were slightly over-represented compared to MoE statistics for all secondary teachers (56 percent).

Most teachers identified as Pākehā/European (89 percent) compared with 76 percent of the New Zealand population as a whole.²⁵ There were fewer Māori teachers (6 percent) than in the population (12 percent). Very few teachers identified as Pasifika or Asian (both 3 percent). Again these groups were under-represented compared to the general population (Pasifika, 5 percent; Asian, 6 percent). Two percent of the teachers identified as “New Zealanders” and 0.5 percent as South African. Five percent chose more than one ethnic group. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to identify as Pākehā /European (although 72 percent of them did so). Teachers in decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely to identify as Pākehā /European (97 percent).

The next table compares teachers' overall length of service with time spent in their current school. It is interesting to note that just 15 percent of teachers have served more than 25 years, compared to the 32 percent who are aged 50+. It cannot be assumed that beginning teachers are younger teachers. Of all the teachers with less than 10 years' experience, 8 percent were aged between 40 and 49, and 2 percent were between 50 and 59. A comparison of the time spent in their current school and the length of teachers' careers suggests a degree of movement between schools across the course of most teachers' careers. Nevertheless, many teachers appear to spend a considerable length of time working in any one school. After 6–10 years of teaching, 39 percent of teachers were still in the school where they began their career. Even after 21–25 years teaching, 22 percent were still in the same school, and another 12 percent had been in the same school for 31–40 years.

²⁵ Based on 2001 Census data.

Table 14 Teachers' length of service

Years of teaching	Current school (n=744) %	In total (n=744) %
Less than 2 years	24	8
2–5 years	23	11
6–10 years	19	13
11–15 years	13	11
16–20 years	8	12
21–25 years	8	20
26–30 years	3	12
31–40 years	1	10
More than 40 years	-	2

Positions of responsibility and management units

A majority of the teachers said they currently held a position of responsibility (61 percent) and some held more than one. Most common were curriculum leaders (39 percent) and deans (12 percent). Five percent of the sample were deputy principals and 3 percent were assistant principals. Other positions held were teacher-librarian, timetable or ICT support/Internet (all 2 percent), and careers advisor, STAR/Gateway, sports or health co-ordinator, NZQA liaison, or international students (all 1 percent). Rural teachers were more likely to have a position of responsibility, and main urban teachers less likely to do so.

There was considerable variability in the numbers of management units accorded to the various roles. As might be expected, deputy principals held the highest number of management units. These ranged from 4 to 8, with an average of 7. Management units for the deputy principal (DP) role tended to be related to school location. DPs in rural schools were more likely to hold 5 to 6, those in minor and secondary urban schools to hold 7, and those in main urban schools to hold 8 management units.

The next highest average number of management units was held by assistant principals, with a range from 1 to 7, and an average of 4 management units. Curriculum leaders ranged from none to 5, with an average of 2, and deans from none to 3, with an average of just 1 management unit. A small number of curriculum leaders and deans, and between a third and a half of the teachers who held the various other positions of responsibility, said they had no management units for their role.

Just 10 percent of those who did not hold a position of responsibility said they would like to do so in the future and 5 percent were not sure. Those who did respond mainly aspired to be curriculum leaders (5 percent) or deans (4 percent).

Eighty-three percent of all the teachers had no interest in becoming a principal in the future. In many cases they favoured their current role, saying they preferred to work in the classroom (53 percent), were not interested in management/administration responsibilities (32 percent), or preferred lower management responsibilities (18 percent). Some reasons encompassed negative

perceptions of the principal's role, including that the workload was too high (38 percent), or the role too stressful (37 percent). Those who did aspire to be principals wanted the challenge (7 percent), were interested in implementing ideas they had (6 percent), liked the idea of the responsibility (3 percent), or wanted a better salary (2 percent).

Teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to think becoming a principal would be too stressful. Teachers in decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely to say they preferred to work with students in the classroom or that the workload was too high. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to give either of these reasons for not wanting to be a principal. There was an association between aspiring to become a principal and seeking other career opportunities. Teachers who said they would still be at their current school in 5 year's time if a management opportunity came up were more likely to want to be a principal, as were teachers who said they would change schools.

Principals' and teachers' perception of their position in 5 years

The next table shows principals' expectations of their careers, and the following table shows teachers' expectations. A few principals said they expected to remain the principal of the same school but if given the choice would prefer to leave (2 percent), or take a break from teaching, and work overseas (both 1 percent). By contrast 10 percent of teachers felt trapped in their teaching career.

Table 15 Principals' expectations of their careers in 5 year's time

Expectation	Principals (n=95) %
Will remain principal of the same school	35
Not sure	17
Change careers	15
Will move to another school	13
Retire	13

Asked what they thought they would be doing in 5 year's time, there was a reasonably even split between teachers who expected to be leaving secondary teaching, or were not sure of their plans, and those who intended to stay, either in the same or another school. In addition to those factors shown in the next table, 2 percent expected to move to another education sector and 1 percent were considering moving overseas. Very few teachers sought management opportunities in their current school, although that is a possible reason for wanting to change schools, and over half of them already held such positions.

Table 16 Teachers' expectations of their careers in 5 year's time

Expectation	(n=744) %
Teaching at same school	28
Not sure	17
Probably moving to another school	11
Teaching at same school but given a choice wouldn't remain teaching	10
Will probably retire	10
Will probably change careers	9
Will probably have a break from teaching	7
Teaching at same school provided a management opportunity becomes available	3

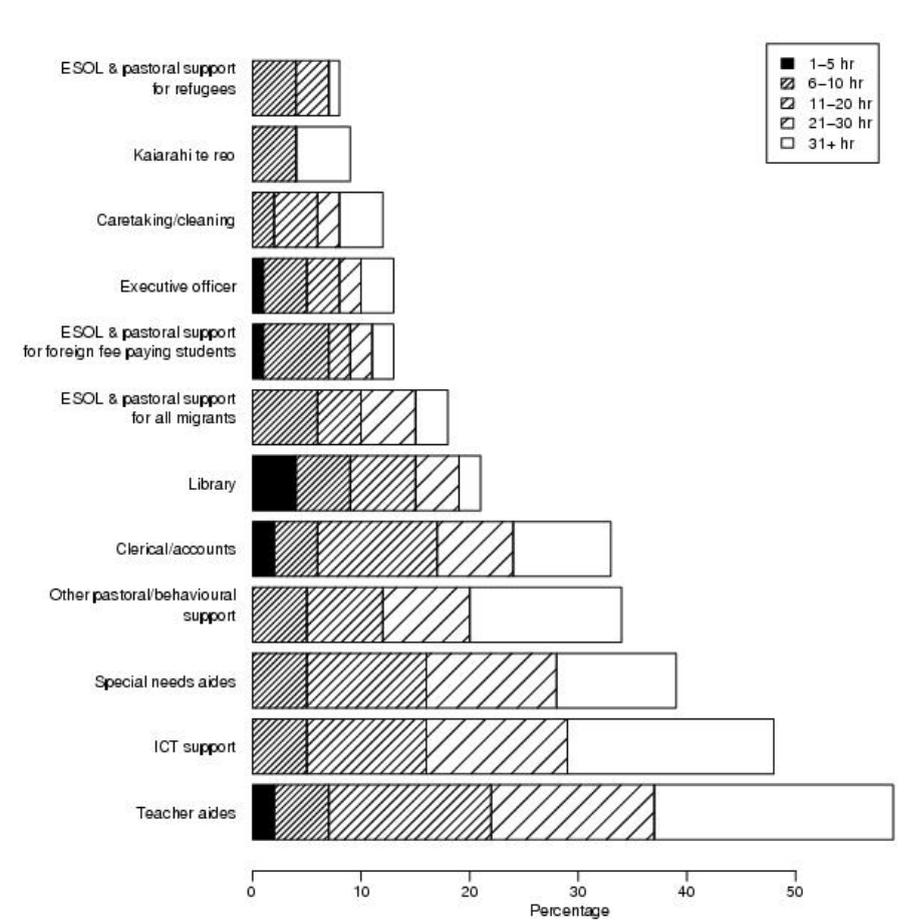
Mid-career teachers (6–15, or 16–30 years' experience) were those most likely to say they will be teaching in the same school in 5 years. Those with 16–30 years' experience were also the group most likely to give a provisional response, saying they would still be teaching in the same school if they could not get a job outside teaching, or if a management opportunity became available. Those intending to move on were most likely to be the early career teachers (less than 2, or 2–5 years' experience) and those nearing retirement (31+ years).

Rural teachers were more likely to say that they would not be at the same school in 5 years. Instead they were more likely to be expecting to move school, move in the education sector, or to retire. They were also less likely to think they would take a break, or to not know what they wanted to do. Teachers in secondary urban schools were more likely to want to change careers.

Support staff

Sixty-seven percent of principals believed they did not have sufficient funding to employ adequate support staff to meet the school's needs. The next figure shows the number of additional support staff hours they would like to be able to access. The greatest demand is for additional teacher aide time, with some principals wanting 31+ additional hours, which is almost the equivalent of an additional full-time position. ICT support is the other area seen to be in need of some level of additional support staffing by close to half of the principals.

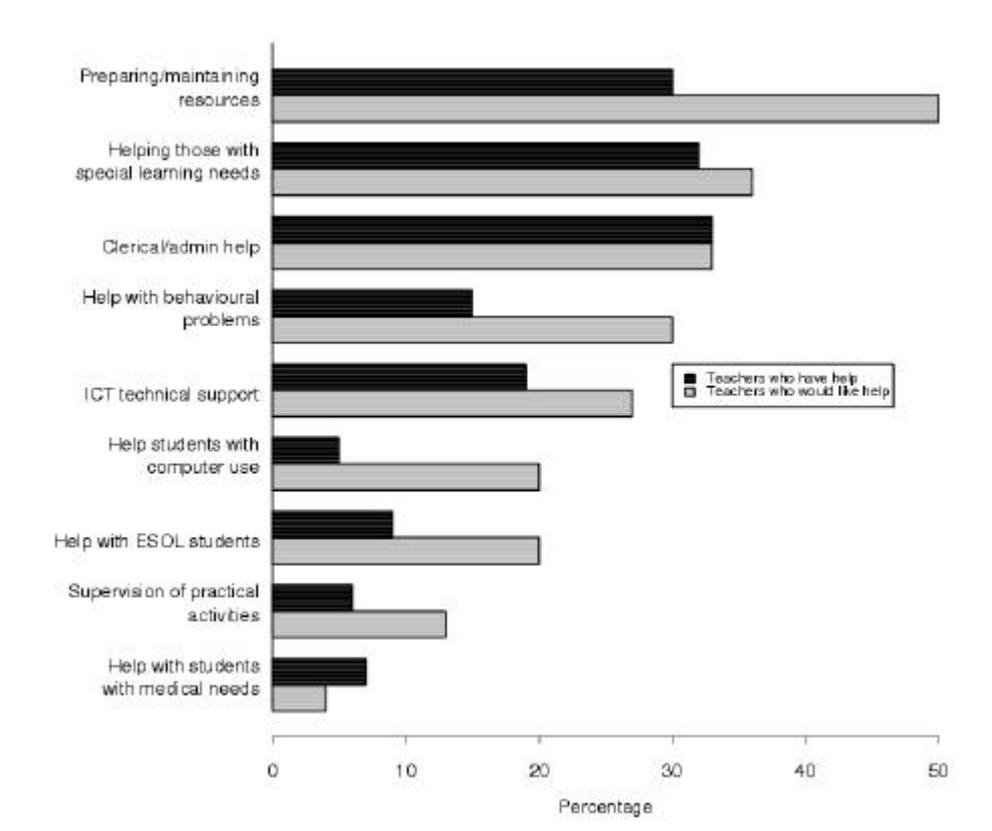
Figure 4 Additional support staff hours wanted by principals



Most principals (87 percent) said the school had no problem getting support staff. In the 12 percent of cases where this was an issue, problematic areas were getting ICT staff and teacher aides (both 7 percent), special needs aides (5 percent), and Māori language aides and science technicians (both 4 percent). Also mentioned were ESOL, library, and reception/administration staff (all 1 percent).

Seventy percent of teachers said they had help from support staff albeit for modest amounts of time. Some got less than 1 hour's help a week (15 percent), some between 1 and 2.4 hours (20 percent), some between 2.5 and 5 hours (14 percent), and some more than 5 hours (17 percent). Seventy-two percent said they could use more support staff time, although again demands were modest. Almost half the teachers (49 percent) hoped for between 1–5 hour's support time per week and 18 percent hoped for more than 5 hours. Actual and desired uses of this time are shown in the next graph. While levels of clerical help are about right, there is a wide range of other types of tasks for which teachers would like more help. The largest gaps between help available and help wanted are for preparing and maintaining resources, and for help with behavioural problems and ICT.

Figure 5 A comparison of teachers' actual and desired help from support staff



Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were the least likely, and teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools the most likely, to have access to clerical and administration help. Teachers in state-integrated schools were less likely to have help from support staff for dealing with students' behavioural problems, but they were also less likely to want such help.

Teachers in schools with rolls of 299 or fewer were more likely to want additional clerical/administration help. Teachers in rural schools were less likely to want ESOL support from support staff.

Operational/personnel innovation

Most principals said they would like to be able to employ more staff but could not. Eighty percent said there was an operational or personnel innovation they would like to make. The next table shows that employing more administrative staff or ICT specialists topped the wish list.

Table 17 **Operational/personnel innovations principals would like to make**

Innovation	Principals (n=95) %
Employ more administration staff	54
Employ ICT specialists	42
Employ more specialist staff	28
Employ pastoral support staff	28
No restrictions on operational/personal innovations	18

A few principals wanted to employ a social worker, or include staff professional development as part of their contract (both 2 percent). Also mentioned were employing more senior management staff, a researcher, or a learning co-ordinator, and wanting to coach staff in a “new paradigm” (all 1 percent).

Lack of money was the main reason given for not being able to make these changes (78 percent). In some cases the staffing formula was seen to be inhibit change (37 percent). Also mentioned was lack of time (1 percent). No principals identified lack of board commitment as a factor that inhibited innovation in this area.

Eighty-two percent of principals who said there was an operational/personnel innovation they were unable to make also said there was a curriculum innovation they were unable to make (see Section 12). Since lack of money was identified as the main constraining reason in both cases, it seems that resourcing rather than regulation was perceived as the main obstacle to change.

Summary

There was a widespread perception that the staffing entitlement was not sufficient to meet the needs of secondary schools. Most schools employed additional teaching staff, and funded them in a variety of ways. Funding generated by international students was commonly used for this purpose, as was the schools’ operations grant, or STAR funding. Schools eligible for SEG and TFEA funding used this to employ additional staff. Teachers employed above entitlement were commonly providing additional learning support in areas such as ESOL, special needs, or literacy or numeracy programmes.

Most schools, and especially lower decile schools, had difficulty attracting suitably qualified teachers and relieving teachers. In 2002 a third of the schools faced situations where students did not have a suitable teacher for short periods of time and in a quarter of the schools this situation continued for extended periods of time. The core curriculum subjects were more likely to be areas of teacher shortage. Indications are that applicants seen as unsuitable for teaching positions were often migrants, with poor English, or a lack of appropriate qualifications or local knowledge.

Most schools employed at least one provisionally registered teacher and some had as many as 10 on the staff. Nearly half the principals were dissatisfied with some aspect of their PRTs’ initial

teacher education—most commonly their ability to manage student behaviour, although some teacher education providers were seen to be better than others at preparing beginning teachers. PRTs experienced different levels and types of ongoing education and support in different schools. A third of them did not have any formal support programme. For the others, group meetings were the most common formal support provided. PRTs in the biggest schools were more likely to have opportunities to observe other teachers at work—a form of support that was provided to less than half the PRTs overall.

A majority of teachers had some help from support staff, although the extent of this help was very variable. Most teachers and principals wanted to see modest amounts of additional help from support staff, particularly for preparing and maintaining resources, working with special needs students, ICT technical support, and behavioural management. Those in higher decile schools were more likely to have clerical and administration support but teachers generally felt they had access to the amount of support they needed in this area. Just over half the principals wanted to employ more administrative staff. Attracting suitably qualified support staff was not as difficult as attracting good teaching staff but many principals wanted to employ more of them than they could afford.

Very few principals felt trapped in their career, compared to 10 percent of teachers. Although more than half the teachers held some position of responsibility, relatively few were interested in becoming a principal, and more than half said they preferred their classroom roles. For a variety of reasons, around half expected to be leaving teaching within the next 5 years, with mid-career teachers those most likely to be staying. Just under half the principals also expected to change careers, retire, or were not sure about their career directions.

5. Property

Development and maintenance of school buildings and grounds is a key board of trustees responsibility and a major educational expense. Nine percent of government funding going to schools in 2002 was for property. Prior to 2000, operational funding was to cover the property maintenance which could be expected to fall within a 10-year period, and schools applied to the Ministry of Education for major maintenance and capital projects, such as remodelling or building new administration blocks. In 2000, the means of funding property development shifted to the Five-Year Property Programme, which provides schools with an inflation-adjusted budget for 5 years, leaving decisions on how to spend this money up to boards of trustees. Boards are also responsible for managing the projects undertaken. The programme has been progressively rolled out, with the final schools coming onto the programme in 2004/05. State schools needed to have a 10-year property plan in place before coming onto the programme. Funding is provided separately for new schools, for new classrooms where schools have substantial roll growth, and for “catastrophic events” (fire, flood, earthquake, etc). A new property guide (code) for composite and secondary (Years 7–13) schools was consulted on in 2003.

Seventy-two percent of principals said their school had a 5-year property agreement with the Ministry of Education in 2003. This had allowed them to upgrade property (45 percent), or to get new buildings (14 percent). Nineteen percent of principals said they had as yet seen no difference as a result of entering this agreement and 4 percent said it was not as useful as expected. State schools were more likely to have a 5-year property programme agreement with the MoE. (Just one of the 17 integrated schools had such an agreement in 2003.) Principals in decile 3 and 4 schools were less likely to say the 5-year property agreement had enabled them to upgrade school property.

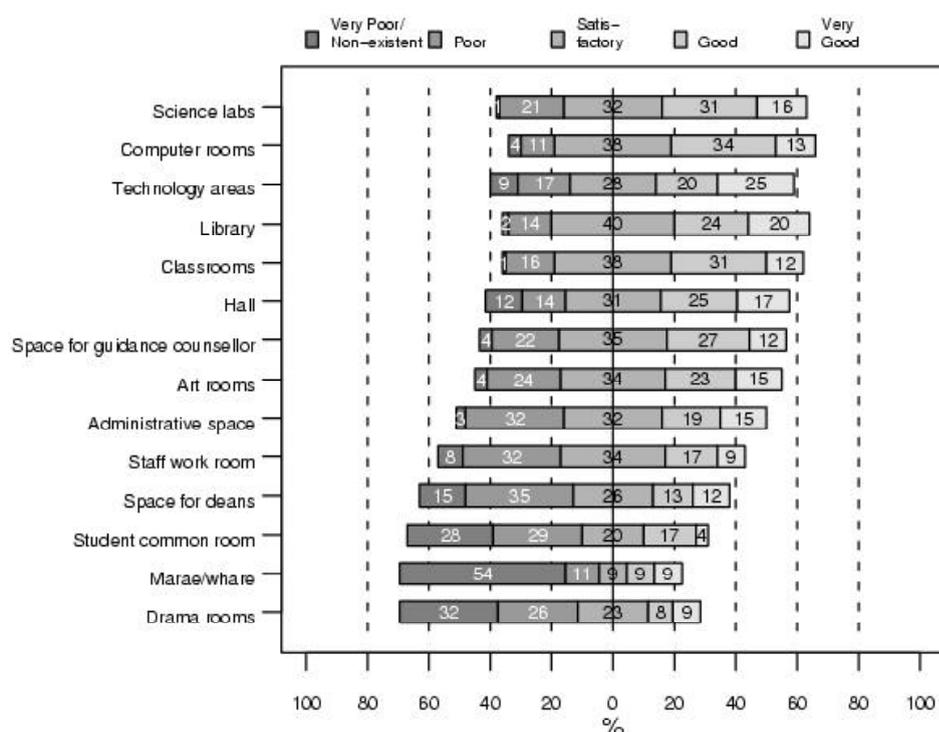
Contestable funding is available to schools in the form of a *School Property for the Future* scheme. Most principals (84 percent) had not sought funding from this source. Of those who had, 4 percent were successful in gaining funding to the level sought and another 4 percent got some funding. Seven percent were refused funding (see Section 3).

Adequacy of school buildings and grounds

Principal perspectives

The next figure shows principals' views of the adequacy of different types of rooms and spaces provided in the school. In general the specialist spaces that are very expensive to resource were the most likely to be seen as good or very good. Such spaces include computer and science laboratories, technology rooms, and the library. Spaces for teaching the arts were seen as less adequate overall—an interesting finding in view of other research that has found that the arts subjects are increasingly sought-after choices in the senior secondary school (Hipkins et al., 2004).

Figure 6 Principals' views of adequacy of their school's rooms and spaces



Other research has shown that, where funding is constrained, school staff are likely to give priority to students over property refurbishment or development, and may be reluctant to address issues of the quality of their own working conditions (Wylie & King, 2004). This may be why staff workrooms and spaces for deans were mostly seen as, at best satisfactory, and often as poor or very poor. It is notable that more than half the survey schools did not have a marae/whare, or if they did it was in very poor condition. Principals of schools where less than 8 percent of the students were Māori were more likely to say the marae was very poor or non-existent.

There was a relationship between school decile and principals' perceptions of the condition of the school's classrooms. Principals in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to think classrooms were poor or very poor, those in decile 5 and 6 schools to think they were adequate, and those in decile 9 and 10 schools to think they were good or very good. Similarly, science laboratories were more likely to be seen as poor in decile 1 and 2 schools, satisfactory in decile 3 and 4 schools, good in decile 5 and 6 schools, and very good in decile 9 and 10 schools.

Drama rooms were non-existent in most rural schools and were rated as poor by a third of the principals in main urban schools.

Trustee perspectives

Forty-two percent of trustees saw improvements to the grounds and buildings as a major achievement of their work (see Section 11), compared to 5 percent who would like to be less involved in property maintenance (see Section 10). Fifty-seven percent of trustees said their board had faced problems or issues with respect to property maintenance in the last 3 years but 11 percent were not sure. The nature of the problems reported is shown in the next table. The most commonly cited issues were financial. Vandalism is further discussed below. It is interesting to note the extent to which leaky building problems have impacted on secondary schools.

Table 18 **The nature of property maintenance issues reported by trustees**

Problem/issue	(n=180) %
Continuing problem of deferred maintenance	29
Getting money from Ministry of Education	28
Vandalism	19
Leaky buildings	16
Unsatisfactory repairs	12
Major unexpected problem	9
Cost of maintenance contract	8
Ongoing equipment problems	6
Insurance	4
No issues identified	43

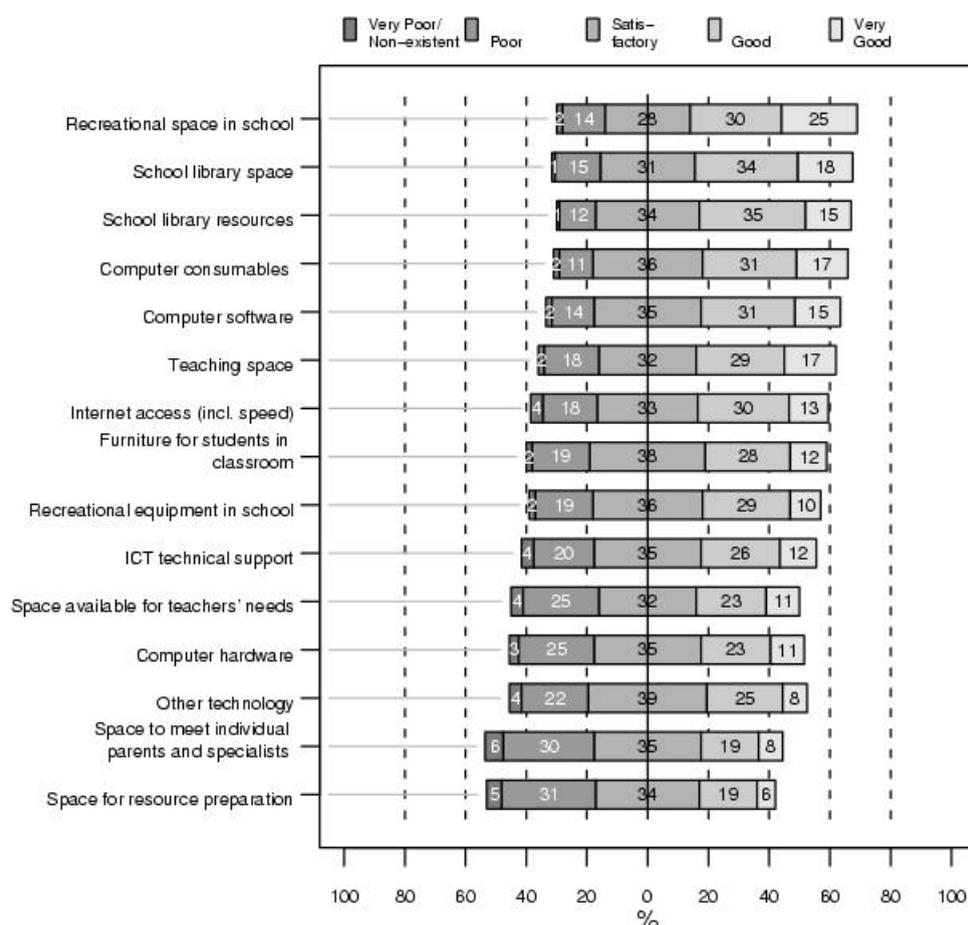
Most commonly boards responded to these problems by spending more time dealing with the Ministry of Education (35 percent). Trustees from state-integrated schools were less likely to have spent more time dealing with the MoE for this purpose.

Twenty percent of trustees said they cut back spending in other areas. Some boards put more effort into fundraising or sought help from their local Member of Parliament (both 9 percent). Some sought advice from other schools (6 percent), or from the School Trustees Association (4 percent). These actions solved the problem or issue in 12 percent of cases and partially solved it in another 18 percent. Sixteen percent of trustees said it was too soon to tell if the action had been successful. For a few boards the action taken was not successful or was seen to be beyond the capacity of the board to resolve (both 3 percent).

Teacher perspectives

The next figure shows teachers' views of the adequacy of the teaching spaces and the major resources²⁶ available to them. On balance, most of these resources were seen as satisfactory or better. Like the principals, teachers expressed somewhat higher levels of satisfaction with library spaces and resources which are shared by the whole school community, than with spaces where they carried out their own activities. Space for resource preparation, and places to meet individual parents and specialists were seen as the least adequate overall.

Figure 7 Adequacy of school's equipment and material—teachers' views



Vandalism

Most schools face at least some problems with vandalism. For many schools the problems are of a minor nature but a number of schools face major vandalism. The next two tables show principals' assessment of the extent and nature of vandalism and theft faced by the school.

²⁶ These are primarily shared resources within the school – those associated with individual classes/subjects are discussed in Section 12, Curriculum.

Table 19 **Extent of vandalism and theft at schools**

Extent (in one year)	(n=95) %
Minor vandalism or theft	68
Major vandalism or theft	21
No vandalism or theft	8
Not sure whether vandalism or theft has occurred	2

State schools with rolls between 500–999 students were more likely to have experienced major vandalism. Integrated schools and schools with rolls of less than 300 were less likely to have experienced vandalism.

Table 20 **Kinds of vandalism and theft at schools**

Kind of vandalism or theft (in one year)	(n=95) %
Graffiti/tagging	72
Broken windows	65
Theft	55
Damage to toilet areas	50
Break-ins	44
Broken furniture/fittings	44
Damage to grounds/playground equipment	38
Damage to teachers' property	33
Arson	12
No vandalism or theft at school	8

Rural schools were less likely to have problems with graffiti or tagging. There was a trend for the severity of the problems, and for the frequency of almost all of these vandalism problems, to decrease as school decile increased.

Summary

By the time of the survey in 2003, nearly three-quarters of the schools had signed a 5-year property agreement with the Ministry of Education and 60 percent of them had upgraded or developed new property as a result. Improvements to the grounds and buildings were a source of satisfaction for nearly half the trustees.

More than half the trustees said their board had faced property maintenance issues in the last 3 years and deferred maintenance was the issue most frequently mentioned.

Specialist facilities such as the library, science laboratories, and ICT rooms were likely to be in better condition than classrooms or other spaces used by teachers and administrative staff. Around half the schools appeared not to have a marae, and spaces for teaching the arts were often seen as inadequate.

Vandalism was a problem in most schools, although the seriousness varied. While graffiti/tagging and broken windows were the most common form of damage, theft or damage to fixtures and fittings were also an issue for at least half the schools. Nineteen percent of trustees identified vandalism as a property maintenance issue faced by the school.

6. Advice, information, and support

All schools receive free information from government departments and agencies on the requirements they must meet, and advice on how to meet them. The Ministry of Education (MoE), the Education Review Office (ERO), the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), and the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC) all have their own websites. People in schools can also contact their regional Ministry of Education office. NZQA assigns a School Relationship Officer to every secondary school. These people are helping schools implement the requirements of the new NCEA qualification that began replacing other senior secondary school qualifications in 2002, with implementation due to be completed in 2004.

The New Zealand School Trustees Association (NZSTA) is the national organisation that provides services to member boards of trustees. It maintains a website and produces a monthly magazine, a *Trustee Handbook*, and various employment-related publications. NZSTA provides expert personnel/industrial relations advice, maintains a helpdesk for trustees, and provides some training.

The Secondary Principals Association of New Zealand (SPANZ) is a professional body with wide membership amongst secondary principals. It produces a wide range of professional material including regular newsletters, information papers, a strategic planning booklet, the SPANZ journal, and a legal manual. SPANZ also holds an annual conference for its members. The PPTA Principals' Council represents those principals who belong to the Post Primary Teachers Association (PPTA). As well as representing members on union-related issues such as employment and working conditions, PPTA has maintained an active interest in professional issues in secondary education (Grant, 2003).

The Ministry of Education also funds a School Support Service that provides free advice and support to schools, particularly in areas identified by the MoE as strategic priorities. It provides advice and professional development in curriculum, pedagogy, and management areas.

Schools' access to advice

Notwithstanding the number of avenues for advice open to them, 41 percent of principals identified one, two, or three areas where the school did not have access to satisfactory advice. A further 20 percent said they could not access the advice they needed in four or more areas. A relatively high 39 percent of principals did not respond to this question.

Equity issues were the most often identified area of need for advice, with 27 percent of principals saying they needed advice on increasing engagement for Māori students, and 15 percent saying they could not access the advice they needed on the Treaty of Waitangi. Five percent could not access advice on special needs students.

Curriculum, assessment, and learning issues were another area of concern. Some principals perceived a lack of access to advice on learning styles (16 percent), NCEA (14 percent), different curriculum areas, assessment for learning, and ICT (all 8 percent), and assessment for qualifications (3 percent). Some principals had not been able to access advice on staffing issues including industrial issues (10.5 percent), performance management (6 percent), and recruitment and human resources (HR) (5 percent).

There was also a clutch of management areas for which principals felt the school needed access to advice. These included budgeting/finances (9.5 percent), school discipline/positive behaviour (8 percent), school development and improvement (7 percent), school planning and reporting requirements and communication with parents (both 5 percent), ERO reviews (4 percent), and audit office requirements (3 percent).

Property and management issues for which schools lacked access to advice included property development (12 percent), building maintenance and repairs (6 percent), and school library development (4 percent).

Principals' preferred sources of advice and support

The next table compares principals' preferred sources of advice for curriculum and management questions and issues.

When they needed advice about curriculum issues, principals were most likely to turn to other principals, either directly, or through their local principals' association, or to discuss the issue with their teachers. Beyond these networks, School Support Services, the MoE, and NZQA's Relationship Managers were preferred sources of advice. Fewer principals sought advice on curriculum matters from ERO. Also mentioned for curriculum queries were NZQA officials, NZCER, and Multiserve (all 1 percent).

There were some changes to preferred sources of advice when dealing with management questions and issues. Again, other principals were the most commonly preferred source of advice, followed by the MoE. SPANZ and NZSTA played a much more prominent role and School Support Services played a less prominent role in the provision of management advice. As for curriculum questions, advice was less often sought from ERO. Also mentioned for management queries were Multiserve, and a principal's mentor (both 1 percent).

Table 21 Principals' preferred sources of advice

Who talked to	Curriculum questions (n=95) %	Management questions (n=95) %
Another local principal	78	76
Teacher in the school	70	28
Adviser (School Support Services)	61	26
Non-local principal	45	54
Ministry of Education	42	50
NZQA school relationship manager	40	-
Local principals' association	32	39
University/college of education	31	5
SPANZ	28	52
Subject area associations	27	-
Consultant	20	16
NZQA hotline	20	-
PPTA	20	30
PPTA Principals Council	17	27
Learning Media	10	-
Education Review Office	10	7
Teacher education provider	5	1
NZSTA	-	46

Principals in small schools were more likely to consult a subject association about a curriculum question. Principals of minor urban schools were more likely to consult a non-local principal, while those in secondary urban schools were less likely to consult other local principals about curriculum problems.

Principals in secondary urban schools were more likely to consult a non-local principal about a management question, while those in minor urban schools were more likely to consult SPANZ.

Principals' contact with each other

The above responses show that the principals relied a great deal on their peers for support and advice and they had a range of ways of maintaining contact with each other. Most of them (78 percent) identified at least three ways in which they kept in contact with other principals. Almost all of them belonged to their local principals' association and many also belonged to other formal networks such as SPANZ or the PPTA Principals' Council. Forty-two percent of the principals in their first 2 years in the role belonged to a principal mentoring scheme. Informal contact, and electronic contact via email and the Leadspace online forum were also common. Also mentioned was contact via "subject/area associations" (2 percent).

Table 22 Principals' contact with their colleagues

Contact	(n=95) %
Local principals' association	93
SPANZ	73
Cluster meetings	71
Informal	65
Email	59
Leadspace	44
PPTA Principals' Council	44
Mentoring scheme	17
Support group	13

Principals in decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely, and those in decile 1 and 2 schools less likely, to have had contact with other principals via the PPTA Principals' Council.

Contact with their peers was seen to mostly meet their needs by 75 percent of the principals, and to sometimes meet their needs by a further 21 percent.

Teachers' preferred sources of advice and support

Like the principals, many secondary teachers turned to their peers as the most useful source of ideas and advice for their work, either directly or via one-off conferences (often sponsored by subject associations). Whole-school development, and tasks associated with the implementation of the NCEA provided other opportunities to interact and share ideas, and advisers from School Support Services were seen as other sources of useful ideas for teaching programmes. It was less common for teachers to have opportunities to visit peers in another school. Like the trustees, teachers also drew on a range of sources of written information, including both books and the Internet. The Te Kete Ipurangi (TKI) website, funded by the MoE to provide curriculum advice to schools, was used by fewer teachers than was the Internet in general. Also mentioned were assessment tools such as the Assessment Resource Banks (ARBs), the National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP) (both 2 percent), other teachers, the teacher's own ideas (both 1 percent), and cluster group meetings (under 1 percent).

Table 23 Teachers' sources of most useful teaching ideas

Source	(n=744) %
Other teachers in school	56
One-off courses/conferences/professional development	52
Reading	39
Ongoing whole-school professional development	35
Adviser/teacher support service	30
NCEA	28
Internet	27
Personal education/training	26
TKI	17
Visits to another school	16
Research findings	15
New curriculum support materials	15

Teachers in rural and small schools were less likely to get useful ideas for their teaching programmes from other experienced teachers in their school. Instead, they were more likely to turn to advisers/teacher support services, and teachers in small schools were more likely to get useful ideas from TKI. Teachers in state-integrated schools were also more likely to get useful ideas from advisers/School Support Services. Teachers in state schools were more likely to get useful ideas from whole-school professional development. Teachers in decile 1–4 schools were more likely to get useful ideas during visits to another school and teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools found the NCEA a useful source of teaching ideas.

Areas where teachers had unmet needs for personal advice

Fifty-nine percent of teachers felt they were missing out on advice and information they needed to do their jobs, and a further 9 percent were not sure.

As in the 1999 NZCER National Survey of Primary Schools (Wylie, 1999) stress management topped the list of areas where advice was needed. The next two most often cited topics—student responsibility for learning and student behaviour/positive discipline—could demonstrably contribute to stress reduction where suitable measures are successfully implemented.

Table 24 **Teachers' unmet needs for advice**

Topic	(n=744) %
Stress management	22
Student responsibility for learning	20
Student behaviour/positive discipline	18
ICT use	18
Teaching methods	16
Moderation of assessment	16
Specific curriculum area	15
Analysis of assessment results	14
Different learning styles	13
Future teaching career	11
Effective roles and relationships in school environment	10
Classroom management	9
Special needs students	8
Curriculum integration	7
Performance management	6
Positions available	5

Rural teachers were more likely to say they were lacking advice about their future teaching career, and teachers in small schools were more likely to feel they were lacking advice about stress management.

Areas where teachers perceived the school needed advice

Just over half the teachers (54 percent) also thought there were areas where the school needed advice but was missing out. These are shown in the next table.

In this context, stress management and topics related to relieving stress were chosen by even more teachers, suggesting an awareness that this was a problem they could not successfully address by themselves. The number who thought the school needed advice on successful roles and relationships doubled compared to those who thought they needed such advice themselves. By contrast, discipline was seen as an area where the school needed advice by less than 1 percent of the teachers, although 18 percent of them had said they needed advice on this personally. Māori achievement was mentioned by less than 1 percent of the teachers, in contrast to greater need for advice seen by principals, as outlined above.

Table 25 Areas where teachers identified a school need for advice

Topic	(n=744) %
Stress management	29
Improving students' social skills/stopping bullying	23
Successful relationships and roles in schools	21
Curriculum innovation	18
Innovation in teaching methods	17
Resolving conflict	14
Analysis of assessment results	10
Financial management/budgeting	10
Performance management	8
Professional standards	7
Equity issues	7
Moderation of assessment	6

There was a trend for rural teachers, teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools, and those in small schools to be more likely to think the school needed advice about equity issues, and about improving the students' social skills and stopping bullying. Response rates to this factor tended to decrease as decile increased, with teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools less likely to think the school needed advice on improving the students' social skills and stopping bullying. In view of this pattern of responses, it is perhaps not surprising that teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools and in small schools were also more likely to think the school needed advice about stress management.

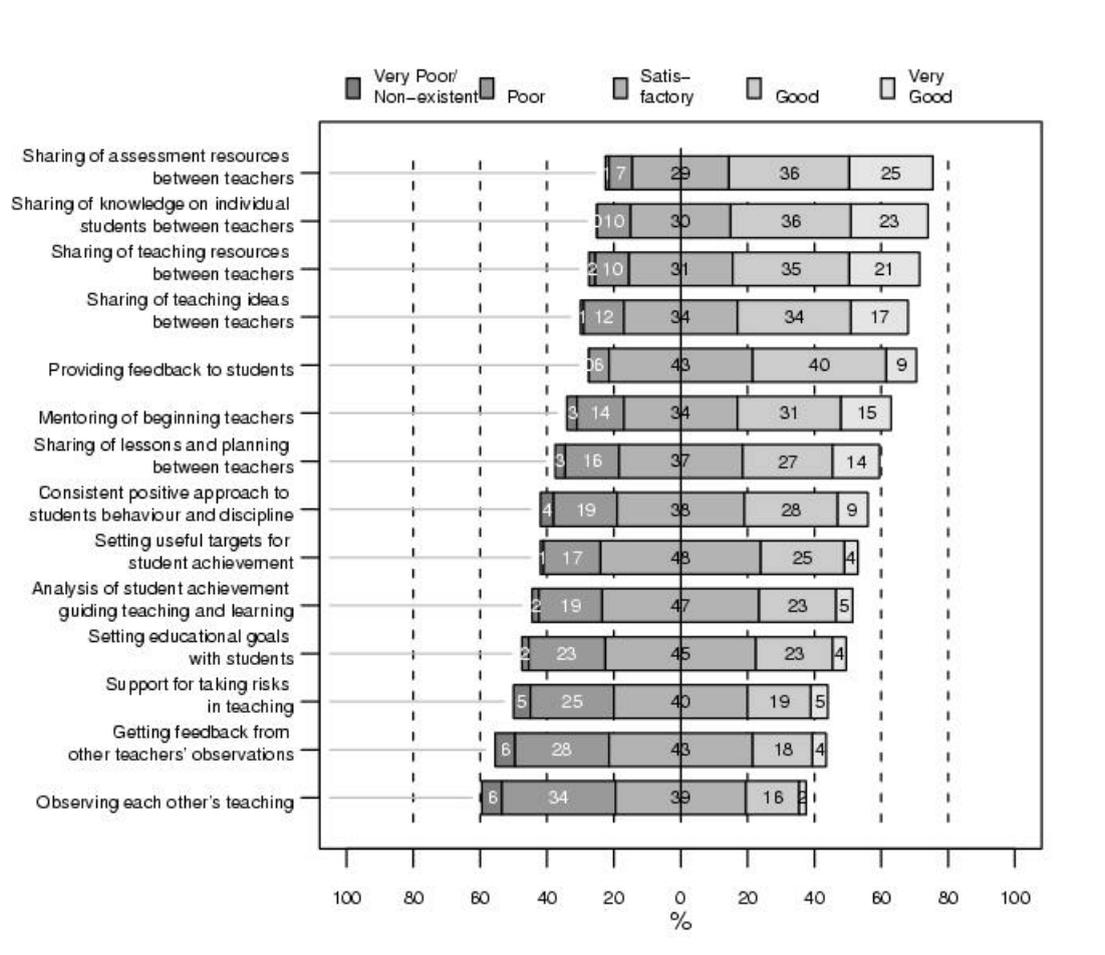
Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to say the school needed advice about financial management/budgeting, while those in small schools were more likely to think the school needed advice about successful relationships and roles in schools. Teachers in state-integrated schools and in small schools were more likely to think the school needed advice about curriculum innovation. They, too, were more likely to think advice about stress management was needed.

Teacher collegiality

As the next figure shows, most secondary teachers experience high levels of collegiality in the sharing of resources and knowledge related to their work in general. The highest incidence was reported for the sharing of assessment resources, which supports claims made by principals in the *Learning Curves* schools that the implementation of the NCEA had enhanced teachers' collegiality and teamwork related to assessment-for-qualifications in the senior secondary school (Hipkins et al., 2004). Other aspects of professional practice that could potentially change with the NCEA implementation include the analysis of the detailed student achievement data generated, with a view to guiding a range of teaching and learning decisions and actions. In contrast to the sharing of assessment resources, less than a third of teachers rated sharing in the three areas of practice directly related to this potential change (analysis of data, setting targets, and setting goals) as good or very good.

Teachers were also less likely to give or receive feedback about teaching on the basis of direct classroom observations. They seemed to prefer to retain a certain level of autonomy in lesson planning and only a quarter perceived that there was good or very good support for taking risks in their teaching.

Figure 8 Teachers' ratings of various aspects of school



Teachers in all types of urban schools were generally more satisfied than rural teachers with the sharing of assessment resources within the school. Teachers in minor urban schools were generally more satisfied with school practice in setting targets for student achievement, while teachers in rural schools were generally less satisfied with their opportunities to observe each other teaching.

There was a relationship between school decile and teachers' ratings of some aspects of school-wide practice. Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to rate their school good or very good on taking a consistent, positive approach to discipline. Those in decile 1-6 schools were more likely to rate this as very poor/non-existent or poor, and those in decile 7-8 schools to rate a consistent and positive approach to discipline as satisfactory. Similarly, teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to rate the school's analysis of student achievement as very

poor/non-existent or poor, while those in decile 9 or 10 schools were more likely to rate this as very good.

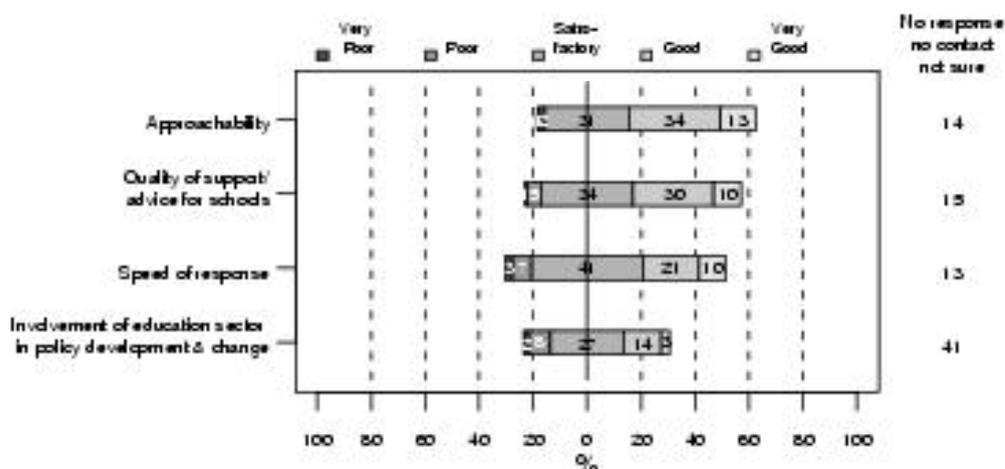
Agencies that provide advice and support to schools

The principal and teacher surveys included some Likert-scaled questions about a range of government-funded agencies that provide professional advice and support to schools. NZQA was inadvertently omitted from the questionnaires and will be included in the next national survey. Group Special Education and Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs) are discussed in Section 14, in the context of students with special needs. Services provided by the MoE and ERO are discussed in Section 17. Agencies discussed in this section include School Support Services, the Teachers' Council, and Child, Youth and Family Services (CYFS). The New Zealand School Trustees Association's (NZSTA) services are also discussed at the end of this section.

Advisers/School Support Services

As outlined above, almost two-thirds of principals and a third of the teachers rated School Support Services as a preferred source of curriculum and teaching advice. The next figure shows the principals' views of the quality of the services they provided. Services were generally regarded as satisfactory or better for approachability, quality of resources, and speed of response. The higher levels of uncertainty about School Support Services' involvement in policy development and change in the education sector mirrors the pattern found for all the other support agencies, including the Ministry of Education itself.

Figure 9 Principals' views of the quality of services provided by School Support Services



On average, 61 percent of teachers either did not respond to the equivalent set of questions about the quality of School Support Services, or had no contact with them, or were unsure. This is consistent with the rating of this agency as a preferred source of advice by just 30 percent of the teachers (see above). Most of those who responded rated the services provided as satisfactory or better (approachability and speed of response were both 34 percent; quality of support and advice was 31 percent). Like the principals, teachers were less sure about School Support Services' involvement in policy development and change in the education sector (24 percent rated this satisfactory or better, 66 percent were unsure or did not respond).

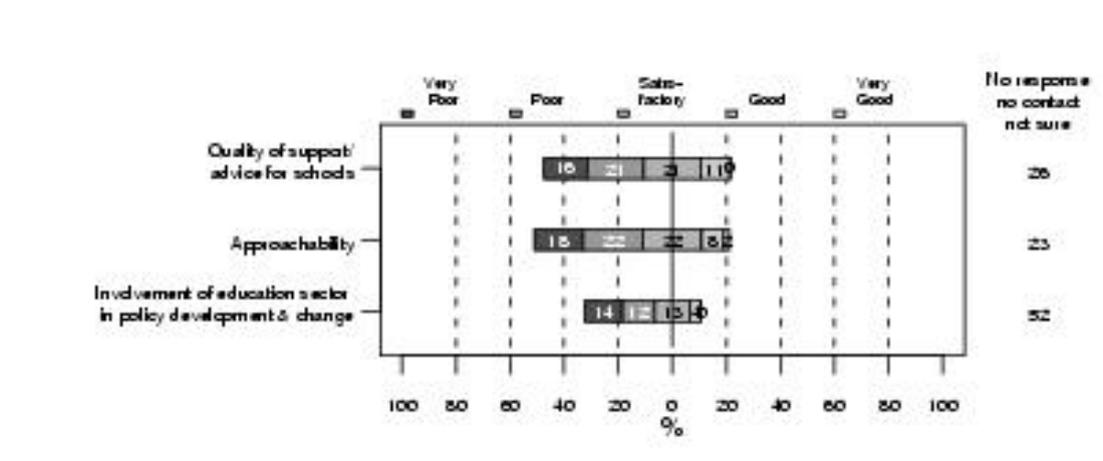
Rural teachers were also more likely to say they had good contact with School Support Services, and they were less likely to have had no contact or very little contact. Teachers in secondary urban schools were more likely to have had no contact, or to be unsure of the quality of School Support Services, and they were less likely to be satisfied with the contact they had had.

The Teachers' Council

Established under the Education Standards Act 2001, the New Zealand Teachers' Council (NZTC) replaced the former Teacher Registration Board (TRB) on 1 February 2002. It was set up to be the professional body for all registered teachers working in early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary, and other teaching situations in New Zealand. The NZTC's functions include the approval of initial teacher education courses, registration and de-registration of teachers, the development of a code of ethics for teachers, and the general provision of professional leadership to teachers and others involved in schools and early childhood education. The early years of the NZTC were dogged by controversy about slow provision of registration services and several high-level leadership changes.

The next figure shows principals' responses to the three factors surveyed for the NZTC. A quarter of the principals said they had no contact with the NZTC or were not sure about the quality of advice or their approachability. These two factors were rated as poor or very poor by more principals than those who rated them as satisfactory or better. While we have found uncertainty about *any* agency's involvement in policy development and change in the education sector, more than half of the principals felt unable to rate the NZTC on this, and those who did so were mostly negative. It appears that the NZTC's emergent role in providing professional leadership for the teaching profession was not yet evident to secondary principals in mid-2003.

Figure 10 Principals' views of the quality of the New Zealand Teachers' Council's services



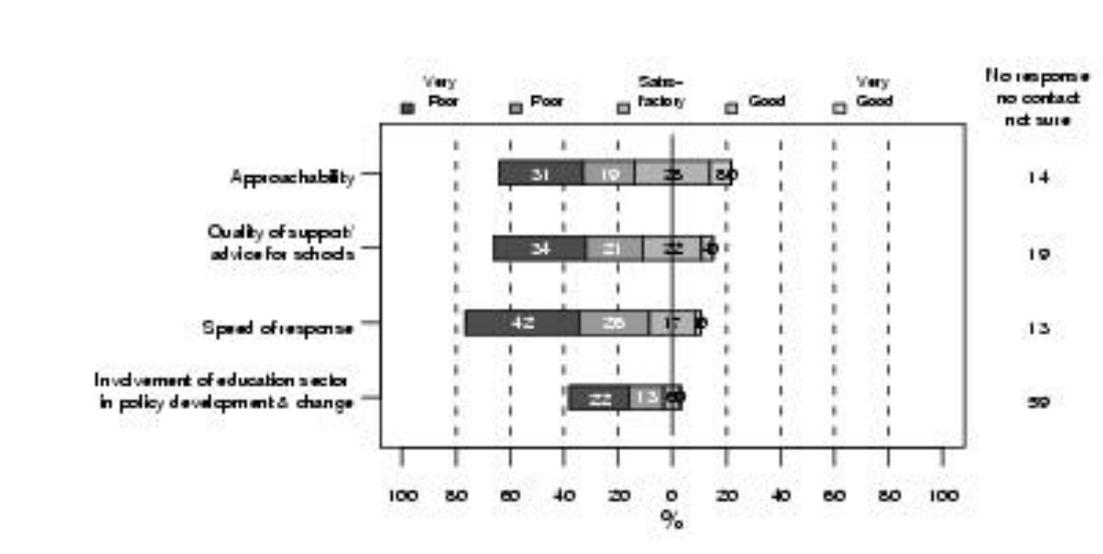
The average non-response/no contact/not sure response from teachers for the same three factors was 75 percent. Like the principals, teachers who did rate the NZTC's services tended to be negative. Their speed of response was seen as poor/very poor by 19 percent of teachers, compared to 12 percent who rated it satisfactory or good. The NZTC's approachability was rated as poor/very poor by 12 percent of teachers, but 14 percent rated this as satisfactory or good. (There were no very good ratings given.) Eighty-two percent of teachers declined to comment on the NZTC's involvement in policy development and change in the education sector.

Child, Youth and Family Services (CYFS)

Schools can make contact with CYFS when students in their care need support services to be safe and secure in their family/personal lives. Amongst their many roles, CYFS works with families, whānau, and community agencies to protect children and ensure that those in need are secure and cared for, and to manage young offenders. Accordingly, schools are likely to call on CYFS services in high-stress situations that are emotionally charged for all involved. How well were they perceived to do?

Both principals and teachers were asked about three aspects of CYFS' services. Responses were generally more negative than for any of the other agencies included in the survey. As the next figure shows, many principals rated CYFS as poor or very poor for approachability and quality of advice and support, and even more emphatically so for their speed of response. On average 77 percent of teachers did not respond to these questions, perhaps because deans and guidance counsellors who deal with students' family issues protect their privacy by involving other staff only to the extent that is necessary. With the exception of approachability (7 percent poor/very poor, 13 percent satisfactory or good) responses of teachers mirrored the principals' generally negative ratings of CYFS services. Repeating the pattern we have already seen, 59 percent of principals did not know about CYFS' involvement in policy development and change in the education sector.

Figure 11 Principals' views of the quality of CYFS' services



Rural teachers were more likely to say they had no contact or were unsure about the quality of CYFS' services, or that the quality of their support was very poor.

Trustees' preferred sources of advice and support

Trustees said they drew advice from a wide range of sources, as shown in the next table. Much of this advice came in the form of written materials, with NZSTA and the MoE as the most frequently used sources. The people most likely to be consulted directly were the principal and staff of the school, or other trustees on the same board of trustees.

Table 26 Advice or support received by trustees

Advice or support	(n=180) %
Material from NZSTA	69
Guidance and information from principal/staff	68
Material from Ministry of Education	57
Guidance and information from other trustees on board	44
Contact with NZSTA	37
Material from ERO	37
Material from PPTA	26
Regular contact with trustees from other schools	20
Material from Secondary Principals' Association	20
None	4

Although only 20 percent said they had *regular* contact with trustees of other schools, 48 percent said they had some local contact with trustees on other boards and 12 percent said they had contact with trustees in other localities. Much of this contact appeared to be fortuitous, when trustees met for other purposes (34 percent), or when they were employed in the same workplace

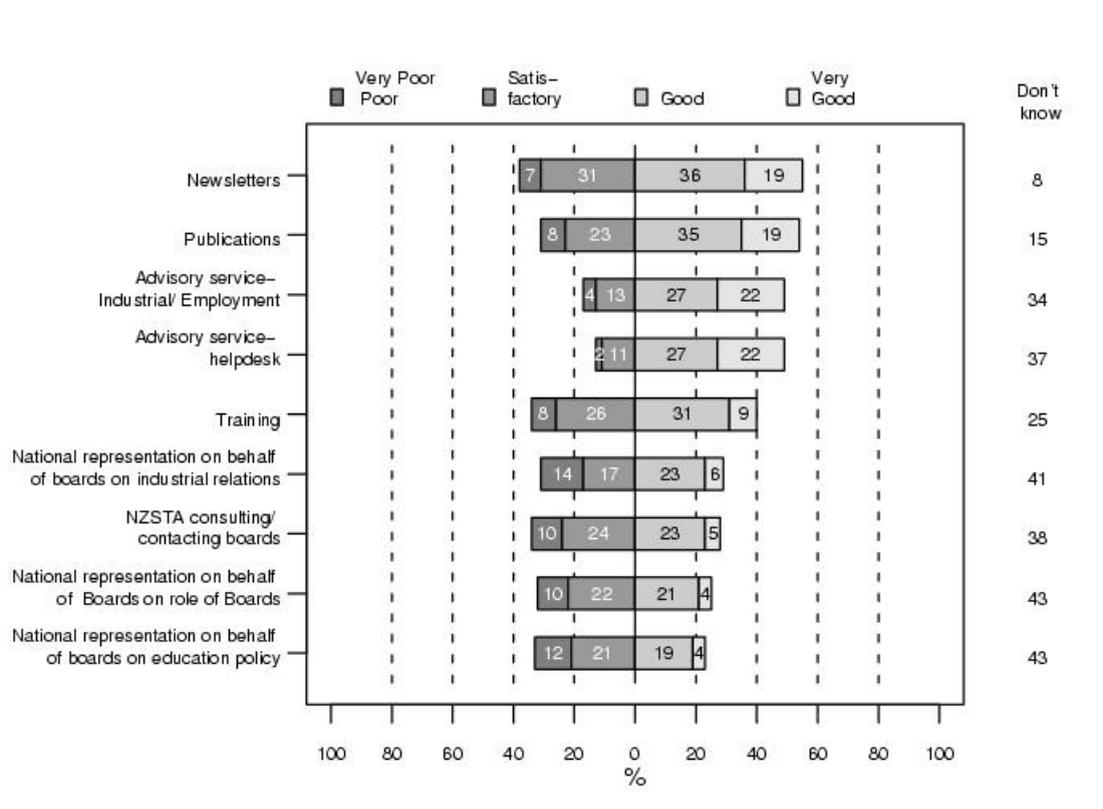
(12 percent). Planned contacts took place at Trustee Association meetings (12 percent) or training (11 percent).

Use of the New Zealand School Trustees Association

Eighty-six percent of secondary school trustees said their board belonged to the New Zealand School Trustees Association, 6 percent did not, and 8 percent were unsure. Boards of decile 8–10 schools, and of schools with rolls of 550+ were less likely to belong to NZSTA.

Congruent with their preferred use of written sources of advice, trustees gave the highest rating amongst the services provided by NZSTA to newsletters and publications. As the next figure also shows, there was a level of dissatisfaction with NZSTA’s role in providing national representation on a range of issues that face boards, including industrial relations, board of trustees’ roles and education policy.

Figure 12 Trustees’ views of the quality of services provided by NZSTA

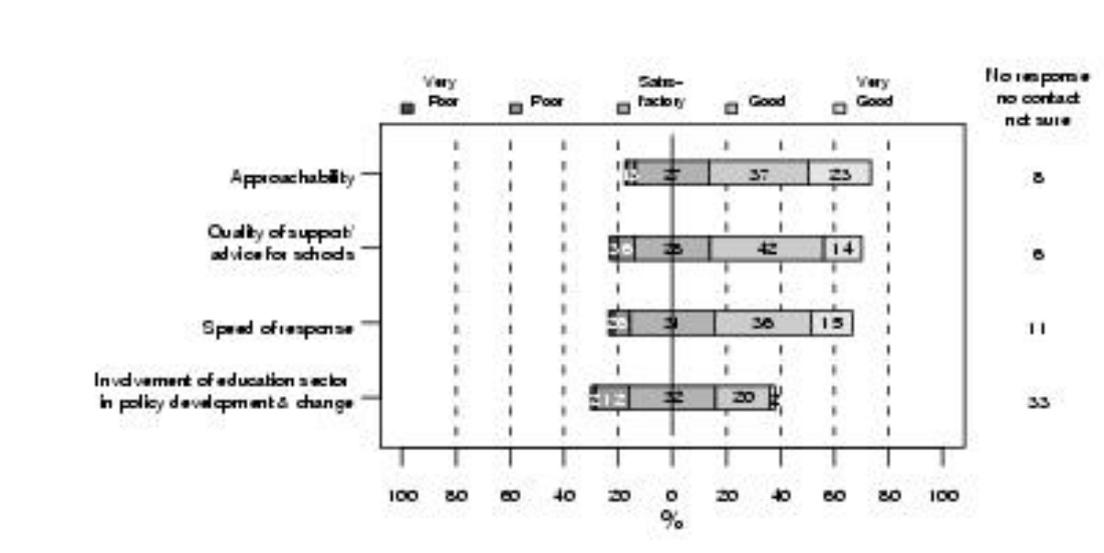


Notwithstanding this pattern of responses, very few trustees responded to an open question that invited suggestions for improvements to NZSTA’s services. Suggestions that were made included improving support to the board (5 percent), quality of training (3 percent), design of surveys and feedback (2 percent), and quality of NZSTA personnel (1 percent).

Most trustees saw it as either essential (46 percent) or desirable (40 percent) that they could access a free and independent support service for help on issues other than those covered by the NZSTA industrial/personnel helpdesks.

Principals were asked to rate NZSTA’s provision of services using the factors given for all the government-funded agencies. While their response categories were somewhat different, like the trustees, very few principals rated NZSTA’s services as poor or very poor and many rated them as good/very good.

Figure 13 Principals’ views of the quality of services provided by NZSTA



Thirty-three percent of principals and 39 percent of trustees did not respond to, or said they did not know about, NZSTA’s involvement in education sector policy development. Teachers were not asked to respond to questions about NZSTA.

Summary

Principals, teachers, and trustees all have needs for advice in a wide range of areas related to their roles. While there are many avenues for receiving advice open to them, some still found it difficult to access advice they felt they needed.

Many principals and teachers turned to their peers as a preferred source of advice. Principals did so formally via principals’ groups and cluster meetings, as well as informally and electronically. A small number of principals who were new to the role used a mentoring scheme. Teachers most often sought advice from colleagues in their own school, or via conferences and one-off events. It was much less common for them to turn to teachers in other schools.

Within each school, there was evidence of high levels of teacher collegiality in some areas, but less sharing in others. Teachers frequently shared ideas, teaching and assessment resources, and

lesson planning, but it was less common for them to give and receive feedback based on observations of each other's teaching. Less than a quarter perceived that there was good or very good support for taking risks in their teaching.

Principals used School Support Services as a source of advice on curriculum matters and were generally happy with the services they provide. Fewer teachers said they turned to School Support advisers for help but it is likely that at least some of the courses and professional development events that they did attend were organised via this agency.

NZSTA was the most frequently accessed external source of advice for school trustees. They also frequently turned to the principal and staff of the school. Nearly half the principals turned to NZSTA for advice about management questions and issues and they were generally happy with the services provided. Trustees preferred to access NZSTA advice via written newsletters and other documents and they were happy with the level of support these provided. Those trustees who used the NZSTA helpdesk were also generally happy with this service. Trustees were less happy with NZSTA's role in providing national representation on a range of issues that face boards of trustees.

Both principals and teachers had a more negative overall view of the services provided by the NZTC, although the Council was still in the process of overcoming leadership and establishment issues in 2003. Principals were generally very negative about the services provided by CYFS. It should be noted that response rates for principals were low, and from teachers were even lower, in response to these particular questions.

7. Professional development and training

The introduction of school qualifications awarded on the basis of standards-based assessment has been accompanied by widespread modifications, if not outright changes, in the professional practices of secondary school teachers and administrators. At the time that this survey was conducted schools were in the middle of the second of 3 years of National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) implementation and nationally provided professional development to accompany that implementation was still in full swing.

Subject teachers were supported to make NCEA-related changes in their assessment practice by the provision of “jumbo days” that explored subject-based changes to assessment practice. While the overall provision of this extensive professional development was managed by School Support Services branches under contract to the Ministry of Education, many school curriculum leaders took an active role in the delivery to their peers. Many curriculum leaders were also involved in the development and implementation of subject-based moderation systems, managed by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). Principals and senior administrators were supported throughout the changes by their professional associations and by the School Relationship Managers from NZQA as they set up the necessary systems in their schools.

International surveys undertaken since the late 1990s have highlighted the extent of the disparities of achievement between New Zealand’s most and least successful students (see for example, Chamberlain, 1996; OECD, 2001). A pattern of underachievement by Māori and Pasifika groups has added to the equity concerns raised by these trends. The NCEA implementation, intended to provide more meaningful learning pathways to qualifications for all secondary school students, was just one aspect of a series of policy initiatives addressing the complex issues highlighted by research such as these international surveys. Achievement of at-least-minimal competency levels in literacy and numeracy has been another focus for professional change initiatives. The curriculum review and ongoing revision that has accompanied these other changes are discussed in Section 12. Schools’ accountability for addressing achievement for all students is discussed in Section 14. This section explores the impact of this considerable sweep of professional learning and change on the secondary sector.

Principals’ professional development

Eighty-six percent of principals had had professional development in the last 12 months and 16 percent were studying towards a qualification such as a Masters degree (11 percent) or a diploma or certificate (4 percent). For 82 percent of principals, at least some of their professional

development had taken place in their own time. Boards of trustees paid for this professional development for 75 percent of the principals, but other sources of funding were also accessed. These included the Ministry of Education (38 percent) and sponsorship (1 percent). Twenty-six percent of principals paid for at least some of their own professional development.

As the following table shows, principals accessed a wide range of sources and resources for their professional development. As might be expected in a time of widespread professional change in the sector, professional associations (SPANZ, PPTA, NZSTA) played a prominent role. Principals also learnt from their peers via conferences and leadspace or cluster groups. Tertiary education providers, whether university- or teacher education-based, provided professional development to at least a third of the principals. Twelve percent had taken part in the First-Time Principals Induction Programme, recently evaluated by NZCER (Cameron, Lovett, Baker, & Waiti, 2004). Also mentioned were self-learning by doing research (2 percent), visiting other schools, having a travelling fellowship, or using a mentor (1 percent).

Table 27 Sources of principals' professional development

Source	Principals (n=95) %
Conference in New Zealand	63
SPANZ	51
Adviser	41
Leadspace	37
University	31
PPTA Principals' Council	25
NZSTA	21
Consultant	19
Teacher education provider	18
Cluster	17
PPTA	15
Internet	15
Overseas conference	15
Mentoring group	14
First-Time Principals Induction Programme	12

The focus of principals' professional development

The implementation of the NCEA appears to have impacted less on the focus of professional development for principals than it did for teachers. Whereas 43 percent of principals said they had NCEA-related professional development, 93 percent of teachers reported this as a focus in the 2002–2003 year. Of the policy initiatives intended to address achievement disparities, principals were more focused on their professional learning for literacy leadership, and on the newly instigated reporting and monitoring practices required of them by the MoE (see Section 13). By contrast, achievement in numeracy was a focus of professional learning for just 7 percent of principals. The learning needs of Māori students were a focus for 30 percent of principals, but just 3 percent mentioned a focus on the needs of Pasifika students. As can be expected in view of their

multifaceted leadership roles, principals also said they had had professional development in a wide range of other areas. Also mentioned were professional development in a specific curriculum area (2 percent), or for leading future schools (1 percent).

Table 28 **Areas of principals' professional development**

Area	2003 (n=95) %
Literacy leadership programme	72
Educational leadership	56
Reporting and monitoring requirements	56
General role of principal	45
NCEA	43
ICT	41
Legal obligations	39
Performance management	34
Employment/industrial relations	33
School improvement	32
School self-review	31
Teaching Māori students	30
Management/administration	27
Finance	26
Using assessment data	21
Health and safety	18
Negotiation/mediation skills	12
Policy development	11
Action research	11
Special education	10
Community consultation	8
Treaty of Waitangi	7
Communication skills	7
Numeracy programme	7
Charter development	3
Teaching Pasifika students	3

Principals of decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely to have undertaken professional development in employment and industrial relations matters.

Eighty-five percent of principals said they would like to have more professional development over the next 2 years. Imminent retirement or leaving the school was the main reason given for not seeking further professional development (5 percent). Also mentioned were difficulties in getting away from school, the distance to travel to access professional development, seeing no need for further development at present, and not being able to afford the personal cost (all 1 percent).

The main areas in which principals would like more professional development were directly related to changes in the secondary sector outlined above. Whereas previous norm-referenced examinations yielded one global mark to record achievement in each school subject, the NCEA assessments now generate more detailed information about achievement in specific aspects within each subject. Other NZCER research has shown that school leaders felt somewhat overwhelmed by the sheer volume of qualifications data generated from the first year of the assessment reforms.

At the same time, principals were keen to use the data to inform ongoing curriculum planning and teacher professional growth (Hipkins et al, 2004). They were also working with their boards to address the requirements of the MoE’s new planning and reporting framework (see Section 14). In this rapidly evolving context, topics such as analysing student achievement, school self-review, and setting achievement targets featured strongly as areas where principals would like more professional development.

Table 29 Principals’ priorities for their professional development

Area	Principals (n=95) %
Analysing student achievement	52
Educational leadership	45
School development	40
School self-review	38
Setting student achievement targets	36
Monitoring and reporting requirements	26
Financial planning	24
Property management	22
Industrial issues	22
Performance management	19
Māori issues	19
ICT	18
Legal aspects	15
School relationships	14
Administration	8
Particular curriculum area	6
Multicultural issues	5
NCEA	5

From professional development to practice

Thirty-five percent of principals had used *most* of this professional development to try new strategies in the school and a further 56 percent had used *some* of their professional development for this purpose. Most of the principals who had undertaken literacy leadership had tried new strategies in this area and other aspects of student learning and assessment were again frequently mentioned areas of development of new approaches. Aspects of school organisation not directly related to teaching and learning—for example, financial and property management—were less frequently mentioned as areas where new ideas had been tried as a result of professional development.

Table 30 Principals' application of their professional development

Area	Principals (n=95) %
Literacy	63
Student learning	59
School culture and organisation	50
ICT	38
Pedagogy	38
Staff development	38
Establishing student achievement targets	35
Assessment	24
Financial management	21
Feedback to students	18
Property management	12
Numeracy	6

Teachers' professional development

All but two responding teachers had taken part in at least one form of professional development in the 2002–2003 year. On average, teachers with positions of responsibility had taken part in five different professional development programmes in the last 12 months, whereas those without such positions had taken part in an average of four programmes. There were trends in gender differences but these were also related to whether or not teachers held positions of responsibility, and to their age bracket. In general, males with no position of responsibility undertook the fewest professional development programmes, and the number they undertook dropped with age. Females with positions of responsibility tended to be involved in the greatest number of professional development programmes, with the exception of those in the 60+ age bracket.

The number taking part in professional development during school hours (93 percent) corresponds to the number taking part in NCEA Jumbo Days (see below). For 58 percent of teachers at least some of this professional learning took place in outside school hours, including school holidays (35.5 percent), the weekend (28 percent), and the evening (24 percent). Some professional development was also squeezed into before-school hours (10 percent) or lunch breaks (11 percent).

Teachers in state-integrated schools were more likely to have taken part in professional development activities during the weekend, while teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to have taken part in professional development during the school holidays.

Sources of funding for professional development included boards of trustees (83 percent), the Ministry of Education (44.5 percent), and voluntary organisations (3 percent). Twenty-eight percent of teachers paid for some of their own professional development. These teachers were significantly more likely to be undertaking personal study. There was also a trend for more

teachers than not to pay personally for attendance at one-off seminars or conferences with a special focus, for annual conferences of an educational organisation, and for Internet list-serves.

NCEA-related professional development

The brunt of work related to the NCEA implementation has been borne by subject teachers. The 3 years of the implementation (2002–2004) have been a time of intense professional development. Those teachers who had not previously had experience in assessing with unit standards needed to get to grips with the whole philosophy of standards-based assessment, with associated changes to their assessment practice. Those who had used unit standards were better placed but they still had to become familiar with the requirements of the newly developed achievement standards, and to revise their existing moderation procedures. As expected, the NCEA was a major focus of professional development. Most secondary teachers took part in the jumbo days and the next table shows the extent to which they were also involved in other NCEA-related professional learning. Also mentioned was training as an NCEA facilitator (2 percent).

Table 31 Teachers' NCEA-related professional development

Professional development (2002 to mid-2003)	(n=744) %
NCEA implementation workshop/jumbo day	93
In-school professional development	55
NCEA exam setting/marking	12
Training as NCEA moderator	5
Training as NCEA resource writer	4

While 36 percent of teachers had taken part in just one form of NCEA-related professional development, 48 percent had taken part in two types, and 14 percent had taken part in three or more types.

Teachers in state schools were more likely to have taken part in setting and marking NCEA examinations. Teachers in small schools were less likely to have taken part in NCEA-related professional development organised within the school.

Non-NCEA-related professional development

Most teachers had also taken part in professional development that was not directly related to the implementation of the NCEA. (Just 11 percent said they had not.) The next table shows the range of types of learning opportunities that were encompassed. More than half the teachers experienced professional learning that was school-wide, while just over a third of them were taking part in personal study courses. Also mentioned were cluster meetings (1 percent). Perhaps because a large number of “one-off” events were also involved, only 23 percent of teachers said they had taken part in two or more courses at the same time, and these teachers were significantly more likely to be undertaking personal study programmes.

Table 32 Teachers' non-NCEA-related professional development

Professional development (2002 to mid-2003)	(n=744) %
School-wide professional development focused on teacher practice	62
Attended one-off seminars or conferences with a special focus	60
Personal study/training	37
Participated in literacy leadership programme	22
Attended an annual conference of educational organisation	19
None	11
Internet groups/list-serv	8
Participated in numeracy programme	5
Action and enquiry-based learning	5

Teachers in rural schools were less likely to have taken part in school-wide professional development focused on their own practice. Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were less likely to have taken part in literacy leadership professional development, but, along with teachers in state-integrated schools, were more likely to have taken part in one-off seminars or conferences with a special focus.

Interestingly, there was a relationship between some types of non-NCEA-related professional development, and perceptions of success in implementing the NCEA. Teachers who had taken part in school-wide professional development focused on their own practice were more likely to agree or strongly agree that they were coping well with the NCEA implementation. Teachers who had taken part in literacy leadership programmes were also more likely to strongly agree that they were coping well with the NCEA implementation.

Ongoing professional development

Sixty percent of teachers intended to undertake more professional education in their own time in the next 12 months. Those who did not want to do so felt they did not have the time (20 percent) or energy (19 percent) for further professional education. Some said they were already involved in enough professional development, or could not afford it (both 9 percent), that they saw no need for further education/training at this point (6 percent), or that the distance they would need to travel precluded this (4 percent). Difficulties in finding relievers were also mentioned by 2 percent of teachers.

For 36 percent of teachers further professional education was not seen as leading to any specific qualification. The study of another 20 percent was leading to a specific qualification. These qualifications ranged from a diploma or certificate (9 percent), a Bachelor's degree (3 percent), a Master's degree (7 percent), to the least frequently mentioned PhD option (1 percent).

For their *future* learning, teachers said they would much prefer face-to-face learning (93 percent), over e-learning (18 percent) or video conferencing (7 percent). Those who were studying at the time of the survey were taking part in face-to-face learning (20 percent), e-learning (12 percent), and courses that mixed both types (12.5 percent).

The next table shows a clear teacher preference for professional learning that is led by their experienced peers, with school support advisers the next most preferred group. Less often preferred were teachers from tertiary education settings. Specific interest groups such as Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) trainers and Group Special Education were preferred sources for very few teachers, perhaps because of the relatively narrow and specific focus of the education services they provide.²⁷

Table 33 Preferred sources of teachers' professional development

Preferred source	(n=744) %
Experienced/successful teachers from other schools	57
Advisers/teacher support service	39
Experienced/successful teachers within your school	31
Teacher education providers	26
University/tertiary providers	24
No preferences	19
NZQA	17
Principal	5
RTLB	5
Group Special Education	4

Teachers in rural and small schools were less likely to want to receive professional development from experienced teachers in their own school, while teachers in schools of 500+ students were more likely to see this as a desirable means of professional development.

The area of most interest for teachers' future professional learning was upgrading ICT skills (30.5 percent). Teachers in decile 7–10 schools were more likely to want to upgrade their ICT skills, and teachers in schools with rolls between 300–499 students were less likely to want to do so.

Next most popular were aspects of study related to a specific curriculum area (28 percent) or to assessment (17 percent). Curriculum-related study areas that were identified included student use of ICT (8 percent), te reo (5.5 percent), curriculum integration and ESOL (both 5 percent), outdoor education (3 percent), and environmental education (2 percent).

Aspects of pedagogy that teachers wanted to study included learning styles (9 percent), problem-solving approaches and thinking skills (both 5 percent), and special education (3 percent). Study topics with a more general management focus included administration/management skills (12 percent), educational leadership (11 percent), teacher appraisal/performance management or child behaviour/behaviour management/bullying (both 7 percent), and interpersonal skills (4 percent).

²⁷ In this context, it is also worth noting that just 2 percent of responding teachers identified “special needs” as their area of curriculum expertise. Other teachers were teaching small numbers of special needs students within their regular curriculum classes (see Section 14).

From professional development to practice

Twenty-three percent of teachers had used most of their professional development to try new strategies in their teaching, and a further 69 percent had used some of it. Forty-five percent had been expected to share their knowledge with other staff and another 25 percent had actively sought opportunities to share what they had learnt.

Trustees' training

Twenty-nine percent of trustees had not received formal training for their roles in the past year. The training that had been received was funded by the school (34 percent), the MoE (21 percent), NZSTA (1 percent), or in a few cases by trustees themselves (3 percent). Fourteen percent of trustees were not sure how their training had been funded. Training was predominantly received from other trustees, on the same or other boards, in either one-off or a series of sessions.

Table 34 Nature of trustees' training

Type of training	(n=180) %
No formal training received	29
Series of board sessions on school	26
One-off board session on school	21
Series of cluster sessions with other boards	21
One-off cluster session with other boards	21
Series of board sessions on role of board	13
Attend conferences	13
One-off cluster session on role of board	12

Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to have undergone training provided by the school staff.

NZSTA was the most frequently mentioned provider of trustee training (45 percent). Other providers were the Ministry of Education (13 percent), individual consultant (12 percent), school staff (11 percent), teacher education provider (6 percent), a private company (4 percent), or Multiserve (3 percent). Also mentioned were ERO and PPTA (both 1 percent). Four percent of trustees were not sure who had provided their training.

Fifty-six percent of trustees said the training had met their needs. In line with the number of trustees who said they had received no training, there was a high non-response rate to this question (32 percent). Just 4 percent said the training had not met their needs and, again, a number of trustees were not sure (8 percent).

Fifty-one percent of trustees said they would like more training, in the various areas shown on the next table. The main focus is on school planning and policy provision, as further discussed in

Section 14. Also mentioned were training to be the student representative on the board, and NCEA training (both 1 percent).

Table 35 **Areas in which trustees would like training**

Area	(n=180) %
Would not like/is not sure about having formal training	49
School strategic planning	23
Board self-review	21
Role of trustee	18
New planning and reporting requirements	17
School self-review	17
Principal's performance management	14
Financial management/planning	13
Community consultation	13
Student behaviour	12
Curriculum	12
Human resources issues	11
Industrial relations	9
Communication/interpersonal relations	8
Health and safety	8
Role of principal	7
Property management	7
Treaty of Waitangi	7
Assessment	6
Running meetings	6
Equal employment opportunities	3

The preferred source of this training was NZSTA for 21 percent of trustees. Other providers trustees would like to receive training from included the MoE (14 percent), trustees from other boards (6 percent), PPTA or Multiserve (both 4 percent), educational institutions, other trustees on the same board, or private firms (all 3 percent). Twenty percent of trustees said they had no preference.

Summary

Most principals, almost all the teachers, and just over two-thirds of the trustees had taken part in at least one form of professional development in the past year.

Teachers' professional development was dominated by the MoE/School Support Services – provided NCEA training, especially the Jumbo Days. Just over half the teachers also took part in school-wide professional development for the NCEA implementation but far fewer took an active role in provision of assessment, including examination setting, examination marking, or moderation of assessment tasks and marking. Most teachers also took part in at least one other type of professional development, with school-wide professional development again featuring, along with one-off conferences and seminars (for which many teachers paid personally).

Just under half the principals took part in NCEA-related professional development. Their predominant focus was more on leadership issues, including literacy and more general educational leadership, and they collectively addressed a very wide range of issues related to providing leadership to the whole school community.

As might be expected trustees undertook, and wanted more, training in areas such as strategic planning, board and school self-review, and employment-related issues that pertained to their governance role in the school.

In the past, there has been some discussion about whether professional development should be regarded as predominantly a personal benefit or be seen as contributing to the wider good of the school community. The stance taken on this issue informs decision making about who should pay, and whether personal time should be used. In this context, 26 percent of principals, 28 percent of teachers, and 3 percent of trustees paid for at least some of their own training. Most principals and 58 percent of teachers had undertaken at least some of their professional development in their own time. Just 16 percent of principals and 20 percent of teachers were studying towards a specific qualification.

At least some of the ideas and skills gained from professional development are soon put into practice by both principals and teachers. Principals were most likely to put educational leadership, including literacy leadership, ideas into practice.

Most principals, 60 percent of teachers, and 51 percent of trustees wanted to take part in ongoing professional development. Imminent retirement was the main reason principals would not seek further professional development whereas teachers said they did not have the time or energy. A higher number of trustees (49 percent) were unsure that they wanted ongoing professional development.

8. School board composition

In 1989, secondary school boards of governors were replaced by boards of trustees. Boards of governors often had non-parents on them, some long-serving, and were elected by the local householders and parents who came to the school's annual meeting. They were mainly concerned with property maintenance, including the appointment of cleaners, and fundraising. School committee members tended to be better educated and on higher incomes than the communities they represented, and to contain more men than women (Wylie, 1999).

Boards of trustees took on greater responsibility, including the appointment of all school staff, the development of the school charter and policies, and the school budget. There was a central emphasis on parents rather than the wider community. Secondary school boards consist of five parents elected only by other (current) parents at the school, in elections held every 3 years, the principal, a staff representative (usually a teacher), and a student representative.²⁸ State-integrated schools also have one or more proprietor's representatives. Boards can co-opt members, to enhance community representation, or bring in people with useful skills. The Education Amendment Act 1992 allowed non-parents to be nominated for election, but few non-parents have joined boards of trustees as elected rather than co-opted or appointed trustees.

The fifth election for boards of trustees took place in 2001, 2 years before this survey. As in earlier elections, Ministry of Education-funded campaigns through a contract with NZSTA were run ahead of nomination time to encourage a wide range of parents to put themselves forward, and to ensure that all schools had sufficient trustees on their boards. Schools also had the option of mid-term or staggered elections in late 2002, to counter problems experienced when there was a high turnover. Twelve percent of schools did so, attracting a slightly lower rate of nominations for each vacancy, 1.26 compared with 1.34 for the 2001 elections.²⁹

²⁸ This was originally voluntary in all schools with students in Year 10 and above, but has been mandatory since 2000.

²⁹ Ministry of Education. (2003). *New Zealand schools Ngā kura o Aotearoa 2002*. (pp. 52–53) Wellington.

Who are the trustees?

Gender

Fifty-two percent of responding trustees were male and 48 percent were female.

Age

Very few of the responding trustees were in younger age groups. Just 7 percent were under 30 and more than half of this group appeared to be student trustees, based on the pattern of their other responses. Five percent were between 30 and 39. Just over half (53 percent) were aged 40–49 and 34 percent were over 50. Trustees in the over 51 age group were more likely to represent main urban schools. They were also likely to hold postgraduate qualifications. This could be because they were co-opted for specific professional expertise, or because they were parents who had delayed having children until they were older.

Ethnicity

Eighty percent of trustees gave their ethnicity as European/Pākehā, compared to 76 percent of the population. Nine percent were Māori (12 percent of the population), 4 percent were Pacific Islanders (5 percent of the population), and 1 percent were Asian (6 percent of the population). Five percent said they were “New Zealanders”. As expected there was a trend for Māori and Pasifika respondents to be more likely from boards in decile 1–3 schools.

Education

Sixty-two percent of trustees had achieved a tertiary level qualification, and the majority of this group held a university degree or higher. The next table compares their qualifications with those held by the responding parents and those given in the 2001 Census data for the population as a whole. As a group the trustees were more highly qualified than the responding parents, and the responding parents were more highly qualified than the adult population as a whole.

Table 36 Highest qualification of parents and trustees

Qualification	Trustees		Parents		Census 2001*	
	Female (n=87) %	Male (n=92) %	Female (n=384) %	Male (n=117) %	Female %	Male %
	Postgraduate degree or diploma	21.8	30.4	11.7	12.0	4.2
Bachelor degree	27.6	23.9	12.2	19.7	10.0	9.5
Undergraduate diploma/certificate, New Zealand diploma, New Zealand certificate, National diploma	16.1	13.0	18.0	12.0	10.7	6.5
Technician's certificate, Advanced trade certificate, National diploma	2.3	3.3	3.7	11.1	1.8	3.1
Trade certificates, apprenticeship, National certificate	1.2	5.4	3.9	8.6	3.6	9.5
Pre-vocational certificate, Bridging certificate, Foundation certificate, National certificate	-	-	2.3	0.9	4.8	3.7
Higher school qualification such as University Entrance, Scholarship, Higher School Certificate, National Certificate Level 3	9.2	5.4	8.6	3.4	3.3	4.2
Sixth form qualification such as Sixth Form Certificate, University Entrance, National Certificate Level 2	5.8	7.6	8.3	4.3	12.7	9.8
Fifth form qualification such as School Certificate passes, National Certificate Level 1	8.1	6.5	16.9	5.1	16.1	13.0
No qualification	4.6	4.4	9.1	18.8	17.6	20.0
Currently studying	-	-	0.8	-	-	-
Other	3.5	-	1.8	-	-	-

* For age group 25–49 years.

Trustees holding graduate or postgraduate qualifications were more likely to serve on boards of decile 6–10 schools, and these were more likely to be main or minor urban schools. Trustees who were managers were more likely to be from schools in medium-sized (secondary urban) areas.

Socioeconomic status

Trustees and parents identified their occupation group from the New Zealand Classification of Occupations. The next table compares the occupational profiles of these two groups. As might be expected from the comparison of their qualifications, more of the trustees were in professional or managerial roles, whereas more parents were in clerical or service roles, or were unemployed.

Table 37 Trustees' and parents' occupations

Occupation	Trustees (n=180) %	Parents (n=604) %
Professional	49	30
Manager	24	13
Agriculture/fisheries	6	4
Unemployed	6	13
Technician	3	6
Clerk	3	14
Trades	3	5
Service or sales worker	2	9
Labourer	1	3
Plant or machine operator	-	3

There were no significant differences between employment patterns for board of trustee members in schools of different deciles.³⁰

Trustees' expertise and their board responsibilities

The next table shows the areas of expertise that trustees bring to their roles, as perceived by the responding principals, teachers, and the trustees themselves. All three groups rate financial and property/maintenance skills as the main areas of board expertise, albeit with varying levels of response. A number of teachers were unsure about the skills of the board, and those who did respond identified specific skill areas less frequently than either principals or trustees.

³⁰ The division of the relatively small sample (n=180) into five quintile groups in correlation to 10 occupational groups creates small cells that make such differences more difficult to establish as statistically significant.

Table 38 Areas of board members' experience and skills

Area	Principals	Teachers	Trustees
	(n=95) %	(n=744) %	(n=180) %
Financial	76	40	92
Property maintenance	57	37	78
Human resources/personnel	45	20	60
Strategic planning	42	22	69
Community consultation	42	22	56
Educational	41	21	73
Legal	28	23	34
Public relations	28	15	37
Industrial relations	27	10	43
ICT	24	9	36
Fundraising	13	12	31
None of these	3	-	1
Not sure/don't know	-	56	-

Collectively, board members were more confident than the principals of their expertise in all the areas listed. These differences in perceptions were greatest for educational areas, where there was a 32 percent difference, strategic planning skills (27 percent difference), and property maintenance skills (21 percent difference). Other areas where board members identified more experience and skill than did the principals included fundraising (18 percent difference), financial and industrial relations skills (both 16 percent difference), and human resources/personnel (15 percent difference).

Trustees in small and rural schools were more likely to identify fundraising and community consultation as areas in which they had expertise and skill. Along with teachers in minor urban schools, they were less likely to acknowledge legal expertise as an area of board experience and skill while teachers in main urban schools, and in state-integrated schools, were more likely to say board members had legal and financial expertise. Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to say board members had expertise in property maintenance and repair, while those in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to say this. Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to identify fundraising expertise, and less likely to identify ICT expertise.

The next table shows areas where trustees, principals, and teachers thought trustees needed more experience. Congruent with the patterns reported above, many teachers were not sure, and principals saw higher levels of need than did trustees. Differences were greatest for strategic planning (a 25 percent difference between principals' and trustees' perceptions of needs) and educational matters (23 percent difference).

Table 39 Areas where trustees need more experience

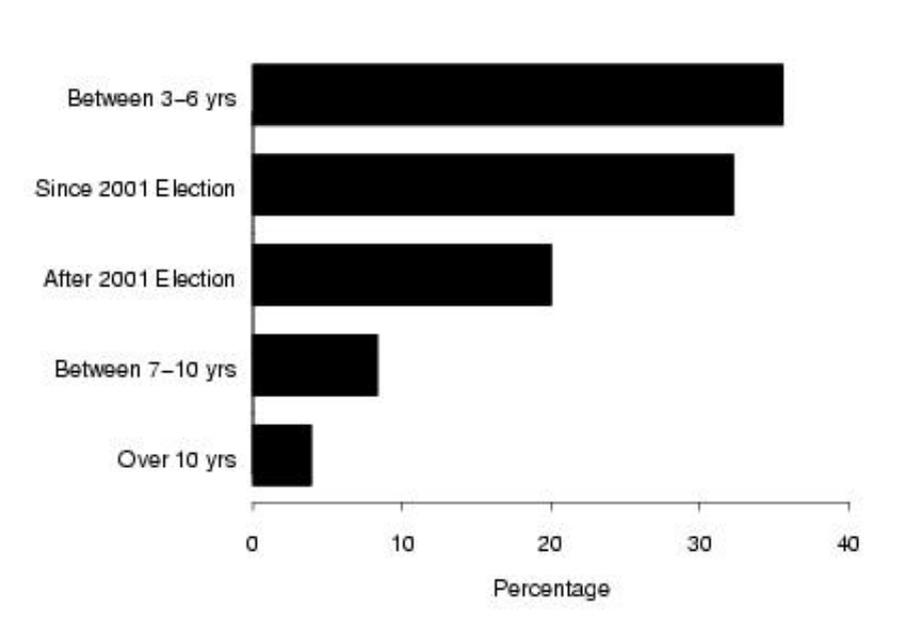
Area	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Strategic planning	42	14	17
Legal	32	9	27
Educational	31	17	8
Industrial relations	23	14	18
Financial	22	12	13
Community consultation	22	11	16
Fundraising	20	9	17
Human resources/personnel	17	19	14
ICT	17	11	18
Public relations	17	11	16
Property maintenance	15	9	9
Not sure	-	55	-

Trustees from state-integrated schools were less likely to identify a need for legal expertise. In view of their above responses it is not surprising that teachers in rural and minor urban schools were more likely to see a need for legal skills amongst board members. Teachers in the small schools, and in rural schools, were more likely to think the board needed to gain experience and skill in finances, strategic planning, human resources/personnel, industrial relations, and in educational expertise. Conversely, teachers in schools of 500+ students were less likely to say the board needed expertise in all five areas. A related pattern was found when school deciles were considered. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to say the board needed expertise in financial management, educational, ICT, fundraising and public relations skills.

Turnover of school trustees

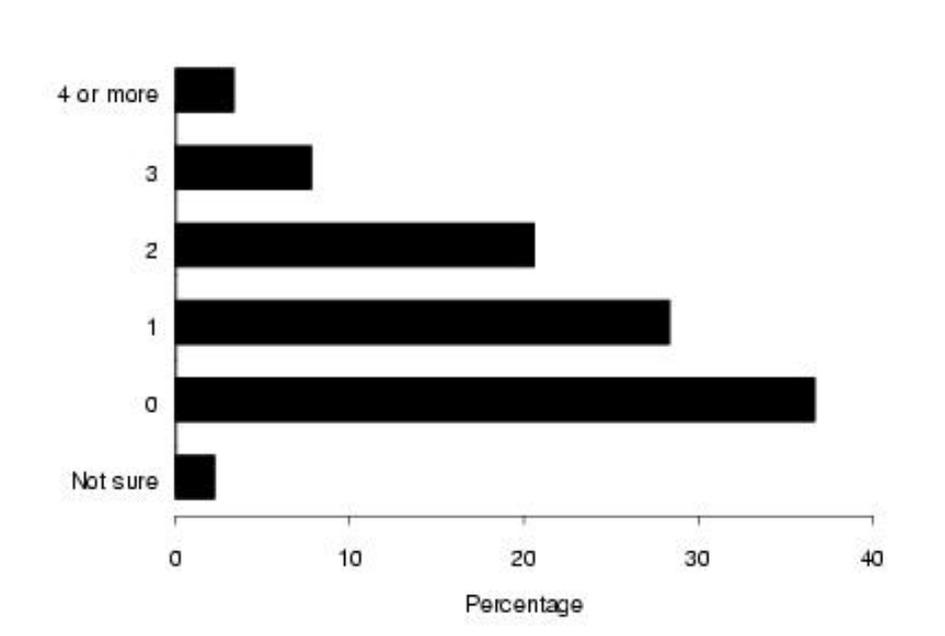
Nearly half the responding trustees had served at least 3 years on their school board, with a small number (4 percent) having more than 10 years' service. At the other end of the spectrum, 20 percent of trustees had joined their board since the last elections were held.

Figure 14 Length of time as a trustee



More than half of all boards were relatively stable, with none or one board member leaving since the last elections. However, a small number of boards (3 percent) had experienced a turnover of four or more trustees in that time.

Figure 15 Number of trustees on the board who resigned in last year (including co-opted and appointed)



In the main, trustees resigned because of changed personal circumstances, including pressures of paid work (18 percent), employment transfer (17 percent), family reasons (12 percent), move to another district (11 percent), child having left the school (8 percent), health reasons (7 percent), or lack of personal time (1 percent). Fewer trustees resigned for reasons directly related to their

actual work on the board. Such reasons included board workload or disillusionment with the role (both 4 percent), and conflict on the board (2 percent).

Nine percent of boards did not replace members who had resigned since the last election. Methods of replacement were by board appointment (22 percent), co-option (20 percent), or election (17 percent). Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to be replaced by board appointment.

Thirty-eight percent of trustees intended to stand again at the next board election, with 19 percent unsure, and 40 percent intending to stand down. The main reasons given for leaving the board are shown in the next table. As for trustees who had recently left the board, they mainly convey a sense of moving on—that family circumstances have changed and it is time to let others take up the role. Again, fewer negative reasons were given (for example, the time needed to do the job) although difficulties and frustrations between board members were cited as a reason by a small number (1 percent) of trustees.

Table 40 **Eligible trustees' reasons for not standing for next board election**

Reason	(n=180) %
Child moving to another school	18
Been on board long enough	15
Time for others to have turn	8
Time involved too demanding	7
Board will benefit from new members	6

Co-option

Fourteen percent of the responding trustees were co-opted. Numbers of co-opted trustees varied from none (34 percent of boards), one (21 percent), two to three (37 percent), to as many as four to five (4 percent of boards). Māori trustees were more likely to be co-opted. State schools were more likely to have up to two or three co-opted trustees, while state-integrated schools were more likely to have none.

Co-opted trustees often had specific responsibilities in areas where the board might otherwise lack expertise. The most commonly cited responsibilities are shown in the next table. Given that Māori trustees were more likely to be co-opted, it seems unsurprising that responsibility for Māori issues tops the list. Trustees were more likely to be co-opted with specific responsibility for Māori issues in schools that had 8 percent or more of Māori students on the roll. It may be that a degree of encouragement is needed to get Māori trustees onto school boards. Less often cited were responsibilities related to specific board roles (treasurer, 3 percent; chairperson or secretary, both 2 percent). Other responsibilities included ICT (2 percent), special needs, equal employment opportunities, and board of trustees training (all 1 percent).

Table 41 Responsibilities of co-opted trustees

Responsibility	(n=180) %
Māori issues	33
Finance/fundraising	19
Property/maintenance	15
Staffing/personnel	12
Liaison with ethnic community	8
Community consultation	7
Liaison with PTA/Home and School Association/School Council	4
Curriculum	4
Industrial relations/personnel	4
Public relations/promotion	4
Policy development	4
Legal matters	4

Board size

Eighty percent of the boards had at least six trustees who were not the principal or the staff representative (six to seven members, 41 percent; eight to nine members, 27 percent; 10 members, 12 percent). Small boards were less common (five members, 14 percent; three to four members, 4 percent) and just one school had one to two trustees in addition to the principal and staff representative.

There was no relationship between school size and the size of the board. State-integrated schools were more likely to have larger boards (eight or more members). Their boards were also more likely to have three or more trustees who were not parents of students at the school.

Non-parents on boards

For 17 percent of boards all the trustees (not including the principal or staff representative) were parents of children at the school. Numbers of non-parent trustees on other boards varied considerably (one, 31 percent; two, 22 percent; three, 13 percent; four, 6 percent; and five or more, 9 percent). Urban schools are more likely to have three or more non-parent trustees.

Summary

Although a 1992 amendment allowed non-parents to become school trustees, most of the surveyed trustees belonged to boards that were largely comprised of parent representatives, and 17 percent of boards were exclusively so.

Co-option of trustees took place in 20 percent of cases where trustees had left between elections, and was often undertaken with specific skills in mind. In particular, Māori were likely to be co-

opted as trustees, and skills in dealing with Māori issues were the most commonly assigned responsibility of co-opted trustees.

As well as co-option, boards have the option of appointing new trustees when vacancies arise, and they did so in 20 percent of such cases. Perhaps because of the combined selection effects of elections, co-option, and appointments, trustees tend to be over-representative of professional and managerial occupational groups when compared to the overall parent population of the schools.

Trustees had more confidence in their skills and abilities than did principals, and correspondingly saw less need for further training. Teachers knew less about trustees' abilities and training needs. Trustees most often saw financial management as an area of personal strength, followed by property maintenance. Experience was most likely to be seen as needed in strategic planning and legal expertise. The latter was more likely to be seen as lacking by trustees in small, rural, and minor urban schools. Decile 9 and 10 schools and state-integrated schools are more likely to have trustees with legal expertise.

There is a steady turnover of school trustees, with a very small number staying for terms of 10 years or more. Most leave because their lives are moving on. Either their children have changed schools, or they have changed employment or shifted to a new location. It was less common for trustees to resign because of negative feelings about the role.

9. Parent and community involvement

This section explores the nature and extent of parental and community involvement in secondary schools. One of the aims of the decentralisation reforms of the late 1980s was to extend parental involvement in schools. As we have seen in Section 8, the expanded governance role of the board of trustees was one means of directly involving an elected group of parents. They in turn were expected to interact more widely with the parent community, and to involve other parents in their decision making where they could. The subsequent curriculum reforms that began in the early 1990s potentially also made schooling more responsive to the needs of local communities, by allowing for school-based curriculum design within the overall framework of national curriculum guidelines. A recent survey of research in this area has found that, in reality, very few New Zealand schools have embraced school-based curriculum design (Bolstad, in press).

Despite these idealistic goals, previous national surveys of primary schools have found that parental involvement is mainly of an occasional nature and typically related to activities outside the classroom. Furthermore, the extent of parental, and especially women's, involvement declined steadily over the 1990s, possibly as more women returned to the full-time workforce (Wylie, 1999). In view of these earlier findings, the low levels of parental involvement found in this survey are perhaps somewhat predictable.

The parents who responded to this survey

The majority of responding parents (76 percent) were female. Parents were able to identify with more than one ethnic group if they so chose but only one ethnicity per parent was used in the analysis of the survey. Ethnicity was prioritised following similar practice to the 2001 Census. Those who indicated they were Māori were identified as such first (14 percent). Pasifika parents were identified next (8 percent), followed by Asian (7 percent), then Pākehā (72 percent), then "other" parents. The "other" group included a wide range of ethnic groups including Eastern Europeans, South Africans, and representatives of many other migrant communities. It also included some people who preferred to call themselves New Zealanders. Parents' educational qualifications and occupations are compared with those of trustees in Section 8.

Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to identify as Pākehā/European, or to be in professional occupations. They were more likely not to have formal qualifications. Along with those in decile 5 or 6 schools they were more likely to identify as Māori.

Parental involvement in schools

The level of parental involvement in secondary schools was considerably lower than that reported for primary school parents in previous NZCER national surveys (Wylie, 1999). A majority (67 percent) of parents said they had no involvement in school activities.

Parents of students in state-integrated schools and in small schools (less than 300 students), along with parents who identified as Māori or Pasifika, were more likely to say they were involved in school activities. Parents of students in large schools (500+ students), and in state schools, along with parents who identified as Asian, New Zealander, or “other” were more likely to say they were not involved in school activities. Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were also less likely to be involved in school activities.

The nature of parental involvement

As in previous national surveys of primary schools, involvement was most likely to take the form of supporting extracurricular activities including sports, school trips, and cultural activities. Fundraising was the other main type of involvement. Also mentioned were classroom help (2 percent), working in the canteen or on school lunches, supervision around school during school hours, and reading support (all 1 percent). A small number of parents (less than 1 percent) mentioned helping with arts and craft, repairs and maintenance, or the library.

Table 42 **Parental involvement in secondary schools**

Type of involvement	(n=503) %
Had no involvement with child's school	67
Sports	20
Fundraising	12
School trips	10
Cultural activities	5
PTA/school council	3

Parents of students at state-integrated schools were more likely to have helped with fundraising and sports.

The limited extent of parents' involvement is also evident in other ways. Sixteen percent of parents reported one type of involvement, 10 percent two types of involvement, and just 6 percent of parents reported involvement in three or more types of activities.

Parents' and trustees' views of parental involvement

Lack of involvement does not appear to be related to feeling unwelcome at the school. Seventy-three percent of parents said they felt welcome and a further 18 percent said their welcome varied. Just 2 percent felt unwelcome and 1 percent said they had never been to the school.

The main reasons given for not being involved were working full-time (38 percent), lack of time (20 percent), and having not been asked (18 percent). Nine percent of parents said they preferred to let the school get on with the job and 8 percent felt their involvement was not needed in areas that were of personal interest to them. Living too far away and family commitments (both 2 percent) were other reasons given.

Parents of students at state schools and in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to say they could not be involved in school activities because they worked full-time, or to feel no one had asked them to be involved.

Satisfaction with the level of parental involvement

It seems that many parents do not want to be more involved in their child's secondary school. More than half were generally satisfied with their level of involvement, or satisfied for some areas. However, as with levels of contact with the board of trustee (see Section 16) many parents were unsure if they were satisfied or not. This suggests uncertainty about possibilities for involvement that may be open to them.

Parents of students in state-integrated schools were more likely to be generally satisfied with levels of involvement, whereas parents of students in state schools were more likely to be satisfied for some areas, or not satisfied, or not sure. There was a trend for parents of students in higher decile schools (5–10) to be more often generally or partially satisfied with levels of parental involvement in the school, while those in lower decile (1–4) schools were more likely to be not satisfied or not sure.

As the next table shows, trustees expressed much higher levels of dissatisfaction with parental involvement. In comparison to the parents very few of them were unsure.

Table 43 **Parents' and trustees' satisfaction with parental involvement**

Satisfied with involvement	Trustees (n=95) %	Parents (n=503) %
Yes, generally	27	45
Yes, for some areas	19	15
No	44	9
Not sure	4	31

Trustees in state-integrated schools were more likely to say that parental involvement in the school was generally satisfactory. Trustees in state schools were more likely to say parental involvement was not satisfactory, or that they were not sure.

Those who said they were not satisfied were asked to give their reasons.³¹ Of those in each group who were dissatisfied, more trustees than parents thought that the same parents always helped (trustees, 80 percent; parents, 36 percent), and that some parents were not interested in helping (trustees, 78 percent; parents, 32 percent). Trustees who were dissatisfied were also more likely to say some parents lacked the confidence to help (trustees, 48 percent; parents, 26 percent). More of the parents who were dissatisfied thought that the school didn't expect enough from parents (trustees, 19 percent; parents 42 percent), or that it expected too much (trustees, 5 percent; parents, 9 percent). A few trustees thought that parents were too busy (2 percent), or that students did not want parents to help (1 percent).

Trustees in schools of 300–499 students were more likely to think the same parents always helped, or that some parents were not interested in helping. Trustees from state schools were more likely to think some parents lacked the confidence to help. Trustees in decile 3–4 schools were more likely to think some parents were not interested in helping, while those in decile 9–10 schools were less likely to think this.

Areas where trustees would like more help

Areas where trustees would like to see more help matched those areas in which parents already said they were most involved—that is in sporting activities and fundraising. Other areas where trustees wanted to see more involvement were diverse, as shown in the next table. It is of interest that curriculum development was the area of help least frequently identified. Also mentioned were outside classroom help and more involvement with students (both 1 percent).

³¹ Although the responses were made by just 9 percent of parents and 44 percent of trustees, some respondents gave more than one reason for their dissatisfaction.

Table 44 **Activities in which trustees wanted greater parent involvement**

Activity	(n=180) %
Sport	55
Fundraising	53
School clubs/activities	37
Strategic planning	34
Policy development	28
School maintenance/working bees	26
Classroom help	21
Board work	17
Curriculum development	15

The principals' views of parental participation

Almost a quarter of principals (24 percent) said they frequently had problems with getting parental help, 51 percent sometimes had problems, and 21 percent said they rarely had problems. Areas of school life where parental help was seen to be unsatisfactory are shown in the next table. Like the trustees, most principals wanted more help in areas of school life not directly related to classroom-based learning, although development of the strategic plan could potentially involve decisions about curriculum design and priorities (see Section 14).

Table 45 **Areas where parental help was seen as unsatisfactory**

Areas of school life	(n=95) %
PTA	44
Fundraising events	38
Outdoor education	27
Policy/strategic plan development	26
Maintenance of school and equipment	26
School library	23
School concerts/special events	18
Board of trustees	14

Community support for the school

Eighty-two percent of principals said that the school received voluntary help from members of the community who were not parents. Congruent with this, just 13 percent of them felt that community support for the school was poor and 1 percent felt it was very poor or non-existent. Community support was seen as very good by 34 percent of principals. Good and satisfactory ratings for community support were both 26 percent.

Principals' perceptions of community support for the school increased with decile. Such support was more likely to be seen as poor in decile 1 and 2 schools, satisfactory in decile 3 and 4 schools, good in decile 5 and 6 schools, and very good in decile 9 and 10 schools.

Community consultation

Most boards (86 percent) had consulted with their community in the past 12 months. As in previous NZCER national surveys of primary schools, the most frequently used methods tended to be paper-based (Wylie, 1999).

Table 46 **Methods of board consultation with community**

Method	(n=180) %
Newsletter	76
Written questionnaires	55
Public meetings/workshops at school	49
Parents generally invited to board meetings/join planning/policy groups	35
A hui	17
Specific parents invited to join planning policy groups	17
The board has not/not sure if the board has consulted with the community	13
Home/cottage meetings	11
Phone surveys	11
Public meetings/workshops in community	7
Other	6

Parents were more likely to be invited to join board meetings or planning and policy groups when their children attended schools of less than 300 students.

Different methods of communication may be more effective in reaching members of different sub-groups in the school community. In view of the predominant reliance on paper-based means of communication, which presumably must be delivered to the target audience if they are to be read, it is interesting to explore beliefs about which sub-groups potentially have membership of the school's community. Principals, trustees, teachers, and parents were all asked who they saw as part of the school's community.

The next table has been ordered by the principals' responses, with which the other three groups' responses can be compared. While the frequency of responses from each group differed, principals, trustees, teachers, and parents mostly ranked the various groups in the same frequency order. More principals and trustees saw a wide range of groups as part of the school's community. Fewer parents saw the various groups as part of the school's community. Principals were additionally asked if they saw the local iwi as part of the school's community and 63 percent said they did so.

Table 47 School community composition

Community member	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %	Parents (n=503) %
Parents of current students	98	98	98	86
Current students	98	97	96	85
Current teachers	97	95	97	84
Local primary/intermediate schools	79	57	76	41
Past students	77	68	72	39
Local business	74	61	69	41
Local Māori marae	68	63	72	27
Parents of past students	61	53	63	31
Local residents	60	58	68	36
Past teachers	53	51	56	30
Local voluntary organisations	45	41	52	31
Local government representatives	38	34	47	24

There was a range of interesting differences of perception about which of these various groups were part of the school's community. Occasionally these perceptions seemed to be in conflict but usually there was a pattern to them. Broadly speaking, principals, teachers, and trustees of integrated schools and high decile schools were less likely to see a wide range of groups as belonging to the school's community. Trustees, parents, and teachers of schools in smaller towns, which are often lower decile, or somewhat smaller state schools, were likely to see a more inclusive range of groups as belonging to the school's community.

Trustees in decile 3 or 4 schools and teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to see the Māori marae as part of the school's community. Parents of students in decile 5 and 6 schools, and in state schools, were also more likely to see the local Māori marae in this light. Principals of state-integrated schools were less likely to see the local iwi, and along with their trustees, were less likely to see the local Māori marae as part of the school's community, as were both teachers and trustees in decile 9 and 10 schools.

Perhaps reflecting their location in smaller urban areas, teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to see local primary and intermediate schools as part of their community. Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools and trustees from state-integrated schools were less likely to see these other schools as part of the school's community. This has implications for the ease of flow of information about students when they make transitions between schools (see Section 15).

Decile 1 and 2 parents were less likely to see the current students as part of the school's community. Both male and female parents who identified as Māori, Pasifika, or "other" were more likely to make this response. This finding is food for thought in view of the recent trends to involve students more actively in decision making about their own education, as part of the goal of developing life-long learning values.

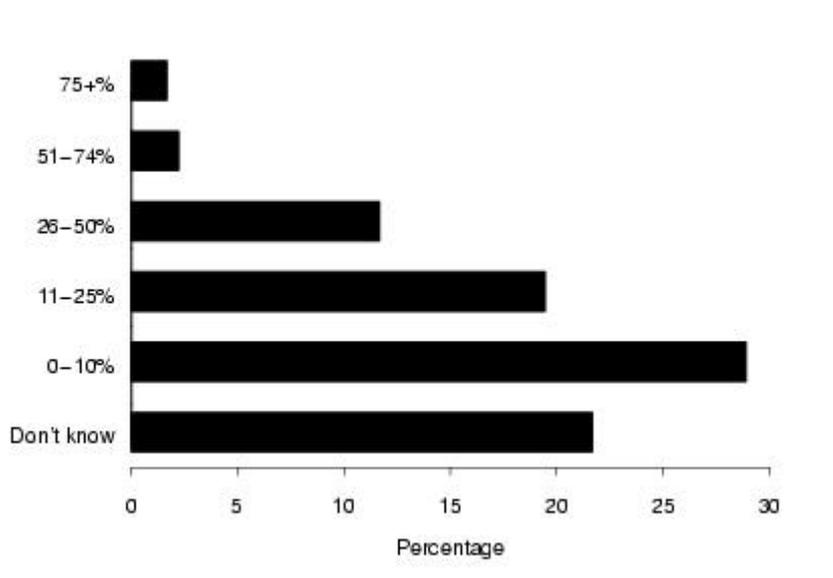
Teachers in state schools, except for those in decile 9 and 10 schools, along with state school parents, especially those with children in decile 1 to 4 schools, were more likely to see local

government representatives as part of the school’s community. Trustees in minor urban schools were more likely, and those in state-integrated schools less likely, to see local government representatives as part of the school’s community. The relative invisibility of the policy work done by various education-related government agencies, including local MoE branches, is a finding of this report that is further discussed in Section 17.

Consultation with current parents

For all four groups, parents of current students were unequivocally viewed as part of the school’s community. Nevertheless, despite the range of consultation methods used, many trustees made relatively low estimations of the numbers of parents who participated in consultation processes. Just 34 percent of trustees felt the consultation methods they used were generally successful and a further 33 percent felt they were successful for some issues.

Figure 16 Trustees’ perceptions of parent participation in community consultation



Topics on which boards consulted were varied, with a predominant emphasis on policy issues. As well as the issues listed in the next table, a few boards consulted on uniforms (2 percent) or the NCEA (1 percent).

Table 48 **Issues on which boards consulted with their community**

Issue	(n=180) %
Strategic planning/charter	49
Policies	41
Student achievement	34
Curriculum	32
Extracurricular activities	25
Discipline	24
Provision for particular groups of students	24
Health and safety	19
Funding	19
Property	18
Enrolment schemes/zoning	16
The board has not/not sure if the board has consulted with the community	13
Amalgamation/merger/area reorganisation	7
Other	6

Parents were more likely to be consulted about extracurricular activities when their children attended schools of less than 300 students.

Issues parents raise with their school boards

Sixty-nine percent of trustees said parents had raised issues with the board during the year, but only 28 percent of them said parents had come to a board meeting to present their case. As the next table shows, trustees' perceptions of parental concerns encompassed a diverse range of issues, with discipline and staff issues topping the list. Also mentioned by a small number of trustees was management issues (1 percent).

Table 49 Issues raised with the board by parents

Issue	(n=180) %
Discipline – including uniforms	43
Dissatisfaction with staff member	33
Parents have not/not sure if parents have raised any issues with the board	30
Student achievement	24
Provision for Māori students	21
Funding – including fundraising/spending	16
Future of school	14
Provision for students with special needs	14
Staffing/class sizes	14
Homework	13
Enrolment scheme	13
Health and safety	12
Curriculum	12
Transport	11
Extracurricular provision	10
Grounds maintenance	10
Theft/vandalism	7

Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to say fundraising was an issue parents raised with the board.

Fifty-two percent of parents said they had raised issues with the school. Of these parents, 36 percent felt they had been fairly listened to, and 12 percent felt they had not. Parents who identified as Pākehā or as New Zealanders were more likely to have raised issues of concern than were Asian, Pasifika, or “other” parents. Parents in managerial occupations were more likely to have raised concerns and those in service occupations, or who were unemployed, were less likely to have done so.

The parents who had raised these issues were asked to comment on what happened as a result. Many said appropriate action was taken (27 percent) but some said the action needed did not happen (9 percent) or was not sufficient (7 percent), too slow (4 percent), or inappropriate (3 percent). For 3 percent of parents, raising the issue appeared to be enough as they said no action was needed.

In many cases direct contact between the parents and the principal or a trustee was one of the measures used to deal with the issue. The full range of types of action taken is shown in the next table.

Table 50 How boards dealt with issues raised by parents

How issues were dealt with	(n=180) %
Principal discussed matter with parents	53
Board member discussed matter with parents	28
Board altered/developed school policy	24
Principal took disciplinary action	21
Board sought external assistance/advice	18
Taken to joint board/staff committee	12
Discussions with Ministry of Education	11
Special board meeting	11
Public meeting	10
Set up parent/board committee	7
Discussions with other local schools	6
No action taken	3

Consultation with Māori

Eighty-three percent of trustees said the school had an identifiable Māori community. Whereas almost all trustees in decile 1–6 schools said the school had an identifiable Māori community, those in decile 9–10 schools and in state-integrated schools were more likely to say the school did not have an identifiable Māori community or that they were not sure.

Seventy-two percent said the board had consulted this community in the last 12 months, but 6 percent were not sure, and 18 percent of trustees did not respond to this question. Trustees in state-integrated schools were less likely to have consulted with their Māori community in the last year. Just 32 percent of trustees felt this consultation had been generally successful and 23 percent felt it had been successful for some issues. Again there was a large non-response rate to this question (28 percent of trustees).

In contrast to general consultation, the methods used were more likely to involve direct contact between board of trustee members and members of the Māori community. As the next table shows, discussions and conversations took place in a range of settings.

Table 51 **Methods of board consultation with its Māori community**

Method	(n=180) %
Ongoing discussions with local Māori community	46
School has whānau group	46
Board member for Māori liaison	42
Asked Māori parents as a group	38
Close relations with local marae	24
Asked individual Māori parents	23
Put on school event	21
Trustees individually discuss with individual parents	21
Contacted all local iwi	16
School has no/not sure if school has a Māori community	15
Met with all local iwi	15
Sponsored a hui	8
Other	4

Trustees in schools of 300–499 students were more likely to have held discussions with individual Māori parents, and to have consulted them about bilingual units. Trustees in minor urban schools and in decile 1 or 2 schools were more likely to have held ongoing discussions with the local Māori community, while those in rural schools were more likely to have a board of trustee member for liaison with Māori. Secondary urban schools and state-integrated schools were less likely to have a board of trustee member for Māori liaison, or to have a whānau group. Unsurprisingly, in the light of their views reported above, trustees from state-integrated schools were also less likely to have close relations with the local marae. Trustees in decile 9 or 10 schools were less likely to have had ongoing discussions with the local Māori community, or to have asked Māori parents as a group.

As for more general consultation, policy, achievement, and curriculum issues were the areas most often canvassed. The next table shows that some of the issues consulted on were of direct relevance to the Māori community in particular, but others were of a more general nature.

Table 52 Issues on which boards consulted with their Māori community

Issue	(n=180) %
Māori achievement	41
Curriculum	26
Strategic planning/charter	26
Māori education policy	24
All issues	19
Discipline	18
Bilingual units	16
Appointments	13
Māori education funding	12
Treaty of Waitangi	12
Staffing	10
ERO report	9
Special needs provisions	6
Māori representation on board of trustees	2

Trustees in decile 9 or 10 schools were less likely to have consulted the local Māori community about the achievement of Māori students.

Consultation with other communities

Some boards had consulted with other specific groups within the overall community. These included Pasifika (17 percent), Asian (11 percent), and refugee communities (2 percent). Some had consulted particular religious communities (9 percent). Also mentioned was consultation with the business community (1 percent). Trustees in rural schools were more likely to say their board had not consulted other communities.

Fifteen percent of trustees said there were specific issues for their board around community consultation. In response to an open question, these were identified as the perception that there was no involvement or limited involvement from community, and that consultation was expensive and time-consuming (both 4 percent). For a few trustees, getting representatives from different communities to be involved was seen as an issue, as was the necessity to improve relationships with the community (both 3 percent).

Trustees in small schools (less than 300 students) were more likely to say there were no specific issues around community consultation, while those in schools of between 300–499 students were more likely to say there were issues.

Summary

We found low levels of parental involvement in secondary schools, and that involvement was usually episodic, in areas such as sport, fundraising, or school trips. The majority of parents did

not want more involvement, although some were unsure of the avenues for greater participation that could be open to them. The main reasons for not wanting to be involved were work commitments and lack of time.

Trustees and principals did want to see more parental involvement, usually in the same areas in which some parents already participated in school activities. Community support was seen to be higher for high decile schools.

Principals and trustees of integrated schools, along with teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools, were less likely to see a wide range of groups as belonging to the school's community. Trustees, parents, and teachers of schools in smaller towns, which are often lower decile, or somewhat smaller state schools, were likely to see a more inclusive range of groups as belonging to the school's community.

While community consultation took place, it was usually indirect, through paper-based methods. The exception was consultation with the Māori community, who were more likely to be consulted through face-to-face discussions in a variety of settings. There was a clear trend for decile 9 and 10 schools, and state-integrated schools, to be less likely to see local Māori groups as part of the school community, and they were less likely to use a range of consultation methods with them.

Boards wanted to consult parents about governance issues such as policy and planning, but parents raised more prosaic matters with boards—for example, discipline issues or concerns about specific teachers. Pākehā parents were more likely to have raised concerns, and a majority of those who did so felt they were fairly listened to.

10. School roles and relationships

Successful schools are underpinned by carefully managed and maintained partnerships between the various groups involved. As we have seen in Section 3, coping with limited finances is just one challenge that demands careful decision making and prioritisation from boards. Recent research has shown that financially successful schools are also ones with successful and well-managed relationships. In these schools the board and the management team had a shared framework for decision making, created by strategic planning carried out in conditions where principals and trustees were “respectful of their different roles, open, and trusting” (Wylie & King, 2004, p. 33).

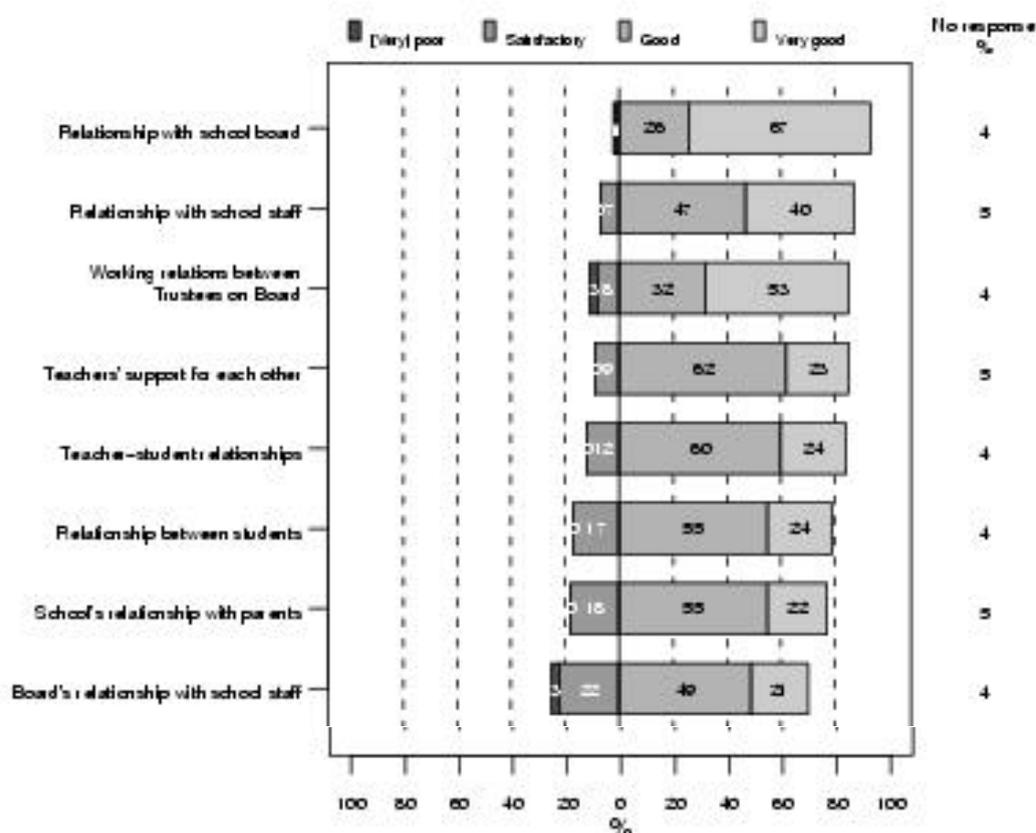
Achieving such relationships clearly requires good communication and a clear understanding of the scope and boundaries of different roles. Boards must address parents’ expectations yet also make decisions that are consistent with the vision and direction of the school’s professional leadership. Principals and teachers look to boards to be good employers, and may sometimes require mediation when staff relationships become problematic or there are ongoing issues with the quality of a teacher’s work. How well did the schools cope with this demanding set of challenges?

Principals’ views of school relationships

Principals play a pivotal role in the maintenance of good relationships between the various groups that comprise the school’s community. This section begins by reporting their perceptions of the quality of various school-community relationships.

Almost all principals rated their relationship with the board as good or very good, and they were mostly positive about other relationships as well. The relationship least often rated as good or very good was between the board and the school staff. This view was not shared by the trustees, more than half of whom thought they enjoyed a very good relationship with staff (see later in this section).

Figure 17 Principals' views of quality of school relationships



The key elements in school trustees' role

All four groups of respondents were provided the same list of key elements and asked to identify the *one* element that they thought best summed up the board's role. Responses are shown in the next table. Around half the trustees and parents and about a third of the principals and teachers saw the key role as providing strategic direction for the school. Slightly more teachers nominated working in partnership with the staff. This was seen as the key role by somewhat fewer principals, and even less trustees or parents. Representing the parents was nominated as the key role by around a fifth of the principals, trustees, and parents, but by somewhat fewer teachers. With skilful leadership, it is entirely possible that all three of these roles can be smoothly integrated but it is evident that good communication strategies would be essential if the varying expectations of different groups are to be met. Understandably the small number of responding student trustees saw their key role as representing the students.

Table 53 Perceptions of the key role of the board of trustees

Role	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=95) %	Parents (n=604) %
Providing direction for school	35	35	46	51
Partnership with staff	25	36	18	16
Represent parents	24	12	22	20
Employer of staff	5	10	3	3
Governance	4	-	3	-
Representing students	-	-	3	-

Trustees in small schools and in decile 1–3 schools were more likely to select partnership with the staff as the key element of their role. Trustees in decile 1–3 schools were also more likely to select providing strategic direction for the school. Trustees in decile 7–10 schools were more likely to choose governance as the key element of their role.

What boards spend their time on

Trustees were asked to rank nine tasks in order of the overall amount of time the board spent on them in the past year. They gave a ranking of 1 to the task on which they spent the most time and a ranking of 9 to the task on which they spent the least time. Average rankings for each task are shown in the next table. The lower the number, the more time spent on a task on average. As outlined above, the provision of strategic management was the most frequently nominated key role, but the collective estimate was that boards spent most time on financial management and property/maintenance. They spent least time on day-to-day management and board self-review. Notwithstanding this last-place ranking, 37 percent of trustees said their board had a process for annual self-review and a further 40 percent said reviews were undertaken sometimes.

Table 54 Trustees' rankings of the time taken by board activities

Activity	Mean ranking
Financial management	3.0
Property/maintenance	3.5
Strategic planning	4.1
Policy decisions	4.8
Monitoring school performance	4.9
Personnel/industrial	5.1
Curriculum	5.6
Day-to-day management	6.3
Board self-review	7.3

Should trustees do more or less?

The next table compares views of the amount of responsibility exercised by the board. Around half of each group thought the board's level of responsibility was about right, although more principals than trustees or teachers thought the board had too much responsibility. Very few respondents thought the board had too little responsibility.

Table 55 Views of the overall responsibility of the board of trustees

View	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Too much	48	31	36
About right	47	59	59
Too little	1	3	3

Trustees in small schools were more likely to think that responsibility levels were too high, as were teachers in rural schools. Trustees from schools with rolls of more than 300 were more likely to see these levels as being about right.

Notwithstanding their views on the levels of responsibility they already had, 29 percent of trustees wanted more involvement in school life. Thirty-two percent of principals and somewhat fewer teachers (23 percent) also wanted trustees to have more involvement in school life. Eleven percent of trustees wanted to be less involved in school life. Fifteen percent of principals and 8 percent of teachers said there were areas where they would like their board to be less involved.

Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to think there were areas where the board could be more involved, and those in decile 9 or 10 schools were more likely to think there were not. Rural teachers were also more likely to want less involvement from their board generally.

Trustees who wanted more involvement in school life indicated that they wanted to be more involved in monitoring school performance (18 percent), followed by strategic planning (8 percent), and personnel/industrial (7 percent). No principals chose monitoring school performance as an area where they wanted to see more trustee involvement. Rather, they nominated areas such as strategic planning (20 percent), policy decisions (11 percent), property/maintenance (10 percent), and financial management (7 percent). The potential for conflicting aspirations is evident.

The small number of trustees who wanted to be less involved in school life nominated property maintenance, financial management, and day-to-day management as areas where they would like to be less involved. Principals also nominated day-to-day management.

The state of key relationships

Relationships between the principal and the board

Most trustees saw the relationship between the principal and the board in a positive light. Seventy-six percent said the relationship was very good, 17 percent that it was good, and 7 percent that it was satisfactory. No trustees said that this key relationship was poor or very poor.

The next table shows the frequency with which principals and trustees picked one descriptor from a set of qualitative statements about their working relationship. Trustees were more likely to perceive a supportive relationship at both philosophical and practical levels whereas some principals perceived the support they got to be not as practical. Clearly, a small number of boards actually did have problematic relationships with the principal.

Table 56 **Working relationships between the principal and the board**

Information use	Principals (n=95) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Supportive board, both practically and in terms of school philosophy	62	84
Supportive board, but not in practical terms	26	6
Reactive board, reliant on principal for guidance in their work	5	4
Mistrustful board, sees problems with principal's leadership	1	2
Divided board, with "pro-" and "anti-" principal groups	1	2

Relationships between teachers and the board

Trustees were more likely than either principals or teachers to see the staff/board relationship as very good. However a clear majority of all three groups saw these relationships in a positive light. Combined very good/good responses were highest for trustees (80 percent), next for principals (70 percent), and lowest for teachers (60 percent). Poor relationships were perceived by just 6 percent of teachers and even fewer trustees or principals.

Table 57 **Perceptions of staff/board relationships**

Perception	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=95) %
Very good	21	26	54
Good	49	34	26
Satisfactory	22	31	16
Non-existent/Very poor/Poor	3	6	4

In the same vein many trustees and teachers were satisfied with the levels of contact between them (trustees, 79 percent; teachers, 66 percent). Teachers in main urban schools were less likely to be satisfied with their contact with trustees.

Trustees' perceptions of their contact with teachers

Two percent of trustees said they had no contact with the school staff. As the next table shows, the most frequent types of contact are when staff attend board meetings or at social functions. Trustees also report relatively high levels of contact through individual discussions or working together on school-related tasks. Comparing these responses with the teachers' responses that

follow suggests that contacts may take place between trustees and a somewhat restricted proportion of the overall teaching staff.

Table 58 **Contact between trustees and teachers**

Type of contact	(n=180) %
Teachers attend/present at some board meetings	78
Social functions	67
Individual discussions out of school hours	63
Individual discussions in school hours	51
Strategic planning sessions	42
Working groups to develop policy	37
School working bees/fundraising events	23
Help at the school	23
Trustee is employed at the school	12
School committees – consulting on professional development	3

Trustees in schools of 300–499 students were more likely to have held individual discussions with teachers outside of school hours. Trustees in rural schools were less likely to say they had held discussions with teachers outside school hours but were more likely to have held such discussions during the school day. Trustees in state-integrated schools were more likely to have been in contact with teachers during school working bees and fundraising events.

Teachers' perceptions of their contact with trustees

Twenty-six percent of teachers said they had no contact with trustees. Other teachers reported lower levels of contact than did the trustees. Some teachers appear not to have the opportunity to present reports at board meetings, or to join working parties. Some may not attend social functions or feel they can chat casually to trustees at school or elsewhere. In addition to the types of contact shown in the next table, some trustees visited classrooms, or the responding teacher was the staff representative on the board (both 2 percent), or the teacher was a member of a board subcommittee (1 percent).

Table 59 **Teachers' contact with their school trustees**

Type of contact	(n=744) %
Talked at school functions	47
Met them at staff/board social occasion(s)	46
Informal contact around school	36
Informal contact in community	32
No contact	26
Attended/presented information at board meetings	22
Trustee is parent of a student	21
Participated in strategic planning with them	15

In their interactions with the board of trustees, rural school teachers were more likely to have undertaken strategic planning, or made presentations at board meetings. Along with teachers in minor urban schools, they were also more likely to have interacted with board members at school functions, other social occasions, and by way of informal contact in the community. These opportunities appear to be related to the relatively smaller sizes of rural and minor urban schools. Supporting this suggestion, teachers in small schools were more likely to have made presentations at board meetings, talked to board members at school functions, met them on social occasions or informally in the community, and met them in informal contact around the school. Teachers in schools of less than 500 students were more likely to be teaching the child of a trustee and teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to have attended and presented at board meetings. By contrast, teachers in main urban schools were more likely to have had little informal contact with their board. Teachers in state-integrated schools were more likely to have had contact with trustees on social occasions than teachers in state schools.

The next table shows the types of contacts teachers had with their staff representative on the board of trustees. Despite the informal nature of some types of contacts, 71 percent of teachers were satisfied that their contact with the staff representative on the board of trustees was sufficient. Twelve percent were not satisfied, and 14 percent were not sure. Less than 1 percent said they had no contact with their staff representative on the board.

Table 60 **Teachers' contact with the staff representative on board of trustees**

Contact with staff representative	(n=744) %
Regular group report after board meetings	47
Nothing formal	46
Asked to provide information for board meetings	20
Individual discussion on agenda items before board meetings	11
Regular group discussion on agenda items before board meetings	6

Staff representatives in rural schools were more likely to have taken meetings for other teachers after a board meeting. They were also more likely to have asked other teachers to provide information for board meetings, as were representatives in decile 1 and 2 schools. Teachers in

secondary urban schools were more likely to have had no formal contact with their staff representative on the board.

Relationships between principals and school staff

The next table paints a generally positive picture of relationships between the principal and staff in most schools. Principals were somewhat more positive than teachers. No principals said their relationships with the staff were poor or very poor, whereas 10³² percent of teachers judged their relationships with their principal to be of this calibre.

Table 61 Perceptions of relationships between the principal and the staff

Perception	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Very good	40	33
Good	47	34
Satisfactory	7	21
Poor		7
Very poor		2

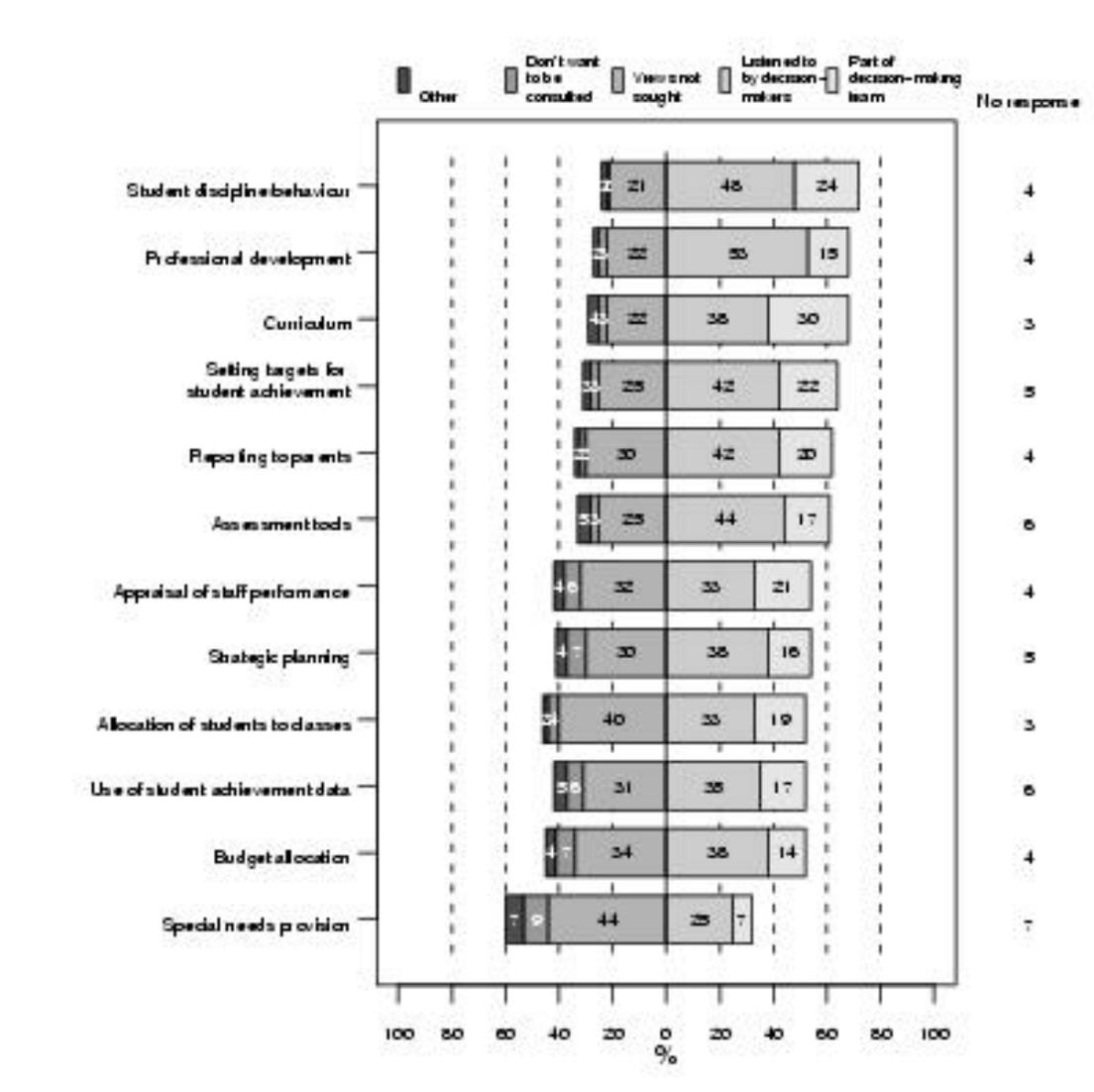
Teachers' access to information and their part in school decision making

Less than a third of the teachers thought that their access to information on matters affecting their work was good (30 percent), but 51 percent described it as fair. Eleven percent found it unreliable and 6 percent said they did not get information on time.

The next figure shows that teachers were more likely to feel they were listened to than to feel they were actually part of a decision-making team. A very few did not want to be consulted. Allocation of students to classes and special needs provision were two areas where more teachers felt their views were not sought.

³² Rounding of percentages reduced this to 9 percent in the table summary.

Figure 18 Teachers' part in school decision making



Thirty percent of the teachers said there were areas of school life where they would like to be more involved in decision making. Fifty percent did not want more involvement, and 15 percent were not sure.

Teachers who said there were areas of school life where they would like to be more involved were also more likely to say that access to information they needed was not reliable or not on time. Conversely, those who said there were no areas they would like to be more involved in were also more likely to say their access to information was good.

Working relations between trustees

Working relationships between trustees were seen as very good by 68 percent of board members. Twenty-three percent thought they were good, and 8 percent that they were satisfactory. Very few

trustees saw board of trustee relationships as poor and none saw them as very poor. Trustees in schools with rolls of more than 500 were more likely to see board of trustee relationships as very good while those in the smallest schools were more likely to see them as good or satisfactory.

Forty-seven percent of trustees said their board had faced some conflict or difficulty within the board, or between the board and staff in the past 3 years. Forty-four percent had not, and 9 percent were unsure. Trustees from decile 1 or 2 schools were more likely, and trustees from decile 7 or 8 schools were less likely, to have faced such conflicts or difficulties.

As might be expected, conflict was associated with needing to make challenging decisions. Trustees who said their board had faced conflict or difficulty were also more likely to have said the board had faced financial management issues, or industrial relations issues, or needed to make major policy decisions in areas such as school amalgamation. Appointing a new principal was not associated with board conflict in the same way.

Board responses to conflict or difficulty

Boards in conflict sought advice from NZSTA (27 percent), or resolved the issue amongst themselves (22 percent). Other agencies consulted by boards included the MoE (16 percent), the PPTA (13 percent), or a Principal's Association (6 percent). Some boards used a mediator (12 percent), or got help from the MoE (6 percent). A few dismissed staff or got help from a private firm (both 5 percent). A very few boards sought advice from a non-local school (3 percent).

Some trustees said their board tried one or two of these strategies (28 percent) but 19 percent of trustees said their board tried three or more strategies. In 27 percent of cases trustees said the action taken resolved the issue and a further 10 percent said it was partially solved. Four percent said it was too soon to tell, and 2 percent said the issue was beyond the board's capacity to resolve. One trustee said the action taken had not been successful. Trustees in decile 9 or 10 schools were more likely to have resolved issues for themselves.

Boards as employers

As the ultimate employer of the school staff, boards carry a great deal of responsibility. In practice, decision making in this area is usually undertaken in close consultation with the principal, and often with the school's senior management team. Given that the board is also the employer of these senior staff, this may entail some delicate balancing of delegated responsibilities, and a good deal of trust and sensitivity in interpersonal interactions. We next explore trustees', principals', and teachers' thinking about where the balance of responsibility should lie in various employment-related areas of decision making.

Appointing a new principal

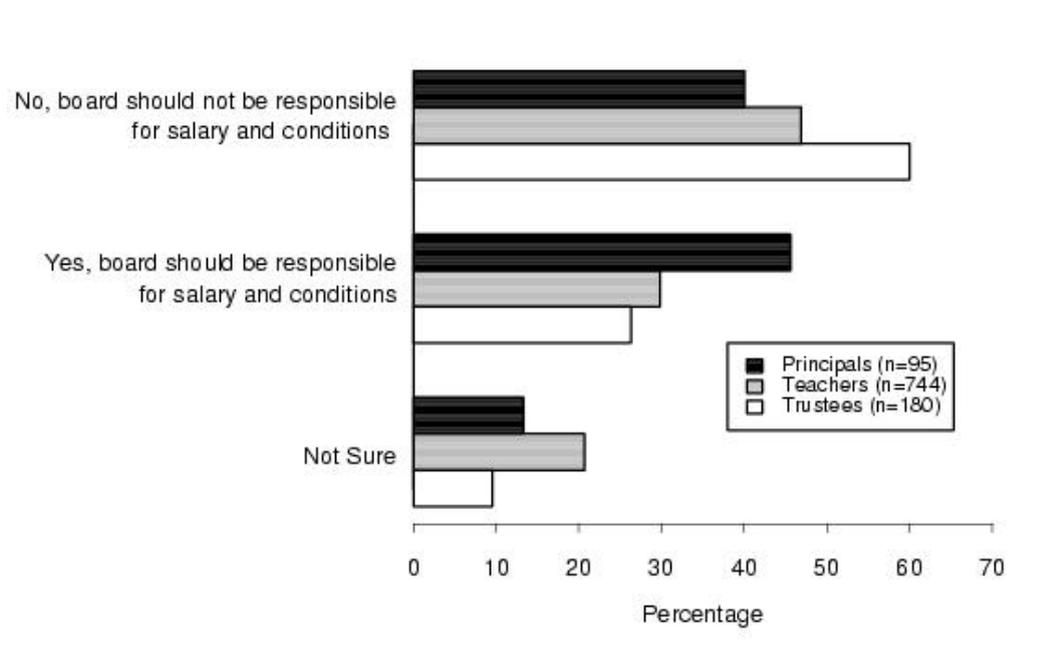
Forty-one percent of trustees said their board had appointed a new principal in the last year. In the process of making this decision, 17 percent of boards took advice from another principal, and 14 percent from a human resources consultant. Four percent took no external advice.

Should boards negotiate the principal's salary and conditions?

Most principals had their salary and conditions determined by a collective employment agreement (69 percent). Nearly a quarter had individual employment agreements with their board of trustees (24 percent).

Perhaps understandably, the greatest support for the board taking responsibility for negotiating the principal's salary and conditions came from the trustees themselves, although less than half of them saw this as their role. Principals were more inclined to disagree that this should be a role for the board with teachers adopting a position somewhere between the two views, and with more "not sure" responses.

Figure 19 **Views on board involvement in determining principal's salary and conditions**



The main reason given in support of this view was that the board is ultimately responsible as the principal's employer (trustees, 39 percent; teachers, 25 percent; principals, 19 percent). It was also seen by some as allowing local conditions to be taken into account (trustees, 25 percent; principals, 20 percent; teachers, 17 percent).

Many principals believed that boards lacked the expertise to take responsibility for negotiating their pay and conditions (46 percent), a view shared by 35 percent of teachers and 27 percent of the trustees. The other main reasons given for opposing this practice were that inequities would grow between schools (principals, 50 percent; teachers, 46 percent; trustees, 28 percent) and that such negotiations belong at a national level (principals, 48 percent; teachers 46.5 percent; trustees

37 percent). Twenty-eight percent of principals thought this practice would have a negative impact on the board-staff relationship, a view shared by 26 percent of teachers and 19 percent of trustees. Also mentioned were that it would be inefficient to pass this task on to individual boards (principals, 21 percent; teachers, 17 percent; trustees, 11 percent).

Teachers and trustees in state-integrated schools who thought the board should have the responsibility for negotiating the principal's salary and conditions were also more likely to say they thought this because the board is ultimately responsible as the employer. Of those who were opposed, trustees in schools of 300–499 students were more likely to think that boards lacked the expertise to negotiate the principal's salary, as were teachers in small schools. Trustees in state-integrated schools were less likely to think this would have a negative impact on the BOT-staff relationship, or that such negotiations belonged at a national level. Trustees in rural and minor urban schools were more likely to think that inequities between boards would grow.

Should boards appoint teachers?

Again, views differ about the role the board should take in meeting their responsibilities as the ultimate employer of the teaching staff.

Most teachers, trustees, and principals were of the view that the principal should be involved in making appointments of non-senior staff, often in consultation with others. As the next table shows, few teachers thought the principal alone should make this decision, which should involve the relevant HOD. A small number of trustees thought they should have the responsibility without the help of the principal, or in some cases, the relevant HOD.

Table 62 Who should be responsible for making non-senior teaching appointments?

Who should be responsible	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Principal and HOD	40	50	29
Principal	39	10	32
Principal, HOD, and board	11	23	19
Principal and board	2	2	6
HOD only	1	6	4
Combination that includes consulting other staff	3	3	1
HOD and board	-	-	2
Board only	-	1	5

Trustees in schools of 300–499 students were more likely to think the board should be responsible for all non-senior teaching appointments. Rural teachers were less likely to want the HOD or the HOD and the principal to make such decisions. Instead, they were more likely to want the board involved along with the principal and the HOD. By contrast, teachers in main urban schools were more likely to prefer that appointments be made by the principal and the HOD, without board involvement.

There was also relative agreement about who should appoint staff to senior positions. The majority view was that the principal and the board should do this together. Teachers in rural schools were more likely to hold this view than were teachers in other types of schools.

Table 63 Who should be responsible for making senior teaching appointments?

Who should be responsible	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Both principal and board	74	65	68
Principal	19	23	22
Board of trustees	3	2	5
Principal, board, and senior staff		3	1
Principal and departmental staff		2	2

Undertaking performance appraisals

It is mandatory for schools to undertake performance appraisals of all teaching staff. The MoE specifies two intended outcomes from appraisal of the principals' performance. The first is accountability for leading the school and managing the quality of teaching. The second is to inform the setting of development objectives related to school-wide organisational goals and professional development goals personal to the principal.³³ It is expected that the primary relationship for this appraisal will be between the principal and the board chairperson, although others may be involved:

The Education Act 1989 requires teachers to be 'satisfactory' practitioners and, when renewing their practising certificate every third year, to satisfy the Teacher Registration Board that they remain so. This requirement needs to be incorporated into the performance management systems operating in schools and other institutions. Every teacher must show that acceptable learning occurs for all students under their responsibility, within an environment that affirms the bicultural and multicultural nature of New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 1997).³⁴

The MoE requirement repeated verbatim here shows that teacher appraisal is clearly also intended to be seen as meaningful, important and challenging. We next look at how appraisal was actually carried out, and teachers' views of its uses and effectiveness.

Principal performance appraisal

Just under half the trustees (47 percent) said the board used an independent adviser or performance appraiser for the principal's performance review, most commonly an individual

³³ Details from Performance Management Systems Bulletin, *PMS May 1997*, available at www.minedu.govt.nz

³⁴ Verbatim quote from Bulletin *PMS July 1997*, available at www.minedu.govt.nz

education consultant (30 percent) or another principal (9 percent). Thirty-nine percent did not use an independent person and 14 percent were unsure.

Trustees used the principal’s performance review to determine remuneration to a little extent (31 percent), to a large extent (7 percent), or not at all (26 percent). They made greater use of this information to determine the principal’s professional development needs—to a large extent (37 percent), to a little extent (31 percent), with 5 percent not using this at all.

Staff performance appraisal

Principals identified multiple measures used to evaluate teachers’ work. Classroom observations, interviews with teachers, and teacher self-appraisal were all used in most schools. Other NZCER research has documented the evolving process of using the more detailed qualifications data generated by the NCEA for departmental or individual self-review (Hipkins et al., 2004). This new opportunity may explain the relatively high (60 percent) accorded to analysis of achievement data as a method used to evaluate teachers’ work.

Table 64 **Methods used to evaluate teachers’ work**

Method used	(n=95) %
Observations of teacher in classroom	97
Interview with teacher	93
Self-appraisal	87
Teacher self-report	82
Student feedback	71
Analysis of achievement data	61
ERO	35
External consultant	22
Parent feedback	19

Sixty-six percent of teachers were satisfied with the way they were appraised and 21 percent were not. Three percent said they were not appraised and 8 percent were not sure.

Principals identified multiple uses for teachers’ performance appraisals, with an emphasis on supporting staff to learn and grow professionally. While teachers identified a similar range of uses, not as many of them appeared to think their performance appraisal would be used for these purposes.

Table 65 Use made of performance appraisals

Use	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=431) %
Identify staff professional development needs	93	65
Support and encourage staff	87	45
Improve areas of performance	87	60
Determine eligibility for pay increment	66	45
Renew teacher practising certificates	52	40
Inform school development/strategic plan	54	11
Supply info to board	38	17
Plan career	32	9
Writing references	25	5
Supply info to ERO	14	20
Not sure	0	12

Principals of state-integrated schools were more likely to say they used performance appraisal information to renew teacher practising certificates. Teachers in state schools were more likely to say their performance appraisal was used to determine their eligibility for pay increments and teachers in small schools were more likely to have this information used to renew their practising certificates, or to supply information to the board of trustees.

Fifty-nine percent of teachers were satisfied with the use of their performance appraisal and 20 percent were not. A relatively high 20 percent were unsure. Eleven percent thought the school's form of appraisal was improving teaching and learning in the school, and 46 percent thought it was of some use for this purpose, with teachers in minor urban schools more likely to say this.

Some teachers thought it would be helpful if more time (14 percent) or resources (4 percent) were available, with teachers in secondary urban schools more likely to say this. Eighteen percent of teachers said the appraisal was not helpful for improving teaching and learning.

Teachers who said they were not satisfied with the way their performance appraisal was used were also more likely to say that access to information they needed was not reliable or not on time, and that the appraisal had not been helpful for improving teaching and learning in the school. Conversely, those who said they were satisfied were also more likely to say their access to information was good. The satisfied teachers were also more likely to think that the appraisal had been very helpful, or of some use, in improving teaching and learning in the school.

Board responses to industrial relations issues

Forty-four percent of trustees said their board had faced industrial relations issues and problems in the last year, 41 percent had not, and 14 percent were unsure. When this happened they sought advice from the School Trustees Association (28 percent), lawyers (23 percent), the PPTA (22 percent), the Ministry of Education (15 percent), the Principals' Association (8 percent), or the

Employers Federation (3 percent). Five percent took out insurance and 4 percent employed a private consultant.

These actions solved the problem in 29 percent of cases, and partially solved it in 9 percent of cases. There was a high non-response rate (57 percent) to this question.

How boards are doing

While just over a third of principals and trustees confidently assessed their board as being “on top of the task”, somewhat more of each group opted for a more cautious descriptor—“making steady progress”. Teachers were more likely than either principals or trustees to say boards were “coping” or to say they did not know.

Table 66 Perceptions of the performance of the board of trustees

Perception	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=95) %
Making steady progress	47	36	54
On top of task	36	17	38
Coping	12	19	5
Struggling	2	4	2
Don't know	-	21	-

Teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to think the board was making steady progress, while rural teachers were more likely to think the board was coping, and teachers in main urban schools were more likely to say they didn't know.

Confidence in the board's ability to carry out its role was also related to school size. Those who were teaching in small schools were more likely to think the board was just coping, or was struggling. Those in schools of 300–499 were more likely to say the board was making steady progress and those in schools of 500+ to say it was on top of the task.

Issues facing schools

Perceptions of the major issues confronting a school constitute another area where there is potential for differences and hence a need for good communication to develop a shared view of what really matters most for the school community. We asked all the survey respondents to select what they saw as the *three* major issues confronting schools from a provided list. How much commonality was there between their different perspectives?

There was some degree of unanimity. Trustees, principals, teachers, and parents all selected *funding* as one of the top three issues. The next table compares their responses and shows a diversity of views about the other issues that confront schools:

- Many principals were concerned about *teacher recruitment* whereas many teachers were concerned about *retention*. A greater proportion of parents than any other group saw the quality of teaching staff as an issue.
- The *NCEA* was a top-ranking concern for parents, along with *student behaviour/discipline*. Teachers also rated student behaviour/discipline as one of their top three issues and the NCEA was ranked fourth on their list of concerns, as it was for both principals and trustees. More teachers than any other group saw *assessment* as a major issue.
- Both principals and trustees rated property development as one of their top three issues. Trustees' other top-ranking concern was the school roll.

It is notable that very few people from any group rated workload, or the role of the board, as “top three” issues. Nevertheless, in response to a different question about government priorities for action/change (see Section 17) workload issues came to the fore. A few principals, teachers, and parents mentioned the quality of the board as a top three issue (all 2 percent). A few principals mentioned student achievement (2 percent) or new paradigms of teaching and retaining senior/middle management (both 1 percent).

Table 67 The major issues confronting schools

Issue	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %	Parents (n=503) %
Funding	50	38	57	30
Property development	26	16	27	6
Recruitment of teaching staff	26	13	18	12
NCEA	24	24	26	31
Staffing levels	20	20	12	13
School roll	20	19	31	20
Student behaviour/discipline	19	32	14	31
Quality of teaching	15	9	9	17
Quality of teaching staff	14	10	8	25
ICT	12	7	6	2
Retention of teaching staff	11	25	13	12
Curriculum	6	6	0	7
Property maintenance	5	5	13	5
Planning/policy/charter	4	3	7	3
Parent/community support	3	8	7	7
Assessment	2	11	3	6
Workload	2	2	3	-
Role of board	2	1	4	1
New planning and reporting requirements	1	6	6	4
Principal's leadership	-	9	6	8

There was some variation in the degree to which concerns were expressed by respondents from different types of schools:

- Principals in rural and secondary urban schools were more likely to identify recruitment of teaching staff as one of three major issues confronting the school, as were teachers in rural schools, and in decile 1–4 schools. Staff retention was more likely to be seen as a major issue by teachers in minor urban schools and staffing levels were more likely to be seen as an issue by teachers in decile 3 and 4 schools.
- The school roll was more likely to be seen as an issue by teachers and trustees in small schools, and by teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools.
- Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools, and in schools of between 300–499 students, were more likely to be concerned about student behaviour and discipline. Parents of students in decile 5 or 6 schools were also more likely to be concerned about student behaviour and discipline while parents of students in decile 9 or 10 schools were less likely to nominate this as a major issue confronting the school. In general, more parents of students in state schools were concerned about behaviour and discipline than were parents of students in state-integrated schools.
- Funding was more likely to be seen as an issue by teachers in decile 5 and 6 schools.
- Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools and trustees in small schools were less likely to be concerned about property development, while teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to be concerned about this.
- Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were also more likely to be concerned about assessment and the NCEA, while teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to be concerned about these two related issues.

Summary

School relationships are mostly in good heart. Most principals and trustees are confident they have established good working relationships with each other. Some teachers appear to have less contact with their board than others. From the principals' and teachers' perspectives the board/staff relationship is not as strong as the board/principal relationship, but trustees do not share this view.

Around half the principals, teachers, and trustees think the amount of responsibility devolved to the board is about right. Boards are more often seen as “making steady progress” than “on top of the task”. Despite nearly half the boards having faced issues or difficulties, a majority saw trustee working relations as good or very good. Conflict within the board was associated with needing to make challenging decisions about financial management, industrial relations issues, or major policies.

Opinion is fairly evenly divided over whether the one key role of the board is providing direction for the school, working in partnership with the staff, or representing the parents. In reality, boards spend most time on financial management and property maintenance. There is a consensus view amongst principals, teachers, trustees, and parents that funding is the main issue facing boards and schools.

Overall, principals are more positive about their relationships with school staff than teachers are about their relationships with the principal. While many teachers feel their ideas are listened to, fewer see themselves as taking an active role in school decision making. Teachers' responses suggest information flows could be strengthened in some schools if teachers are to be more fully involved in decision making.

For a variety of reasons, the majority view is that boards should not have to take responsibility for negotiating the principal's salary and conditions. Only a quarter of the principals had individual employment contracts negotiated with their board. Less than half the boards used the services of an independent person to carry out the principal's appraisal.

Appointment of new teaching staff, including senior management staff, was most frequently seen as a shared responsibility for some combination of the principal, trustees, and other teaching staff. Almost all the teachers had been appraised. A majority was satisfied with both the process and the outcomes. Multiple methods were used in the appraisal process and the outcome was most often used to identify professional development needs.

11. Workloads, morale, and satisfaction

The 1999 National Survey noted that “there can be little doubt that school self-management increases workloads for school staff” (Wylie, 1999, p. 111). Concern about workloads in the secondary sector led to the production of the 2000 report *Addressing Teacher and Management Workload in Secondary Schools*,³⁵ which made a range of suggestions about ways workloads could be better managed, including juggling the timetable or making more strategic use of support staff. In this context, we note that most schools feel they need more support staff time, and it seems likely that the support staff resources available to schools are already stretched (see Section 5). Other suggestions in the report—for example, making better use of computers and email—could arguably add to workloads, at least in the short term while systems are established and personal skills honed (see Section 13).

While aspects of workload related to the implementation of school self-management were and are general to all schools, there have been additional factors at work in the secondary sector. Other NZCER research has found that the implementation of the NCEA qualification further increased teachers’ workloads from 2002 and was one cause of teacher disquiet about these assessment reforms (Hipkins & Vaughan, 2002; Hipkins et al., 2004). The evidence of this is also present in teachers’ responses in this section.

At the time this report was being prepared the MoE had recently contracted research on secondary teacher workloads and this was being carried out by the Australian Council for Educational Research. In September 2004, again just as this report was being completed, the PPTA negotiated a 3-year salary and conditions package that will see further increases in non-contact time for teachers progressively introduced from 2005.

Principals’ workloads

Principals’ workloads are very high, averaging 67 hours per week. The 1999 NZCER survey noted that after decentralisation reforms of the early 1990s it was seldom possible for primary school principals to do their job in under 50 hours per week (Wylie, 1999). This is also the case for secondary school principals. Just over a quarter are working more than 70 hours per week. Although two categories of less than 50 hours per week were provided in the questionnaire, no principals selected these as indicative of their workloads.

³⁵ An abridged version can be found on the MoE website www.minedu.govt.nz

Table 68 Principals' average hours of work per week

Average number of hours worked	2003 (n=95) %
51–55 hours	5
56–60 hours	19
61–65 hours	22
66–70 hours	21
71–80 hours	21
81 hours or more	5

When asked about changes they would like to make to their roles, principals who were working more than 70 hours per week were those most likely to say they wanted to achieve a more balanced lifestyle.

The next table shows principals' estimates of the proportion of their time they spend on various tasks.³⁶ The most time-consuming type of task reported was administration, which took on average 29 percent of a principal's working time. Next most time-consuming was managing staff (22 percent of working time) followed by the provision of educational leadership (17 percent of working time). Working with the board of trustees and property management both took an average of 10 percent of the principal's working time. Tasks that took less time on average were promoting the school (9 percent), dealing with health and social service agencies (5 percent), and special needs funding and management (4 percent).

Just 4.5 percent of time, on average, was spent on classroom teaching, but 42 percent of the secondary principals were not timetabled to teach on a regular basis. At the other extreme, 9 percent of principals taught for 11 percent of their time or more.

³⁶ These estimates have been averaged for the summary that follows.

Table 69 Tasks on which principals spent their time

Task	None (n=95) %	1–10 (n=95) %	11–25 (n=95) %	26–40 (n=95) %	41–60 (n=95) %	61–75 (n=95) %	76 + (n=95) %
Educational leadership	-	40	36	13	3	-	-
School administration	-	9	34		31	17	2
Staffing/personnel/performance management	-	19	41	18	5	1	1
Classroom teaching	42	35	8	1	-	-	
Special needs funding/management	23	49	2	-	-	-	-
Dealing with health and social services agencies	19	55	3	-	-	-	-
Own professional development	7	66	7	-	-	-	-
School promotion/marketing	3	61	17	2	1	-	-
Maintenance	1	60	23	1	1	-	-
Working with BoT	1	65	19	5	-	-	-
Students management	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Property management/maintenance	1	60	23	1	1	-	-

Principals' achievements

When principals identified their three main achievements in the last 3 years from a provided list, their main focus was on leadership, the provision of a good learning environment in the school, and on having a good reputation and a quality teaching staff. This is interesting given that, by their own estimates, just 17 percent of principals' time is spent on the provision of educational leadership in the school.

Unlike the teachers, for almost half of whom the implementation of the NCEA was seen as an important achievement, just 13 percent of principals selected this in their top three achievements. Similarly, more teachers (30 percent) than principals (19 percent) chose increased student achievement in their three main achievements.

Table 70 Principals' main achievements in the last 5 years

Achievement	Principals (n=95) %
Providing good leadership	54
Positive/improved learning environment	52
Good school reputation	21
Quality of staff	20
Improvement in student achievement	19
Improvements to buildings and grounds	18
Roll growth/stability	13
Implementation of NCEA	13
Implementation of innovative programme	10
Improved performance appraisal system	8
Improved professional development for staff	8
Progress in implementing curriculum	6
Community/Board/parents more involved in school	6
Improved student assessment	6
Improved resources	5
Meeting needs of particular group	3

A majority (64 percent) of principals agreed that there were things they had hoped to achieve in the last 3 years but had not been able to do, compared to 18 percent who disagreed and 9 percent who were not sure. The next table shows those areas in which their aspirations were not met.

Table 71 Areas in which principals had not achieved what they had hoped to in the last 3 years

Area	Principals (n=95) %
Improvement in achievement	21
Improvements to buildings/grounds	18
Implementation of innovative programme	17
Improved professional development for staff	17
Improved resources	15
Improved student assessment	13
Quality of staff	12
Roll growth/stability	12
Community/parents/BoT more involved in school	11
Meeting needs of particular group	10
Positive, improved learning environment	8
Progress in implementing curriculum	8
Improved performance appraisal system	8
Good school reputation	4
Providing good leadership	3
Implementation of NCEA	3

Reasons principals had not been able to achieve the changes they aspired to are shown in the next table. The most frequently mentioned reasons—lack of time and money—are also the reasons they gave for not being able to make curriculum changes (see Section 12).

Table 72 Reasons principals had not achieved what they had hoped to

Reason	Principals (n=95) %
Lack of money	41
Lack of time	40
Staffing levels	23
Lack of staff energy	22
National curriculum requirements	12
Lack of staff expertise	8
Lack of staff commitment	7
Student behaviour	7
Not selected for programme	7
Parents' expectations	6
Lack of teaching resources	6
Conservative community	5
Lack of external advice/support	5
Lack of professional development	4
Wrong kind of professional development	4
Lack of BoT expertise	4

Sources of principals' job dissatisfaction

The next table shows patterns of responses when principals were asked to identify three things about their work they would like to change. Consistent with their focus on the provision of good leadership, half of the principals wanted more time to reflect, read, and be innovative in their roles. Their desire to reduce the amount of administration and paperwork was next most frequently mentioned, and rated at a similar level to teachers' responses to the same question (see below).

Principals seemed less concerned than teachers about reducing their high workloads, but 28 percent of them wanted more balance in their lives. Compared with other factors provided, salary increases seem less important to either principals or teachers. Also mentioned by principals were more contact with other schools and improved parental support (both 2 percent) and removing curriculum constraints (1 percent).

Table 73 **Aspects of their work principals would like to change**

Change	Principals (n=95) %
More time to reflect/read/be innovative	50
Reduce administration/paperwork	41
More time to focus on educational leadership	37
Have a more balanced life	28
Reduce workload	18
Reduce external agencies' demands/expectations	15
More support for students with behavioural difficulties	14
More support staff	13
Improve school buildings/grounds	12
Decrease class sizes	11
Higher salary	11
Have greater curriculum focus	10
Sabbatical leave	7
More support for students with learning disabilities	4

Principals' morale

Most principals said their morale was good (40 percent) or very good (36 percent). Fewer said their morale was satisfactory (14 percent) or poor (4 percent). Just 1 percent said their morale was very poor. Those in the main urban schools were the most likely to say their morale was very good.

Teachers' workloads

Teachers reported working an average of 17 hours per week over and above their normal class time. More than half spent in excess of 15 hours per week and 20 percent were spending more than 25 hours.

Table 74 **Teachers' time spent on work above class-contact hours**

Hours	(n=744) %
1-6	8
7-10	14
11-15	23
16-20	20
21-25	14
25+	20

The next table shows the relative amounts of time teachers spent on various tasks. Preparation for classroom work was the most time-consuming task, taking an average of 7 hours per week. The survey was carried out in 2003 when the NCEA was being implemented at Year 12/level 2 for the first time and implementation at Year 11/level 1 was in its second year. Teachers reported that

they were spending an average of 6 hours per week on marking, assessment, and report writing, although not all of this work would have been directly related to the NCEA implementation. Moderation of assessment is a specific requirement of NCEA assessment, and has been reported elsewhere as adding to teacher workloads (Hipkins & Vaughan, 2002; Hipkins et al., 2004). This task took an average of 2 hours per week, although for 7 percent of responding teachers it took 6 hours a week or more. Administrative tasks took an average of 5 hours per week, but again some teachers were spending much longer. For 9 percent, these tasks took 11 hours a week or more.

Table 75 **Tasks on which teachers spend time outside of class-contact hours**

Hours [®]	16+ hrs	11–15 hrs	6–10 hrs	2–5 hrs	Up to 2 hrs
Task [™]	(n=744)	(n=744)	(n=744)	(n=744)	(n=744)
	%	%	%	%	%
Preparation for classroom work	6	10	34	39	7
Marking, assessment, and report writing	2	8	30	47	10
Moderation of assessment	0	1	6	18	44
Meeting and contact with parents	0	1	6	21	54
Education/professional development	1	2	6	20	44
School administration	4	5	13	38	29
Policy/curriculum development	1	1	5	20	45

Note: Numbers may not add up to 100 due to rounding.

Sixty-one percent of teachers who responded to the survey held a position of responsibility. As might be expected, they were more likely to report spending high numbers of hours outside class time on their work than the 37 percent of teachers who did not hold such positions.³⁷ While those without responsibility were more likely to spend between 1–10 hours per week above class time, faculty leaders were more likely to spend 11–25 additional hours, and deans to spend 16–25 additional hours. The assistant and deputy principals were more likely to be spending more than 25 additional hours per week.

The specific tasks on which faculty leaders were most likely to be spending more time than other teachers included preparation for class work, marking, assessment and report writing, administration, and curriculum/policy development, but not moderation. Deans and senior managers were likely to spend more time on school administration, meetings, and contact with parents, and policy and curriculum development. All these school leaders tended to spend somewhat more time on their own education and professional development than teachers without responsibilities.

Teachers' use of non-contact time

Teachers report an average of 4.6 non-contact periods each week, although the next table shows that numbers vary from none to more than six.

³⁷ Two percent did not answer the question.

Table 76 Number of non-contact periods per week

Number of non-contact periods	Part-time (n=87) %	Full-time (n=653) %
None	32	1
1	1	0
2	6	1
3	1	15
4	7	21
5	1	19
6 or more	40	41

Part-time teachers, who made up 12 percent of the total sample, were those most likely to have between 0–2 non-contact periods a week. Full-time teachers were more likely than part-timers to have 3–5 non-contact periods. Curriculum or faculty leaders were the group most likely to have 5 non-contact periods. Teachers with 6 or more non-contact periods were evenly divided between full- and part-time teachers. For part-time staff high numbers of non-contacts probably reflected scattered rather than blocked timetables. The full-time staff most likely to have the higher proportion of non-contact time included deputy principals and deans.³⁸

From a provided list of 25 potential uses, teachers reported predominantly using this time for activities that involved direct contact with students or other staff. These uses of non-contact time are shown on the next table. Although options related to planning, preparing, and assessing learning were provided, none of these were selected by more than 2 percent of the teachers. It seems that such activities were carried out almost exclusively in time outside class hours. Also mentioned were house leader/co-ordinator duties, dean duties (1 percent), sports/cultural activities and student discipline (all 2 percent).

³⁸ Small sample sizes in other leadership roles did not allow testing for meaningful statistical associations.

Table 77 Teachers' use of non-contact time

Use of non-contact time	(n=744) %
Counsel students	41
Release teachers/cover other classes	40
Appraise staff	35
Own professional development	32
Associate teacher responsibilities	27
Tutor teacher responsibilities	20
Professional discussions with other school teachers	19
Train others	18
Deal with professional standards	13
Other	9
Maintain computers	8
None	5

Teachers in rural schools were more likely to spend their non-contact time talking to parents and counselling students. Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to use their non-contact time moderating assignments, discussing work with other staff, attending management meetings, training others, or on their own professional development. Teachers in decile 7–10 schools were less likely to spend their non-contact time releasing other teachers or covering their classes. Teachers in decile 3 and 4 schools were more likely to spend their non-contact time preparing and managing teaching resources. Those in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to have tutor teacher responsibilities and those in decile 5 and 6 schools to have associate teacher responsibilities.

Responsibilities outside the classroom

Every teacher has responsibilities for aspects of school life beyond their own classes. Seventy percent of the teachers carried out grounds duties and 45 percent supervised or coached sports teams. Relatively high levels of responsibility for staff appraisal (41 percent) suggest that this duty was being allocated across staff teams rather than remaining the preserve of senior management. To the wide variety of activities reported in the table below can be added staff representative on BOT, kapa haka group, house leader/co-ordination (all 2 percent), and health and safety or discipline responsibilities (both 1 percent).

Table 78 Teachers' duties outside the classroom

Other duties	(n=744) %
School grounds duty	70
Sports supervision/training	45
Staff appraisal	41
Responsibility for budget area	39
School patrols/bus duties	30
Associate teacher	27
Tutor teacher	22
Staff professional development	22
Student counselling	21
Development/revision of school policy	20
Staff supervision	19
School play/display	15
Liaison with group of parents/board	13
Fundraising	11
Cultural club	10
School newsletter/magazine	10
Computers/ICT	10
Other	9
PPTA representative	9
Special needs students	8
Homework centre supervision	8
International students	7
School choir/orchestra/band	4
Library	4
Night classes	4
External curriculum outside classroom activities	3

In small schools, many of which are in rural areas, there are fewer teachers to share the range of additional duties. Teachers in rural schools were more likely to be responsible for the school newsletter/magazine while those in small schools were more likely to be responsible for the development and revision of school policies. Teachers in both small and rural schools were more likely to be responsible for a budget area.

Teachers in schools of between 300–499 students, and in rural schools, were more likely to be responsible for student counselling. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to be responsible for tutor teachers.

Teachers' achievements

When teachers identified their three main achievements in the last 3 years, their main focus was on creating positive learning environments, with improvements in their teaching and improvements in student achievement. Implementation of the NCEA qualification, a task that required teachers to substantially modify their assessment practices in the senior secondary school, was rated top equal with positive/improved learning environments. Interestingly, improved student assessment rated much lower at 18 percent. This could reflect a distinction

between formative and summative assessment. Other NCEA-related research has recommended that more attention be given to professional development in formative assessment, although this project related only to mathematics and science teaching (Hipkins & Neill, in press).

Table 79 Teachers' perceptions of their three main achievements in the last 3 years

Main achievements	(n=744) %
Positive/improved learning environment	46
Implementation of NCEA	46
Increase in my own knowledge/skills	45
Improved teaching programme	34
Improvements in student achievement	30
Better meeting needs of a particular group	25
Implementation of an innovative programme	23
Improved student assessment	18
Involvement of parents with students' learning	3

Rural teachers, and teachers in small schools, were more likely to feel they had improved student assessment. By contrast, teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to feel they had achieved an improved learning environment. Teachers in schools of 500+ students were more likely to feel they had increased their own knowledge and skills.

Sources of teachers' job dissatisfaction

Like the principals, many teachers wanted to reduce the time spent on administration and paperwork. For teachers this was the factor they most wanted to change about their work, closely followed by reduction in workload. Forty-eight percent of teachers thought their workload was "excessive" while 44 percent found it "bearable" and just 7 percent said it was "fine". Only one teacher said their workload was "too light". The next table includes a number of other factors teachers wanted to change that could also help ease workload pressures, including a desire for more non-contact time, smaller class sizes, reduced assessment requirements, and fewer non-teaching duties.

Table 80 **Aspects of their work that teachers would like to change**

Changes	(n=744) %
Reduce administration/paperwork	44
Reduce the workload	36
More non-contact time for preparation etc	35
Fewer discipline/behaviour problems	30
Reduce class sizes	28
Time to reflect/plan/share ideas	21
More funding/resources for classrooms	15
Better pay	15
Change/reduce assessment requirements	13
More positive appreciation of teachers	13
Fewer non-teaching duties	10
More time working with students	7
More support staff	5
Reduce curriculum coverage/size	4
More professional development	4
Better provisions for special needs	3

Teachers in main urban schools and in schools of 500+ students were less likely to want to reduce the paperwork they did, whereas rural teachers were more likely to want to do so. The opposite was the case for reducing class sizes, with main urban teachers, those in decile 7–10 schools, and those in schools of 500+ students, more likely to want this change, while rural teachers were less likely to want a reduction in class sizes.

Teachers in state-integrated schools and in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to want a reduction in administration and paperwork. Teachers in state schools were more likely to want fewer discipline and behavioural problems, but teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were less likely to want this. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools, and in schools of between 300–499 students, were less likely to want more non-contact time for preparation. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to want more time to reflect on their work.

Teachers' morale

Less than half the teachers said their morale was very good (11 percent) or good (32 percent), a much lower proportion than for principals. Almost as many thought morale was satisfactory (30 percent) as thought it was good. A concerning number of teachers said their morale was low (23 percent) or very low (3 percent).

Levels of teacher morale were strongly associated with a range of factors that relate to a collegial working environment. Teachers with good or very good morale were more likely to have shared the setting of educational goals, lesson planning, and knowledge, to perceive that they provided good feedback to students about their learning, and that they used student achievement information to set teaching and learning goals. They were also more likely to have observed

colleagues teaching, to have received feedback about their own teaching, to have mentored student teachers, and to perceive that they had support for taking risks with their teaching. For some teachers, very good morale was also associated with sharing teaching and assessment materials and teaching ideas, but for just over half of this group these particular aspects of sharing were poor or non-existent. The difference is likely to be associated with the level at which the sharing occurs. Once the overall direction and intent of the learning is collegially set, many teachers with very good morale seem to then put their individual stamp on the actual classroom activities. Low and very low levels of teacher morale were strongly associated with a lack of sharing or support in all the areas mentioned.

Links between good or very good levels of morale and aspects of working together were also apparent when teachers perceived they were part of a team or were listened to when decisions were being made about assessment tools, student discipline and behaviour, and appraisal of staff performance. These teachers were also more likely to say there were no areas of school life in which they would like to be more involved. Conversely, those with low or very low morale were more likely to perceive their views on these same matters were not sought, or, in the case of those with very low morale, to say they didn't want to be consulted. Collectively, these responses point to a sense of isolation and disengagement with the positive challenges of teaching for those teachers whose morale is lowest.

The implementation of the NCEA qualification has impacted on teacher morale. Teachers with good or very good morale were also those more likely to say both they and the school were coping well with the NCEA implementation. Conversely, those with low or very low morale were more likely to say both they and the school were not coping well. There was also an association between levels of morale and personal support for the NCEA. Teachers with low or very low morale were somewhat more likely to believe that the NCEA took too much class time and that there had been a lot of curriculum change.

At the school-wide level, teachers with very good and good levels of morale were those most likely to say there was a consistent and positive approach to managing student behaviour, while those with low or very low morale were more likely to believe there was not. Access to adequate levels of resources for classroom programmes, and to advice and information needed, were also strongly associated with levels of teacher morale.

Communications within the school impact on morale. Teachers with low or very low levels of morale were more likely to say they had poor or very poor communications with the principal and that they did not have access to information they needed. Conversely, those with good or very good morale were more likely to have good or very good communications with the principal and to have access to information. Low or very low levels of morale were also somewhat associated with a lack of satisfaction with BoT/staff contact and relations, and with the belief that there were areas where the BoT could be more involved.

There was some association between good and very good levels of morale and a sense that teachers have a high level of responsibility to future generations, and to agencies beyond the

school including NZQA, the government, and other schools across New Zealand (but less so to other schools in the area). Conversely, low or very low morale was somewhat associated with a belief that teachers have low levels of responsibility in all these areas.

It is worth noting that no statistical relationship was found between levels of teacher morale and a range of aspects of staffing. These included: years of teaching; whether permanent or not; whether full- or part-time; whether holding a position of responsibility or interested in doing so; numbers of non-contact hours; and hours of work spent on top of class contact time. The latter is interesting because there was a strong association between low or very low morale and the perception that the workload was excessive. It may well be that teachers with very low morale tend to be generally negative about their jobs, regardless of the specifics of their actual working conditions. Unsurprisingly, teachers with good or very good morale were those who said they would probably still be teaching in 5 years' time.

Trustees' workloads

Four percent of trustees reported spending more than 10 hours per week on board-related work. A smaller time commitment was more common with 15 percent saying they spent between 6 and 10 hours, 47 percent between 2 and 5 hours, and 32 percent up to 2 hours per week. The average time spent was 4 hours per week. As might be expected, the least experienced trustees—those appointed since the 2001 elections—were more likely to report spending the least number of hours on BoT work.

Table 81 Average number of hours/week trustees spend on board work

Hours	(n=180) %
Up to 2 hours	32
2–5 hours	47
6–10 hours	15
Over 10 hours	4

Trustees' achievements

Trustees were asked to select three areas of main achievement from a list of 10 factors relevant to their role. A majority of trustees reported a sense of achievement in their strategic planning. Good financial management, improvements to grounds and buildings, and overall quality of the school as reflected in ERO reports were other sources of satisfaction for more than 40 percent of trustees. Human resource factors rated somewhat lower, and an increase in parent or community involvement was the factor least often selected.

Table 82 Trustees' perceptions of the board's achievements over 1 year

Achievement	(n=180) %
Planning for future/strategic planning	57
Good financial management/stayed within budget	43
Improvement of grounds/buildings	42
Quality of school/good ERO report	42
Good staff relations/retaining staff	26
Good systems/policies now in place	22
Appointment of new principal	17
Improvements in ICT	14
Appointment of new staff	11
Community/parent involvement increased	6

Trustees from state-integrated schools and from decile 7 or 8 schools were less likely to feel that improving the buildings or grounds was one of their three main achievements.

Sources of trustees' dissatisfaction with their role

The next table shows features of their role trustees wanted to change. Many trustees wanted more funding for their schools, which seems unsurprising in view of the funding challenges reported in Section 3. Next most often mentioned were factors related to having more knowledge and support to successfully carry out their roles, with 24 percent wanting a clearer distinction between governance and management. A quarter of the trustees thought they should be paid more but the level of paperwork was not such an issue for them as it was for principals and teachers. Also mentioned were having more direct contact with staff, better communication with parents, and an increased role in staff employment (all 1 percent).

Table 83 Features of their role that trustees wanted to change

Feature	(n=180) %
Receive more funding for the school	71
Improve knowledge/training	40
Receive more support from Ministry of Education	35
Receive more support from parents	31
Increase payment for being a board member	25
Have a clearer distinction between governance and management	24
Reduce workload/paperwork	22
More work with other schools	9
Better communication between board members	7
Other	3

Trustees in small schools (less than 300 students) were more likely to want to reduce the workload and paperwork involved, and to improve their knowledge and training for their role.

Unsurprisingly, those trustees who wanted more funding were the most likely to believe that government funding was inadequate to meet the school's needs and that the operational grant

should be afforded a high priority by the government. They were also more likely to be members of boards that had faced financial management problems in the last 3 years.

Trustees' morale

There is an association between trustee morale and the quality of their relationships with the principal and teachers and between trustees themselves. Trustees who felt their board was practically and philosophically supportive of the school, and who were on top of the task, were also most likely to perceive they had very good relationships with the principal and with the staff. There were more likely to be good relationships between trustees when they felt their board was on top of the task. Trustees who felt their board was just coping or struggling were more likely to perceive that relationships between board members were just satisfactory or poor.

Summary

Teacher and principal workloads were very high. Principals were working an average 67 hours per week, and teachers were spending an average 17 additional hours per week above their class-contact time. Some members of both groups were spending considerably more time than this, with 5 percent of principals working 81+ hours a week and 20 percent of teachers spending 25+ hours per week on top of class-contact hours. Trustees' workloads averaged a manageable 4 hours per week although some experienced trustees were spending considerably longer on board work.

For both groups administration and paperwork were major contributors to workloads. Principals also spent considerable time managing staff. While they valued the provision of educational leadership, they gave this less time. Teachers spent their out of class time on preparation for classroom work, marking, assessment, and report writing. They were less likely to carry out these tasks during their non-contact time in the school day because that time was mostly used for face-to-face interactions with others in the school community. Most teachers did some form of grounds duty and nearly half took sports teams.

The NCEA implementation has increased teachers' workloads but many rated this as one of their three main achievements in the 2002–2003 year. Successful implementation was associated with higher morale while perceptions of lack of personal or school success in implementing the NCEA was associated with having lower morale.

Notwithstanding their workloads, principals' morale was generally high. They took pride in providing good leadership and a sound educational environment. By contrast, less than half the teachers said their morale was good or very good. Those who felt fully involved in the working environment of the school were more likely to have high morale than those who felt excluded from collegial sharing and decision making. Trustees took pride in good strategic planning and financial management.

Principals wanted more time to read, reflect, and innovate. Along with teachers they also wanted to reduce the amount of paperwork/administration they had to do. Fewer principals than teachers wanted to reduce their workload. A third of the teachers wanted more non-contact time.

12. Curriculum and assessment

Introduction

With the mandating of the *Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum 2000* (Ministry of Education, 2000), the writing of curriculum documents to support the seven Essential Learning Areas of the curriculum was completed. The Ministry of Education has since undertaken a review of the entire curriculum and is currently following up the report of this Curriculum Review (Ministry of Education, 2002) with a Curriculum Project whose aim is to implement the recommendations of the review. Ongoing evolution of the various curriculum documents is expected to be the outcome of this project. The national surveys were undertaken against this background of consolidation, with signals of more change to come.

We have already noted that the existing curriculum documents signal rich possibilities to construct school-based curricula if this is seen as a priority for the school. There is some evidence from other research of local school-based curriculum innovation in some secondary schools (Bolstad, Eames, Cowie, Edwards, & Rogers, 2004; Hipkins & Neill, in press; Hipkins et al., 2004). However these innovations appear to be mainly small-scale, and restricted to selected curriculum areas rather than involving school-wide curriculum development.

A wide range of recent quantitative data regarding the implementation of the curriculum in each essential learning area can be obtained from MoE-commissioned surveys of teachers carried out by the University of Waikato in 2001 and 2002 as part of the Curriculum Review process (McGee et al., 2002; McGee et al., 2003). Because of the availability of this data we decided not to include questions about aspects of curriculum implementation that were covered in these surveys. However, the Waikato research provided no opportunity to capture and compare the multiple perspectives of parents, trustees, teachers, and principals that are reported here. We note that three of the five most frequently mentioned innovations in secondary schools were related to curriculum and learning, with 92 percent of principals reporting literacy initiatives in their schools (see Section 14).

The NZCER National Survey of Secondary Schools was carried out in the second year of the staged implementation of the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA)—the final plank of a series of reforms intended to create a “seamless” qualifications system within a National Curriculum Framework (NQF). This section reports on views of the NCEA and the associated implementation issues, which were dominating discussion of assessment at the time of the survey.

Learning and curriculum

There is a potential for teachers' responses to curriculum questions to be influenced by differences in nature of the curriculum areas in which they work. The following is a snapshot of the responding teachers' areas of curriculum responsibility:

- 22 percent of respondents taught English, ranging from 20 percent in main urban schools to 28 percent in rural schools;
- 19 percent taught mathematics and 18 percent taught science;
- 19 percent of respondents taught social science, with more in minor urban (28 percent) and rural (33 percent) schools;
- 16 percent taught technology;
- 13 percent of respondents taught physical education or health, and again they were more likely to be in rural schools (26 percent);
- 10 percent taught arts subjects; and
- 7 percent taught languages.

Smaller numbers taught commerce, religion, or life skills (all 3 percent), and ESOL or special education (both 2 percent). Less than 1 percent taught agriculture/horticulture or workshop.

Most teachers taught classes across the range of year levels from Year 9 to Year 13. Rural teachers and teachers in state-integrated schools were more likely to also be teaching Year 8 and below.

Teachers' reports of curriculum change

The previous national survey noted that curriculum change has become "part and parcel of teachers' work" (Wylie, 1999, p. 128). This is as true for secondary as for primary teachers. Only 12 percent of teachers said the curriculum they teach had not changed over the last 3 years. The main types of changes included an altered skills focus/teaching (58 percent), more contemporary examples and issues added (24 percent), and a greater proportion of practical activities used (18 percent). There were conflicting views about overall content changes, with 25 percent of teachers saying they had added more content and 16 percent saying they had reduced content overall. Six percent of teachers made an open response that it was the assessment that had changed rather than the curriculum. These comments are likely to be related to the NCEA implementation, which is further discussed below.

Notwithstanding the high levels of changes they were already experiencing, only 33 percent of the teachers said that they did not want to make, or were unsure about making, other types of curriculum changes. Changes that teachers wanted to introduce are shown in the next table. The most commonly mentioned changes put the focus on teaching rather than on content. Teachers wanted more time for developing creative and critical thinking, developing topics in more depth,

and more practical work. Somewhat contrarily, relatively few of them saw overall content reduction, which potentially could create this time, as a desirable change.

Table 84 Curriculum changes teachers wanted to make

Curriculum change	(n=744) %
More time for creativity	34
More time for critical thinking	30
Does not want to change/unsure about changing current curriculum	33
More depth on fewer topics	21
Increase the proportion of practical activities	20
Alter the skills focus/teaching	16
Change the mix of assessment standards/unit standards	15
Add more contemporary examples/issues	14
Overall content reduction	13

“Lifelong learning” as a curriculum outcome

Internationally as well as in New Zealand, there has recently been a strong focus on encouraging students to develop skills that will help them to sustain personal learning in their adult lives. Advocacy for this type of curriculum outcome is often linked to the discussion of future social and economic conditions—for example, in “knowledge society” or “knowledge economy” literature. One aspect of this has been a focus on the development of self-regulated learning skills.

The next table reports on methods secondary teachers favoured for encouraging students to take responsibility of their own learning. Most frequently mentioned were factors for which students could take individual responsibility such as setting individual goals and practising self and peer assessment. Teachers were much less likely to say they used methods that involved students in decisions that affected the whole class, for example setting topics or assessment tasks. We have also found the perception that to involve students in planning for assessment would be problematic in other recent NZCER research (Hipkins & Neill, in press). A few teachers said that students were reluctant to take such responsibility (1 percent).

Table 85 Methods used to encourage students to take responsibility for their learning

Method	(n=744) %
Students set individual goals	52
Students self-assess their learning	42
Students peer-review each other’s work	42
Students identify own learning needs	25
Students involved with setting expected outcomes/standards	18
No method used	18
Students involved with setting topics/contexts covered	18
Students involved with setting assessment tasks	5

Teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to involve students in individual goal setting and fewer of them said that encouraging students to take responsibility for their learning was not a feature of their classes.

Curriculum changes that principals would like to see

As for the teachers, managing changes in curriculum innovation is an ongoing aspect of the principals' work. Just 12 percent said there had been no important curriculum initiatives in their school in 2003. Principals identified an average of three non-NCEA-related curriculum projects per school.

Recent international surveys have highlighted the large difference in achievement between New Zealand's best performing and poorest performing students (Chamberlain, 1996; OECD, 2001; Sturrock & May, 2002). Ministry of Education policy to narrow this "achievement gap" has led to a focus on the strengthening of the literacy skills, and to some extent the numeracy skills, of poorer performing students, with a number of associated research and professional development initiatives. In view of this considerable emphasis, it is not surprising that more principals reported the introduction of literacy initiatives than any other type of curriculum innovation. In addition to the innovations shown in the next table, a few principals mentioned innovations in the curriculum areas of English or science (both 2 percent), or mathematics (1 percent).

We looked for differences in frequency emphasis on literacy initiatives between high and low decile schools but found none.

Table 86 Curriculum initiatives (non-NCEA) in secondary schools

Initiative	Principals (n=95) %
Literacy	68
ICT	35
Numeracy	26
School climate/discipline	23
Catering for special needs students	16
Assessment	16
The arts	12
No curriculum initiative of importance in 2003	12
Remedial work	8
Health and physical wellbeing	7
Technology	6
Essential skills	5

While secondary schools have obviously been active in the area of curriculum innovation, 73 percent of principals also said there were curriculum initiatives they would like to make but that they felt unable to undertake, as shown in the next table. Whereas some schools had undertaken new initiatives in areas such as ICT and different approaches to discipline, others principals identified these as areas where they would like to undertake initiatives but could not. Other

aspects where schools were unable to undertake initiatives included some with a focus on the needs of specific groups of students, or on integration across curriculum areas. Also mentioned was project-learning (2 percent).

Table 87 Curriculum initiatives principals would like to make

Initiative	Principals (n=95) %
Respond better to particular groups of students	38
Work on thinking skills	33
Use of ICT/computers	28
No restrictions on curriculum/programme initiatives	25
Individual learning plans for all students	22
Different approaches to discipline behaviour	20
Integrate some curriculum areas	16
Change in a particular curriculum area	12
Introduce new subjects	11
Focus on special needs students	10
Participate in a particular programme	3

Supporting curriculum change

Given the scope and intent of actual and potential curriculum changes outlined above, we next turn our attention to factors that are perceived to impede or support ongoing curriculum change.

Barriers to making curriculum changes

Sixty-two percent of teachers perceived there were barriers to making curriculum changes. (There was a high non-response rate to this question—33 percent.)

Teachers' views of the nature of barriers to making curriculum changes showed some similarities and some differences to principals' views.³⁹ Principals saw lack of money as the main obstacle to curriculum or programme innovation. By comparison, a relatively low 24 percent of teachers saw this as a constraint. There was more agreement that time, and particularly time taken by the implementation of the NCEA, was a constraint. This accords with teachers' desire for time for different types of teaching and learning activities.

Principals said lack of staff energy (28 percent) and lack of staff expertise (15 percent) were constraints. (The teacher survey did not include these factors.) Principals were more likely to see overall staffing levels as a barrier, but lack of staff commitment was identified by relatively small numbers of both principals and teachers. Other factors specific to the principal survey were the

³⁹ While both principals' and teachers' surveys listed a common range of potential barriers, there were several differences in response factors provided in the two survey forms.

school not being selected for a specific programme (4 percent), lack of external advice or support (3 percent), and having a conservative school community (2 percent).

Twenty-five percent of teachers saw class size as a barrier to change (principals were not asked about this) and they were more likely to identify student behaviour as a barrier. While a few teachers also mentioned a lack of board commitment (2 percent), no principals identified this factor.

Table 88 **Barriers to making curriculum changes**

Barriers	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Lack of money	53	24
Lack of time	46	50
Time taken for NCEA implementation	41	40
Staffing levels	28	14
National curriculum requirements	23	32
Lack of staff commitment	10.5	7
Lack of teaching resources	9.5	26
Student behaviour	6	27
Lack of professional development	5	14
Wrong kind of professional development	2	13
Parents' expectations	-	7

Class size was more likely to be seen as a barrier to change by teachers in main urban and secondary urban schools. This accords with the findings that they are more likely to be teaching bigger classes (see Section 5). Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to see national curriculum requirements as a barrier to change.

Funding curriculum initiatives

Fifty-eight percent of principals said people other than the school staff were active participants in, or financial supporters of, their curriculum initiatives. Topping the list were MoE personnel (33 percent), followed by parents (20 percent), School Support staff (14 percent), and people from other local schools (12 percent). Some help was provided by local business firms or sponsors (9.5 percent), by Group Special Education (7 percent), or by former students (2 percent). Also mentioned were board of trustee members (1 percent).

The number of externally funded initiatives taking place in a school varied. There were no such initiatives in 16 percent of schools, one initiative in 24 percent, two in 25 percent, three in 15 percent, four in 9 percent, and five in 3 percent of schools. State-integrated schools were more likely not to be undertaking any externally funded initiatives.

Adequacy of teaching resources – the teachers' views

Sixty percent of teachers did not think they had adequate resources for their classroom programme. ICT resources were most commonly mentioned as inadequate, followed by other non-consumable items such as audio-visual equipment, textbooks, and games.

Table 89 **Areas in which there were inadequate resources for classroom programmes**

Area	(n=744) %
Computers/ICT	43
Classroom programmes adequately resourced	37
Audio/visual equipment	24
Games/interactive activities	23
Textbooks	23
Tapes/videos/CDs/DVDs	21
Resources for special needs students	19
Technology equipment	16
Assessment	13
English as a Second Language	12
Technology consumables	11
Stationery	11
Library reference	10
Scissors, etc	10
Science equipment	5
Science consumables	4

Teachers in minor urban schools were more likely to say they had inadequate resources for assessment and, along with teachers in rural schools, to be dissatisfied with resources for games and interactive activities. Teachers in rural schools were also more likely to have inadequate consumable resources for their technology programmes. Conversely, teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were the least likely to say they had inadequate technology equipment, or inadequate supplies of the associated tapes/CDS/videos and DVDs.

Teachers in decile 5–6 schools and in rural schools were more likely to say they had inadequate library reference resources, while those in minor urban schools were generally more satisfied with school library resources. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to say they had inadequate English as a Second Language (ESOL) resources.

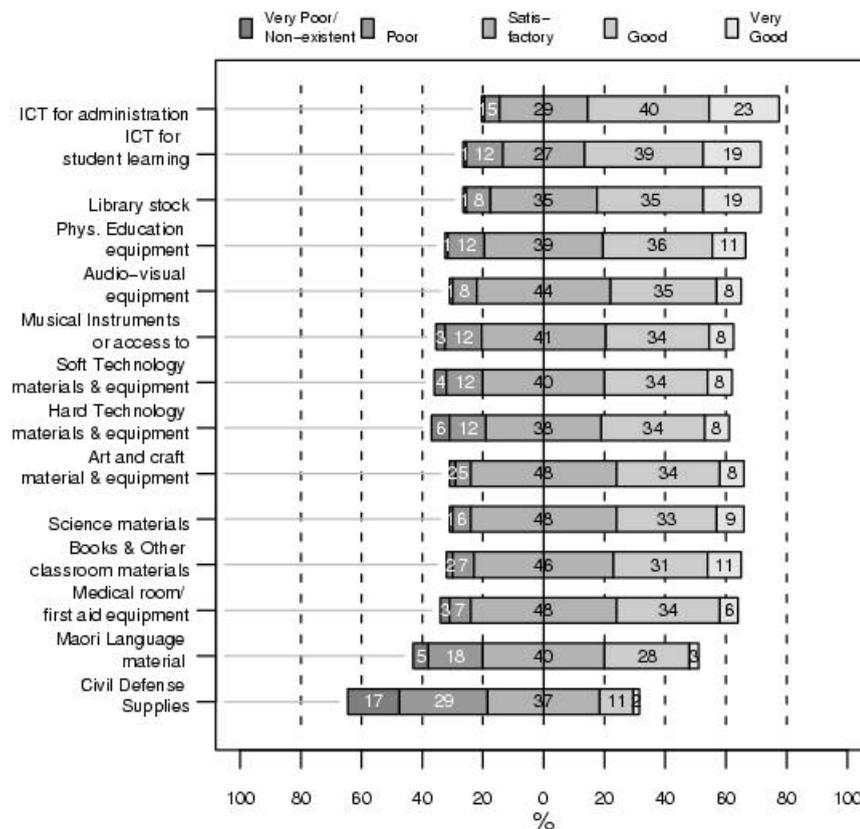
As might be expected, teachers in rural and minor urban schools were generally more satisfied with the recreational space available in the school and those in minor urban schools were generally more satisfied with the recreational equipment available in the school.

Rural teachers were generally less satisfied with Internet access while those in secondary urban schools were more satisfied with Internet access.

Adequacy of teaching resources – the principals' views

Fewer principals (13 percent) than teachers (43 percent) rated ICT-for-learning resources as inadequate/poor. With the exception of library books, principals were less likely than teachers to see other non-consumable resources as inadequate, although direct comparisons are not possible because the options provided were grouped somewhat differently. The greatest area of need seen by the principals—Civil Defense supplies—was not directly linked to curriculum delivery.

Figure 20 Principals' views of adequacy of equipment and learning materials



There was a relationship between school decile and principals' perceptions of the adequacy of equipment and materials. Books and other classroom materials were more likely to be rated as very poor/poor, or satisfactory, by principals in decile 1 and 2 schools. Decile 7 and 8 principals were also more likely to rate them as satisfactory, while principals in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to rate books and other classroom materials as good/very good. There was a very similar pattern for physical education equipment, which was more likely to be rated as very poor/poor, or satisfactory, by principals in decile 1 and 2 schools, and as good/very good in decile 9 and 10 schools.

There was a trend for science materials to be seen as poor/very poor in decile 1 and 2 schools, and as good/very good in decile 9 and 10 schools. ICT equipment for student learning was more likely

to be seen as poor or adequate in decile 3 and 4 schools, as good in decile 7 and 8 schools, and as very good in decile 9 and 10 schools. Art and craft materials and equipment were also more likely to be seen as poor by principals in decile 1 and 2 schools, satisfactory by those in in decile 3 and 4 schools, good by those in decile 7 and 8 schools, and very good by principals in decile 9 and 10 schools.

Assessment: The implementation of the NCEA

When the national survey was carried out in mid-2003, schools were in the second of a 3-year implementation programme. They had completed a full year of Level One NCEA assessments, and were consolidating these in the following year whilst also implementing Level Two assessments for the first time. As for any significant change in education, the active support of teachers is an important aspect of “making things work”. Many New Zealand teachers resisted the introduction of unit standards and some did not begin to engage with issues of standards-based assessment until compelled to do so with the arrival of the NCEA qualification. Others actively contributed to the development of the unit standards and also worked on the “expert panels” that developed the achievement standards, putting themselves in a position to feel more confident of the implementation requirements for the NCEA when the time came.

Principals’ and teachers’ views of the NCEA

The wide range of feelings about the NCEA that pertained within secondary schools in mid-2003 is shown in the next two figures. The first shows teachers’ responses and the following figure shows principals’ responses to a set of statements that largely overlapped.⁴⁰ In general, principals were more supportive of the NCEA than the teachers. They were also more definite in their opinions, as evidenced by their lower average not sure/no response rate (principals, 6 percent; teachers, 13 percent).

⁴⁰ Principals’ and teachers’ surveys had seven NCEA-related statements in common. Principals had one other statement specific to their role and teachers had two.

Figure 21 Principals' views of the NCEA

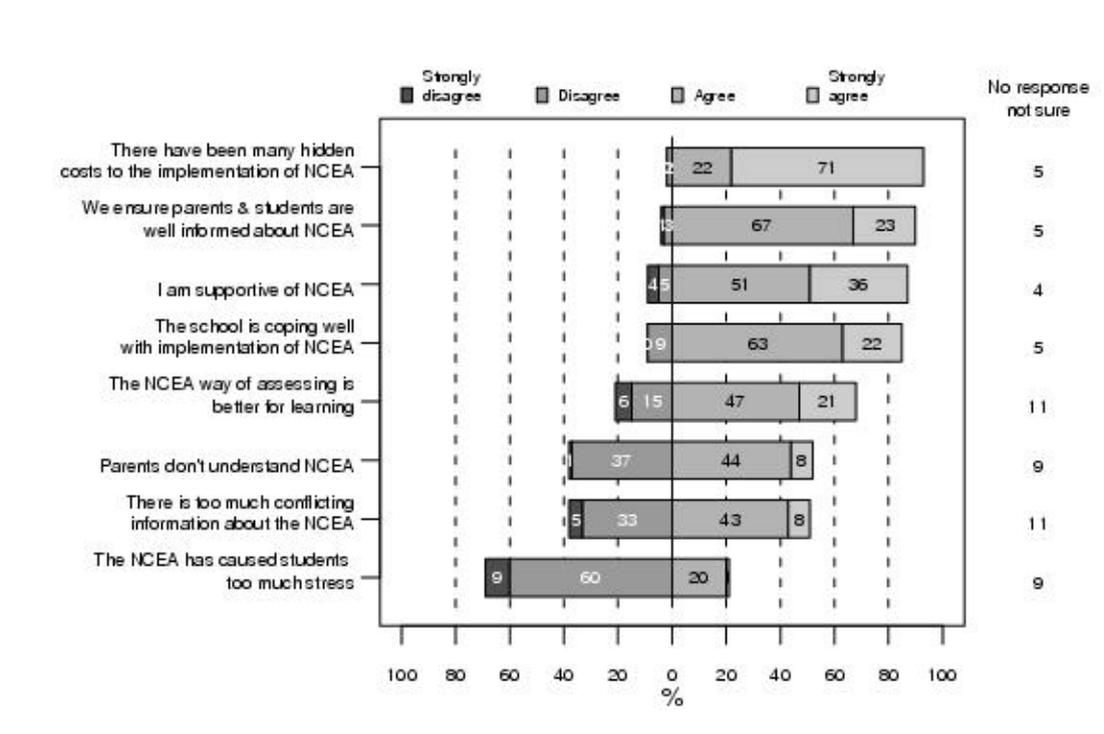
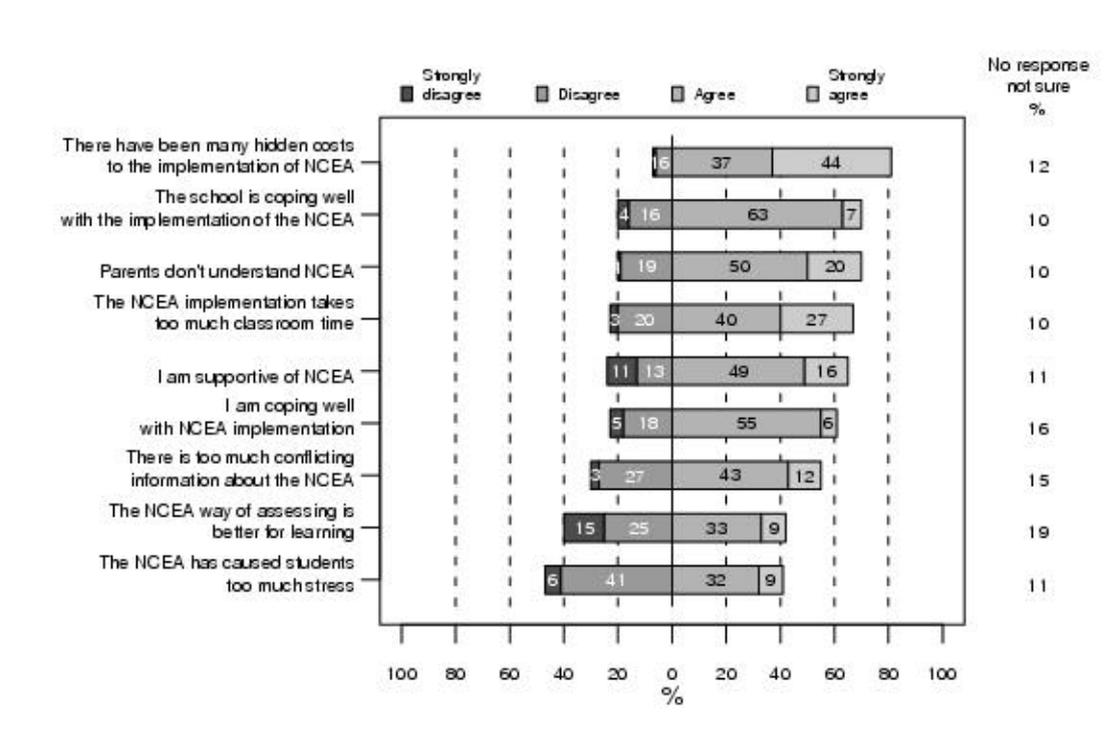


Figure 22 Teachers' views of the NCEA



Principals and teachers were most in agreement that there had been many hidden costs to the implementation of NCEA. They were also in accord in their disagreement that the NCEA has caused students too much stress.

Principals strongly agreed that their school had ensured that parents and students were well informed about the NCEA. (This was a principal-specific statement.) In line with this, relatively fewer principals than teachers agreed that parents don't understand the NCEA. Relatively more principals than teachers said they were personally supportive of the NCEA and that the school was coping well with NCEA implementation. Relatively more principals than teachers agreed or strongly agreed that the NCEA way of assessing is better for learning.

Two-thirds of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that NCEA implementation takes too much class time (which was a teacher-specific statement). This belief aligns with their view that lack of time is a barrier to curriculum change (see above). Overall, teachers were more likely to agree that "the school is coping" with NCEA implementation than they were to agree that they were personally coping (which was the other teacher-specific statement). There was a trend for female teachers to agree that both they and the school were coping well with the NCEA implementation and for male teachers to disagree in both cases.

Mathematics and science teachers tended to make more negative responses to some of the NCEA statements when compared to teachers from all other curriculum areas. Somewhat fewer mathematics and science teachers agreed or strongly agreed that they were supportive of the NCEA and that the NCEA way of assessing is better for learning.

Teachers in decile 1–4 schools were more likely to be supportive of the NCEA. Teachers in decile 7–10 schools were more likely to say the NCEA takes too much classroom time. In other recent research NZCER researchers noted that some teachers in high decile schools were anxious because they perceived they had to teach more to ensure they had successfully anticipated "excellence" questions that might be asked. This could be a contributor to this perception of the need for additional time (Hipkins & Neill, in press).

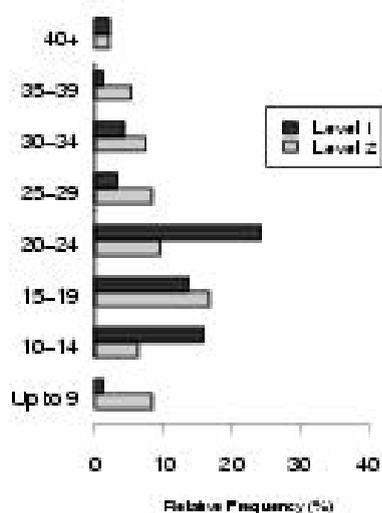
The teachers who were most negative about the NCEA were also more likely to be negative about the services offered by the Ministry of Education. There was a strong correlation between selecting the most negative two-scale points for most of the NCEA statements and the most negative ratings (poor/very poor) for MoE services related to speed of response (nationally and regionally). A similar relationship existed between most of the negative NCEA responses and very poor/poor ratings of the quality of national MoE office support, approachability, and involvement of teachers in curriculum development. Even those teachers who were supportive of the NCEA tended to rate MoE national provision of teaching resources as poor, but they were more likely to feel involved in curriculum and policy development. It should be noted that a large number of teachers who did not express opinions about the NCEA also did not answer, or said they were unsure of, the quality of MoE services. This double "not sure" response ranged from 39 to 68 percent for the various combinations. It seems that a sizeable group of teachers who were

withholding judgement on the NCEA in 2003 were also not actively engaged in activities that brought them into contact with the MoE—including in all likelihood NCEA-related implementation activities.

The number of NCEA subjects offered at levels one and two

Other NZCER research has found considerable variation in the number of senior secondary school subjects and courses offered for NCEA assessment by schools of a similar size (Hipkins et al., 2004). The next figure shows frequency data for the variation in numbers of Level One and Level Two NCEA subjects being offered in the survey schools. The mean number of courses offered at Level One was 22, and at Level Two was 23. Some schools offered a much wider range of subjects than others.

Figure 23 **Number of NCEA subjects at Level One and Level Two**



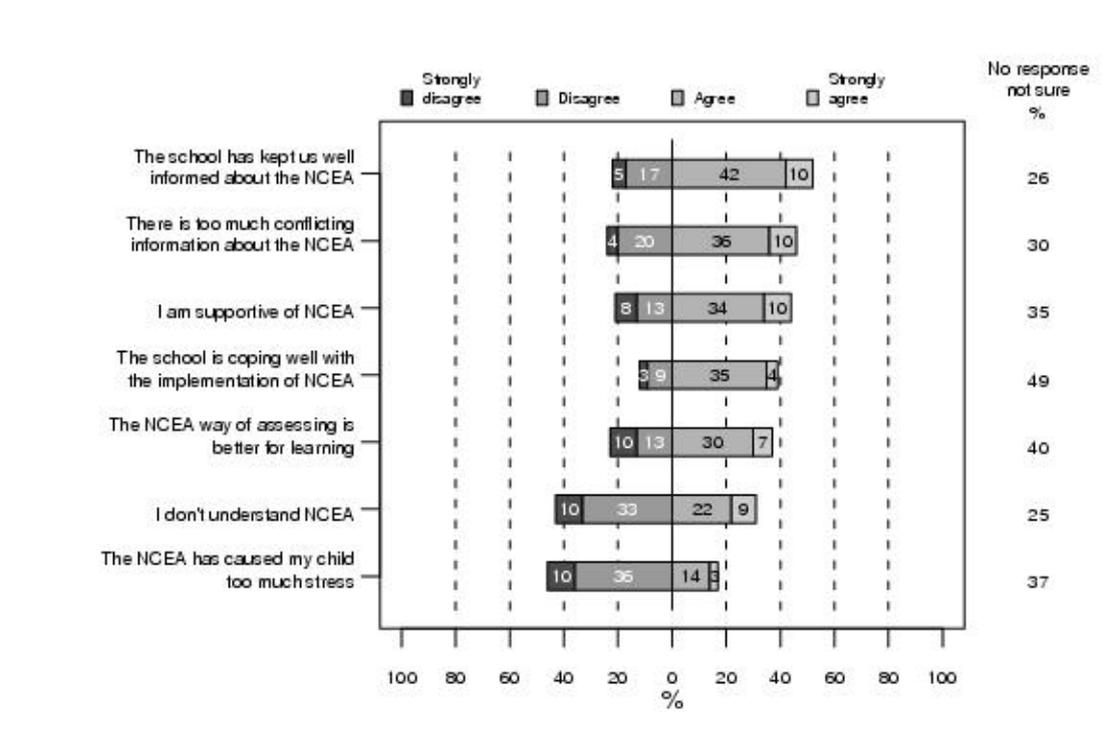
What parents think of the NCEA

Parents responded to a set of statements about the NCEA that included many of those also given to principals and teachers. Their responses are shown in the next figure. While just over half thought the school had kept them well informed about the NCEA, almost as many felt there was too much conflicting information about the NCEA.

In general, parents seemed less supportive of the NCEA than principals or teachers. Combined agree/strongly agree responses for the statement “I am supportive of the NCEA” were 87 percent for principals, 65 percent for teachers, and 44 percent for parents. It should be noted that there was a larger than average not sure/no response to this and several other NCEA statements in the parents’ survey (35 percent). There was a trend for parents who identified as Asian to be more

likely to say they were unsure in response to some of the NCEA statements, and also to other questions throughout the survey.

Figure 24 Parents' views of the NCEA



Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to strongly agree that they were supportive of the NCEA, but they were also more likely to disagree that the school had kept them well informed about the NCEA. Parents of students in decile 5 and 6 schools were more likely to agree that they were supportive of the NCEA, while those in decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely to disagree. Parents of students in decile 5–8 schools were more likely to agree that the school had kept them well informed. There was a trend for parents of students in state schools to be more supportive of the NCEA and for parents of students in state-integrated schools to be less supportive.

In line with these decile-related trends, we found a difference for one of the NCEA statements that was correlated with parents' occupations. Those parents in the lower-skilled occupational groups were more likely to be unsure whether the school was coping well with the NCEA implementation.

Summary

Curriculum change is an ongoing aspect of life in secondary schools. Many teachers were desirous of making even more curriculum changes, primarily focused on aspects other than “content”—for example, critical, and creative thinking.

Those teachers who supported the development of self-regulated learning skills were more likely to promote individual autonomy than the sharing of assessment and learning decisions with the whole class.

Developing improved literacy skills was the curriculum initiative most frequently reported by principals. Some schools had also initiated ICT and numeracy initiatives.

Both principals and teachers saw lack of time, and the time taken for NCEA implementation, as barriers to making curriculum changes. Principals also saw lack of money as a constraint. Teachers in high decile schools were more likely to see national curriculum requirements and the NCEA as barriers to making changes in the curriculum they taught. Class size could also be a barrier to making changes.

A majority of teachers said they did not have adequate resources for their classroom programmes. This was more of an issue for teachers in lower decile schools. Principals generally held a more favourable view of the adequacy of most teaching resources.

There were mixed feelings about the NCEA. In general, principals were more supportive of the NCEA than teachers. There was a trend for female teachers, and teachers in decile 1–4 schools, to be more supportive, and for maths/science teachers to be less supportive. Most teachers who were negative about the NCEA were also negative about the services provided by the MoE. On average 35 percent of parents gave not sure responses to the NCEA statements. This lowered their overall support levels.

13. Use of ICT

The widespread availability of ICT technologies has changed the nature of some aspects of principals' and teachers' work over the last decade. Increasingly, educational agencies such as the Ministry of Education and the New Zealand Qualifications Authority use electronic means of providing professional information to schools and seek in return a range of administrative and achievement information from them. In these circumstances, just 3 percent of secondary principals reported that they do not use a computer for school purposes and all the teachers said they did use a computer for work purposes.

Digital Horizons – Learning through ICT is the MoE's programme of initiatives to improve ICT access and learning opportunities in New Zealand schools. Updated in December 2003, *Digital Horizons* provides a "strategic framework for ICT initiatives across the education sector".⁴¹ Key aims include the improvement of schools' network infrastructure, establishment of video conferencing, and an online professional development community for schools and teachers across New Zealand, accessed through TKI.⁴² The scheme also aims to establish more ICT clusters (some were already in existence in 2003) and to provide access to online information about software for learning at affordable prices. Clearly it is the government's intention that schools embrace the learning opportunities provided by new electronic technologies, as well as using this means of communicating with others in the sector about professional matters.

While considerable effort is being put into resourcing the uptake of ICT, implementation requires principals and teachers to adopt and use the opportunities provided. The challenges associated with doing so were noted in briefing papers to the PPTA annual conference in 2004,⁴³ where it was pointed out that:

Teachers tend to use ICT in quite conventional ways, for example content based material using *Powerpoint*. This is all very well but primary aged children are now able to build websites and use programmes such as Dreamweaver to create 3D animations rendering teachers digitally illiterate in comparison (PPTA, 2004).

Against this challenging backdrop, and in recognition that events and conditions can change very quickly in this area, this section takes the pulse of ICT implementation in the surveyed secondary schools in mid-2003.

⁴¹ The full report can be accessed at www.minedu.govt.nz

⁴² *Te Kete Ipurangi* – the MoE's online learning and curriculum portal.

⁴³ *ICT and Secondary Schools*, briefing paper prepared by the executive for the PPTA annual conference, 2004. Available from www.ppta.org.nz

The predominant uses of ICT technologies

The first table in this section compares principals' and teachers' uses of ICT technologies in 2003. ICT was an important communication tool for principals, with most emailing professionals outside the school, and 79 percent emailing within the school. Many teachers also used email as a means of communication within and outside the school, but principals were higher users overall.

Most principals, along with most teachers, used computers for general administration, including word processing, planning, and reporting tasks. A large-scale Australian survey found that word processing was not only a very frequent current use of ICT, it was also a *preferred* use for most teachers (Cooper, Jamieson-Proctor, Crawford, Nuyen, & Norton, 2001). Nearly half of the principals also used computers to create databases and for budgeting activities. A few principals also mentioned using ICT for marketing or promotion of the school (1 percent). Forty-three percent of teachers reported they kept class achievement data in electronic databases.

Online ICT information was used as a source of professional reading and development by more principals than teachers. The latter were more likely to spend their online time accessing curriculum resources.

Internet access has become a necessity for teachers now that agencies such as the NZQA post qualifications materials such as standards specifications and assessment exemplars electronically, and no longer send hard copies to schools. Unsurprisingly, three-quarters of all teachers reported they accessed assessment and curriculum resources online. Presumably those who did not must have relied on their colleagues for access to materials they needed to carry out their jobs.

Table 90 Principals' and teachers' professional use of computers

How computers used	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Email with professionals outside the school	94	71
General admin, eg. letters, word processing	88	88
Email within the school	79	48
Planning and reporting	73	-
Professional reading and development	58	42
Creating/analysing achievement info databases	48	-
Budgeting	46	-
Creating/compiling online resources	26	35
Do not use computer for school purposes	3	-
Other	3	4
Creating student reports	-	84
Accessing assessment/curriculum resources online	-	77
Planning curriculum delivery/lesson plans	-	70
Developing presentations for classroom use	-	60
Accessing databases on class (achievement data)	-	43

Principals in schools of 1,000+ were more likely to use their personal computers for professional development and reading. Those in secondary urban schools were more likely to use their

computer for budgeting while those in minor urban schools were less likely to do so. Teachers from minor urban schools were more likely to use their computers for email with professionals outside the school.

ICT and learning

In recent years increasing attention has been given to the use of ICT technologies for learning and curriculum delivery. As we have already noted, this use is quite distinct from using the computer for administrative purposes.

The next table shows principals' views of the ways ICTs were being integrated into the learning programmes in the school. The table ranks types of potential integration from non-integration, through more superficial uses, to ways in which ICTs could be most deeply embedded in classroom programmes. No principals said that teachers were aware of ICT but not using it. More than half said predominant uses were at a basic level. This view is supported—if not revealed to be something of an under-estimation—by teachers' own reports of their uses of ICT (see below).

Table 91 Principals' views of integration of ICT into learning programmes

Nature of classroom use	(n=95) %
Use for administrative purposes only, not with students	4
Occasionally using ICT with students at a basic level, such as word processing final drafts or looking at CDROM	23
Frequently using ICT with students at a basic level, such as word processing final drafts or looking at CDROM	36
Occasionally using ICT with students at a complex level, such as organising, researching, and analysing data, information, or ideas	26
Frequently using ICT with students at a complex level, such as organising, researching, and analysing data, information, or ideas	9

There are a wide range of potential uses for computers as part of the learning programme. The next table shows teachers' responses to a question about this. Most frequently mentioned were uses that fall broadly into two main groups—accessing information and presenting work. Development of new skills and interactive uses of materials to build new knowledge (as opposed to re-presenting others' knowledge) were the least frequently mentioned types of learning activities.

Table 92 Student use of ICT

Use	(n=744) %
Word processing final drafts	54
Going to Internet sites suggested by teacher	54
Independently searching on Internet	49
Composing and editing written work/reports/newsletters	39
Looking at/searching CDROMs for reference/information	38
Looking on the school intranet for purposes such as researching a topic	29
Creating/scanning/drawing visual images, pictures, and graphics	28
Non-educational use such as playing games, listening to music, personal email	27
Emailing people outside school for purposes such as researching a topic or working on joint projects	22
Presenting data/information, eg. PowerPoint	21
Using interactive learning materials on the Internet	18
Organising and analysing data	18
Interacting with CDROMs for skill development	16
Students do not use a computer	11
Collecting data using data loggers	5

Factors that constrain the use of ICTs for learning

Many schools have made considerable investments in their student-accessible ICT infrastructure. Section 5 reported that 47 percent of principals rated their “computer rooms” as good or very good, while 34 percent of teachers rated their school’s “computer hardware” this way. More teachers were positive about the school’s computer consumables, with 48 percent rating these as good/very good. There were similar good/very good ratings for computer software (46 percent), and Internet access (43 percent), while 38 percent were this positive about ICT support. These responses suggest there were still access/infrastructure issues in at least half of the schools in 2003. The following findings show that while this situation is seen by some to be a barrier to wider ICT uptake, many other factors are also implicated in teachers’ reluctance to embrace the use of ICT in their learning programmes.

Principals’ and teachers’ views of factors that constrained the use of ICTs to assist learning were broadly in agreement, with two notable exceptions. Teachers were much less likely to see their level of confidence, knowledge of classroom uses, and personal skills to use ICTs as a constraint. On the other hand, they viewed *time* as their greatest constraint.⁴⁴ The cost of software was not included in the principals’ survey. Slow Internet connection was seen as a constraint by a few principals (1 percent).

⁴⁴ For this factor responses are not directly comparable because the principal survey listed “time with students” whereas the teacher survey listed “time”. This could arguably have been interpreted as including teachers’ own time for learning and developing classroom materials to use with ICTs.

Table 93 **Constraints on using ICT to assist learning in classrooms**

Constraint	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Teacher ICT skill level/confidence	71	29
Teacher knowledge of how to use ICT	62	35
Lack of suitable hardware	38	40
Lack of ICT support	38	16
Lack of suitable ICT learning resources	30	31
Problems with computers	30	22
Curriculum/assessment requirements	26	24
Time	19	50
Management of classroom	13	15
No constraints	7	5
Not a high priority	3	11
Cost of software		24

Teachers in state schools were more likely to see time and problems with computers crashing as constraints to their use of ICT in classroom programmes. Lack of ICT support was more likely to be a constraint for teachers in small schools.

Another question further explored the access issue by asking teachers how easily, and where, students access computers at school. Responses were almost evenly split between those who thought students could access computers for learning when wanted, either in the classroom or in computer suites, and those who thought access was limited and might not be available when wanted. Just 6 percent of teachers said access was restricted or non-existent. A few teachers said computers were available in the library (1 percent).

Table 94 **Quality of student computer access**

Quality of access	(n=744) %
Access to a computer suite but it is often not available when wanted/not enough time is allocated to the students	41
Access to a computer suite and it is usually available when wanted/time allocated to the students is sufficient	32
Access to computers in the classroom and one is usually available when wanted	10
Access is restricted/non-existent	6
Access to computers in the classroom but they are often not available when wanted	5
Usually available classroom or computer suite access	5

Principals' and teachers' personal access to ICT

While it may not be the only factor that impacts on ability to keep learning new computer skills and to willingly explore applications of ICT in teaching and learning, ensuring teachers' ease of personal access is an important part of each school's ICT implementation strategies. More principals than teachers had unrestricted access to a computer at school. More teachers than

principals had to share a computer with other staff. Fourteen percent of teachers reported having limited or no access to a computer at school.

Table 95 **Principals' and teachers' computer access at school**

Where computers accessed	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Laptop from "Laptop for principals" scheme	85	-
School computer in classroom/office	68	59
Use shared computer which is usually available	3	34
Bring own laptop	1	10
Use shared computer which is often not available	-	11
Access very restricted/non-existent	-	3

Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to have a school computer in their classroom or office. Teachers in secondary urban schools were more likely to have shared access to a computer, although this was usually available.

While access to a computer at school is important, the next table shows that many teachers either prefer, or find it necessary, to access a computer at home for work purposes. The working day is crowded with other tasks and it may be that teachers prefer to wait for uninterrupted time before working on ICT tasks. Principals are much less likely to use a computer at home for work purposes. Three percent of them gave an open response that they use their computers "everywhere", which means they must predominantly use laptops.

Table 96 **Where principals and teachers most often use computers for work purposes**

Where computers used	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
School	72	33
Half at home and half at school	22	36
Home	2	30
Everywhere	3	-

Who pays for personal ICT use?

There has been some comment amongst teachers that they are now expected to bear costs that once would have been met by government agencies. For example, whereas external examination prescriptions were provided to schools in written form, teachers must access achievement standards and unit standards online, and keep up with the frequent revisions to these. If they want paper copies, either their curriculum budget meets the costs, or they pay these themselves. The latter is most likely to happen when they download professional materials at home. This situation also generates the personal cost of online telecommunications charges.

Principals were more likely to have these costs reimbursed (33 percent) than were teachers (7 percent). Forty-four percent of principals and 72 percent of teachers said their personal online costs were not reimbursed.

Summary

Almost all principals, and all teachers, used a computer for work purposes. The predominant use was for administration and communication purposes, including activities such as word processing, record keeping, planning, and the use of email.

Few principals had personal access issues because most used a laptop provided by an MoE scheme, and many had access to an office computer as well. By contrast more than half the teachers shared a computer or used their own.

The MoE ICT strategy aims to encourage use of ICT for professional learning. More principals than teachers said they used ICT for this purpose.

While around half the teachers said ease of student access to computers was a barrier to the use of ICT for learning, this was by no means the only constraint. Teachers said they needed more time, while principals said teachers needed to build their confidence and skill levels. By the principals' estimates, teachers were more likely to use ICTs for low-level applications such as word processing than to use them for more complex tasks that integrated ICTs into the learning programme.

Many teachers prefer to use their home computer for work-related tasks. Most do not have personal costs such as Internet access or printing of materials reimbursed.

14. School planning, policies, and provision

Previous NZCER national surveys have noted the tension between decentralisation of administration and responsibility to the school level and measures taken to achieve central government goals. In 2003 the government instituted a new planning process that clearly spells out the broad nature of the political agenda for education, and makes the local/national tension clear:

The Government expects self-managing schools to be responsive to the needs of their local communities. They might place additional emphasis on a particular aspect of curriculum or may give prominence to some aspect of the school's tradition or culture. However, society has instituted compulsory schooling to achieve wider education outcomes. The Government has therefore set out in the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs) its education priorities for the school sector and the regulations that ensure that schools work in responsible ways (Ministry of Education, 2003).⁴⁵

The government priorities (set out in NAG One) encompass success for all, a safe learning environment, improving literacy and numeracy, better use of student achievement information, improving outcomes for students at risk, improving Māori outcomes, providing career guidance, and reporting.

NAG Two specifies that the manner in which each school addresses these priorities, and the success with which it has done so, must be planned for and reported within a particular type of framework. This framework must include a section on “who we are⁴⁶”, equating to the charter that each school developed at the beginning of the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms, a 3–5 year strategic plan, with an annually updatable section, and a section that reports on the previous year against this strategic plan. A process of school self-review is an essential component of meeting these governance requirements.

This section examines schools' responses to these planning and reporting requirements, and documents the innovations introduced to achieve government policy priorities, while also being responsive to community needs.

⁴⁵ Cited from *Planning for Better Student Outcomes*, available on the MoE web site www.minedu.govt.nz

⁴⁶ Defined as “mission, vision and community values” of the school in *Planning for Better Student Outcomes*, p. 7.

School self-review

Most principals (93 percent) said the school had a process of self-review. Four percent of principals, all from rural or secondary urban schools, said this was being developed. As part of this review, student achievement results were more likely to be reviewed annually (64 percent) than on a 2-3-year cycle of review of different curriculum areas (26 percent). Conversely, school policies were more likely to be reviewed on a 2-3-year cycle (73 percent) than annually (15 percent). In some schools students' views were also surveyed every 2–3 years (44 percent), or annually (5 percent). Students were surveyed when necessary in 12 percent of schools or not at all in a further 9 percent of cases. Staff were surveyed annually in 38 percent of schools, and on a 2–3-year cycle in another 33 percent. Seven percent of principals said staff surveys were carried out in meetings or interviews, 6 percent said they surveyed staff “when necessary”, and 4 percent when there were specific issues to be addressed.

Some parents were satisfied with the way the school reviewed its charter and strategic plan (37 percent) but a few (2 percent) said they were not satisfied and wanted more input. Other parents said they did not know what was happening (29 percent) or were unsure if they were satisfied (24 percent). A small group were not really interested (6 percent).

The planning and reporting framework

While many principals and trustees had a view about the purposes of the new planning and reporting framework, 44 percent of teachers said they were not sure and 14 percent of principals did not answer the question. The pattern of responses suggested a degree of caution about the purposes for which the data returned to the MoE from schools will be used. Predominant uses were seen as goal setting and the development of national policy, perhaps with the consequence that schools would be “told what to do”. Very few respondents thought the data would be used for the positive purpose of identifying what the school was doing well.

Table 97 Purposes seen for the new planning and reporting framework

Purpose	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %	Trustees (n=180) %
Help set goals for student achievement	33	14	36
Not sure	14	44	16
Get national data for policy development	14	7	9
Help identify what the school could be doing better	12	19	27
To tell schools what to do	12	3	3
Help identify what the school is doing well	2	4	3
School-level data to assist schools	1	2	3

The recent evaluation of the First-Time Principals' Induction Programme (Cameron et al., 2004) found a link between principals' ratings of the usefulness of *all* the professional development related to the planning and reporting process they had received and their ability to construct

meaningful, measurable goals for their school situation. Those who were most positive about the usefulness of the professional development were more likely to have used the framework process to identify well-constructed, meaningful learning goals for the school in the manner intended. If this pattern holds for all principals, the level of cynicism about who actually benefits is food for thought.

The suspicion that the data would be of more use for national than school-specific planning and policy making was supported by the pattern of responses to a question about the differences the new framework would make for board of trustee work. Some principals and trustees thought it will make no difference because they already used achievement data for planning and spending. Others thought they would spend more time looking at and discussing information on achievement but far fewer thought the availability of the data would actually change spending priorities. Again, many teachers were unsure.

Table 98 **Differences the planning and reporting framework will make**

Difference	Principals	Teachers	Trustees
	(n=95) %	(n=744) %	(n=180) %
None, already using achievement data for planning and spending	40	10	32
Board will spend more time discussing achievement	38	15	23
Board will get more information on achievement	33	23	46
Board might change spending priorities	15	12	18
Not sure	8	52	16

Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to think the board might change its spending priorities as a consequence of working with the new planning and reporting framework.

NAG One requires schools to make better use of student achievement data. More principals than trustees or teachers said the school already had data that could be used for setting achievement targets for 2003—the year of the survey. Again, more teachers than principals or trustees were unsure about this.

Table 99 **Availability of Year 9/10 achievement data to use for annual targets**

Availability	Principals	Teachers	Trustees
	(n=95) %	(n=744) %	(n=180) %
School has data	83	60	74
School does not have data	11	15	8
Unsure about whether school has data	2	23	17

Asked about likely priority areas for setting achievement targets, there was a high level of consistency between the top four rankings made by all three groups. Increased achievement in literacy and numeracy, students taking responsibility for their own learning, and development of the essential skills were the agreed top priorities, ranked in the same order, with some variations in the percentage response from each group for each area.

Principals and teachers rated literacy considerably higher than numeracy (26 and 21 percent more emphasis on literacy respectively) but there was just 8 percent difference in the trustees' responses for these two areas. The high frequency of literacy initiatives is doubtless linked to principals' high levels of participation in literacy leadership professional development (see Section 7). More trustees than principals and teachers saw technology as a priority area for target setting. More principals and trustees than teachers saw problem-solving as a priority area, while more teachers than trustees and principals saw PE/sport as a priority area.

Despite being identified as a government priority, Māori achievement ranked low on the priority lists of all three groups. Also mentioned by principals was at-risk students' under-achievement (1 percent). Also mentioned by teachers was task time allowed for students (under 1 percent).

Table 100 **Priority areas for target setting**

Priority area	Principals	Teachers	Trustees
	(n=95) %	(n=744) %	(n=180) %
Literacy	93	80	84
Numeracy	67	59	76
Students taking responsibility for learning	25	27	40
Essential skills	23	21	36
Social skills	12	14	26
Problem-solving	11	9	26
Sports/PE	11	15	16
Technology	8	21	28
Science	5	10	26
Arts	5	7	17
Māori achievement	5	2	3
Health education	4	8	16
Other	4	3	6
Students' involvement	4	-	-
Not sure	2	14	11
Creativity	2	5	16
Social studies	2	5	12

Literacy was more likely to be seen as a priority area for setting school targets by teachers in minor urban schools. There was a clear trend for fewer teachers to see literacy as a target as decile increased. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were most likely, and teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools least likely, to identify this as a priority area for target setting. By contrast, teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to see students taking responsibility for their own learning and technology as priority areas for target setting.

Trustees in small schools were less likely to identify students taking responsibility for their own learning as a priority target.

School responsiveness to different students

Government policy at the time the survey was carried out emphasised reducing the disparity in education achievement between different groups of students. International surveys such as PISA, PIRLS, and TIMSS have all shown that New Zealand has one of the highest disparities between its top performing students and its lowest performing students. These international surveys showed that Māori and Pasifika students are at more risk than students of other ethnicities, that students in low decile schools are more at risk than those in high decile schools, and that boys are more at risk of underachievement than girls. These factors can interact with each other and the PISA survey also showed a relatively high level of within-school variation so patterns of risk are not straightforward (OECD, 2001).

Against this background we asked principals about programmes or policies the school had instituted to counteract educational disadvantage. Responses are shown in the next table. Despite the infrequent identification as a priority for target setting, most schools did have policies/programmes for supporting Māori students. Fewer schools had such policies/programmes for Pasifika students or male students.

Table 101 Programmes/policies to counter disadvantage

Programme/policy for	Principals (n=95) %
Māori students	82
Internet safety	76
Countering bullying	73
Students at risk	68
Administering medication to students	65
Gifted students	63
ESOL	58
Students with disabilities	44
Te Reo me nga tikanga	40
Mainstreaming students with special needs	39
Anti-sexism	33
Anti-racism	26
Pasifika students	23
Male students	18
Gay and lesbian students	16
Refugee students	13
Female students	7

State-integrated schools were less likely to have developed policies for Māori students, or for students at risk.

Special needs students

Two percent of the teachers, mainly in urban schools, identified “special needs” as their curriculum teaching area, but many other teachers had special needs students, excluding gifted students, in at least some of their classes. Thirteen percent of teachers said they had 11 or more such students, 22 percent had between 5 and 10, and a further 39 percent had 1–4 special needs students in their classes. Almost a quarter of the teachers (24 percent) said they taught no special needs students.

The three most commonly used methods for working with special needs students were curriculum adaptation, buddying these students with peers, and using teachers aides. Also mentioned were adapting ways to explain (2 percent), one-on-one time (1 percent), having students identify areas where help is needed, and use of the RTLB (both under 1 percent).

Table 102 **Methods used by teachers to work with special needs students**

Methods used	(n=744) %
Curriculum adaptation	45
Buddy with other students	28
Teacher aide works with teacher	27
Teacher has no special needs students	24
Teacher aide has main responsibility for these students	22
Students are withdrawn for some of their work	17
Other	4
Students are withdrawn for most of their work	3

As the next table shows, over half the teachers did not need, did not want, or had no access to RTLB support for their students with special learning needs. Those who accessed this form of support most commonly wanted help with behavioural issues. While 45 percent of teachers said they adapted the curriculum for their special needs students, just 13 percent of them asked for help of an RTLB when doing so.

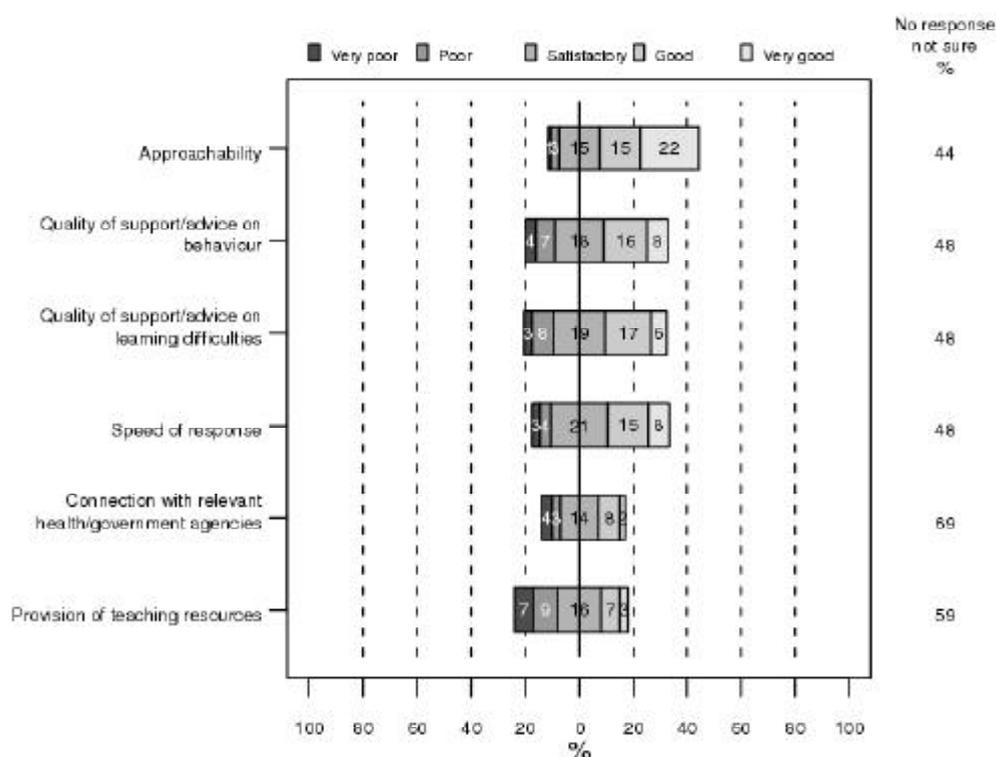
Table 103 **Types of support provided by RTLBs**

Types of support	(n=744) %
Advice and/or support on approach to behaviour	24
Teacher has no special needs students	24
Teacher has not wanted RTLB support	21
Advice and/or support on teaching methods	16
Advice and/or support with adapting curriculum	13
Teacher has not been able to access RTLB support	10
Advice and/or support on working with teacher aide	9
Modelling of teaching strategies	4
RTLB teaches student/s	4

RTLB support in the way of advice or support for adapting the curriculum tended to happen more often in small and rural schools. Teachers in state-integrated schools were more likely to say they could not access RTLB support.

The lack of widespread use of RTLB support doubtless contributed to high non-response rates when teachers were asked to comment on the quality of aspects of the service provided by both RTLBs and Group Special Education. As the next figure shows, non-response rates for RTLB services ranged from 44 percent (approachability) to 69 percent (connection with relevant government/health agencies). Teachers who did use the service appeared to be generally satisfied, and were most positive overall about approachability.

Figure 25 Teachers' perceptions of services provided by RTLBs

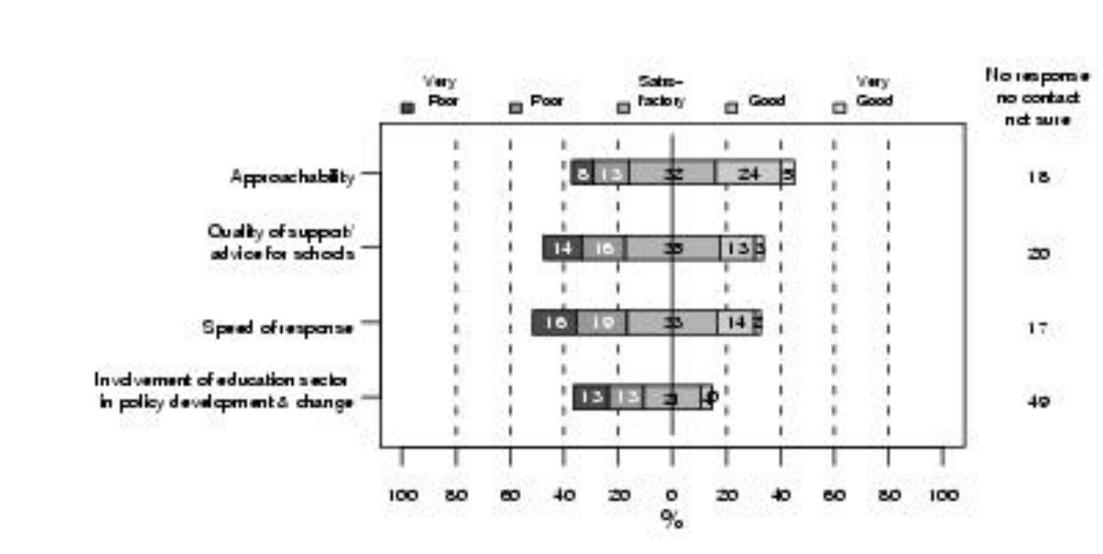


Non-response rates ranged between 78 and 85 percent when teachers were asked to comment on the quality of services provided by Group Special Education. The 15–20 percent of teachers who did respond were more equivocal about the services of Group Special Education than they were about RTLBs. The frequency of responses to the same six factors (see figure above) was evenly pivoted around the “satisfactory” midpoint, with very similar (small) numbers rating the services poor or good, and with very few very poor or very good ratings.

Principals were similarly ambivalent about the services provided by Group Special Education, with responses clustering around “satisfactory”. In three of the four provided categories poor/very poor responses outweighed good/very good responses. As for other agencies that provide services

to schools, some of the principals who used the service appeared to be unsure about the involvement of this agency in policy development and change in the education sector because they did not respond to this category.

Figure 26 Principals' perceptions of services provided by Group Special Education



Programmes and initiatives to meet a range of student needs

Policies must be turned into actions if they are to be more than just a paper exercise. We asked schools about areas where they had established or were establishing programmes to address the needs they had identified. Predictably, given its policy emphasis for both schools and government, literacy programmes were in place in most schools. Many schools also had programmes to counter bullying and improve social skills, and uniform initiatives, in line with parents' concerns about these issues (see Section 9) and the concerns about discipline issues of nearly a third of the teachers (see Section 10). Some schools had restructured the timetable, or the curriculum, to better meet student learning needs. Also mentioned were middle school management, classroom management, accommodation, marae courses, adult education, adult day out, and ESOL (all 1 percent).

Table 104 **Innovative programmes in secondary schools**

Programme	Principals (n=95) %
Literacy programme	92
Anti-bullying/social skills	85
Uniforms	73
Young enterprise programme	63
Restructuring curriculum/timetable	61
School intranet	59
Health promotion programme	58
Numeracy programme	57
Accelerated learning	52
Teaching based on different learning styles/multiple intelligence approach	51
School-business links or programmes	45
Problem-solving approach	38
School bus for non-local students	38
Thinking skills programme	27
After school programme	23
Environmental education programme	17
Restructure	15
Individual learning programmes for all students	13
Social workers in schools	13
Shared classes/teachers with another school (state)	13
Assessment to learn contract	12
Shared classes/teachers with another school (integrated)	6
Offered ECE on same site/nearby	6

Externally funded initiatives

The number of externally funded initiatives taking place in a school varied. There were no such initiatives in 16 percent of schools, one initiative in 24 percent, two in 25 percent, three in 15 percent, four in 9 percent, and five in 3 percent of schools. State-integrated schools are more likely not to be undertaking any externally funded initiatives.

Initiatives for managing truancy

Most schools had initiatives to decrease truancy (86 percent), although some principals felt this was not needed in their school (12 percent). State schools were more likely to have initiatives to decrease truancy than state-integrated schools. All principals in decile 1 to 6 schools said they had initiatives to reduce truancy. By contrast, principals in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to say they did not need such initiatives, or did not have them.

Most commonly schools monitored attendance and contacted parents for unexplained absences (77 percent). Some also employed a truancy officer (63 percent) or worked with a truancy scheme or agency (47 percent). Also mentioned were working with a community liaison officer (2

percent) and the use of police visits (1 percent). Decile 1 to 4 schools intent on reducing truancy were more likely to use a truancy scheme or agency, while decile 5 and 6 schools were more likely to use a truancy officer, or monitoring within the school. State-integrated schools were less likely to have used a truancy scheme, agency, or officer, or to have monitored within the school then contacted parents when students truant. They were also less likely to have used school funds to deal with truancy issues. These differences doubtless reflect a perception that there is less likelihood that students in state-integrated schools will truant.

These initiatives were most likely to be funded from school reserves (64 percent) or by central government funding (45 percent). Some schools shared costs with other local schools (38 percent) or received financial support locally—from the community (7 percent), local government (6 percent), or local businesses (2 percent).

Making major policy decisions

Twenty percent of trustees said their board had faced major policy decisions such as area reorganisation in the last year and 17 percent were unsure. Trustees who had faced such decisions were asked what action was taken by the board. The most common responses were to seek help from the MoE (9 percent), to consult with local schools or with parents (both 7 percent), or to seek advice from NZSTA (6 percent). Less commonly, trustees employed a private consultant (3 percent), negotiated with other schools or sought advice from the PPTA (both 2 percent) or from the Principals' Association (1 percent). For some schools this solved the problem (8 percent), while for others the actions taken brought partial success (6 percent) or it was too soon to tell (4 percent). In 1 percent of cases the issue was seen as beyond the board's capacity to resolve.

Trustees were asked if they were happy with the level of parental involvement in developing school policies. Thirty-seven percent said yes, they were generally happy, and 26 percent said they were happy for some areas. A further 28 percent were not happy and 9 percent were not sure.

Summary

In 2003 most secondary schools had an established process for school self-review. A majority of schools already had access to student achievement data they could use to evaluate their success in reaching their student achievement targets and they planned to do this annually.

There was a degree of doubt about the purposes of the new planning and review framework. While there was some recognition that it could be used to set goals for student achievement, and to help the school do better, some principals, teachers, and trustees saw the data gathered as being of more use for national policy development. Some principals, in particular, thought it would be used to tell schools what to do.

The development of literacy skills was seen as a top priority for target setting and this had frequently been translated into specific programmes in the schools. Numeracy was somewhat less often identified as a priority for target setting and innovative numeracy programmes were less frequently introduced.

Congruent with parents' and some teachers' concerns, many schools had programmes to address bullying, discipline and behavioural issues, and to deal with uniform issues. Most schools had initiatives to decrease truancy.

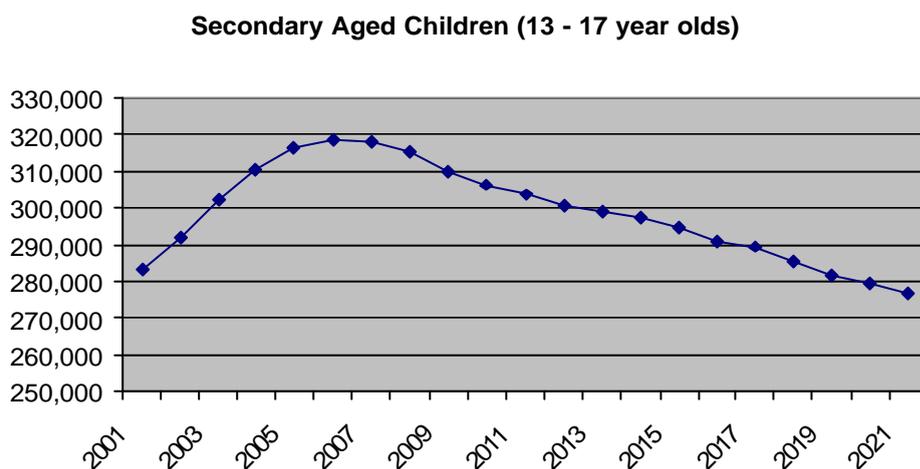
Whilst most schools had a policy for countering educational disadvantage for Māori students, this was seldom seen as a priority for target setting within the planning and reporting framework.

A majority of teachers taught at least some special needs students. They provided for these students by adapting the curriculum, buddying them with peers, or using teacher aides. Less than half the teachers had accessed RTLB support and most appeared to have had no experience of dealing with Group Special Education. Overall responses of both principals and teachers who had dealt with Group Special Education painted a somewhat ambivalent picture of their services.

15. Roll changes and competition

Demographic projections indicate that secondary school student numbers can be expected to rise in the first years of the twenty-first century as the “baby blippers”⁴⁷ enter secondary school. Across the years from 2001–2011 the percentage of the total population aged between 15 and 24 is projected to rise by at least 5 percent to 20+ percent of the total population, and Māori students are expected to make up 21 percent of the blip.⁴⁸ However, numbers are then expected to fall again, and in the lower secondary school (students aged under 15) numbers will obviously begin to fall before 2011.

Figure 27 **Demographic projections of secondary school numbers**⁴⁹



There are human capital implications for this instability—it takes 6–7 years of post-secondary education and training to prepare a secondary school teacher (Pool, 2004). As we have seen, in 2003 on the leading edge of the “blip”, some schools were already having trouble attracting well-qualified and suitable teachers (see Section 4).

There are also financial implications. The recent school finance study (Wylie & King, 2004) found that roll numbers were key to a school’s financial health. This study characterised the ideal

⁴⁷ Defined as children of the “baby boomers” who were born in the immediate post-war years .

⁴⁸ Summary of projections sourced from Knowledge-wave meets baby-blip wave: how secondary schools will play a key role in NZ’s future. Paper presented by Ian pool to *Charting the Future*, PPTA Conference, Wellington, April 2004. Presentation available on PPTA website www.ppta.org.nz

⁴⁹ Graph as used by the Minister of Education in his area review presentations.

secondary school roll, in terms of financial health, as at its maximum for the site, without being overcrowded. Increases would ideally be gradual and steady, patterns of retention in the senior secondary school would be reliable, and the school would be of a sufficient size to offer a good range of subjects (ideally 700+ students). This is a demanding set of characteristics, especially when the demographic projections suggest steeper increases for some schools,⁵⁰ to be followed by falls. This section reports the actual roll numbers, and trends in roll changes in the survey schools.

Geographic changes also impact on school rolls. With the general population drift from rural areas to towns and cities, MoE projections have identified a number of more rural areas with surplus student places. Eleven such areas were subjected to a process of area review in 2004. In this process the MoE works with the community to try to decide the best ways to rationalise surplus capacity, with the Minister of Education taking responsibility for the final decision for any school closures and amalgamations. Understandably, area reviews have caused considerable anxiety and at the time of writing this report the process had been scaled back, in part because of public backlash in the affected areas.

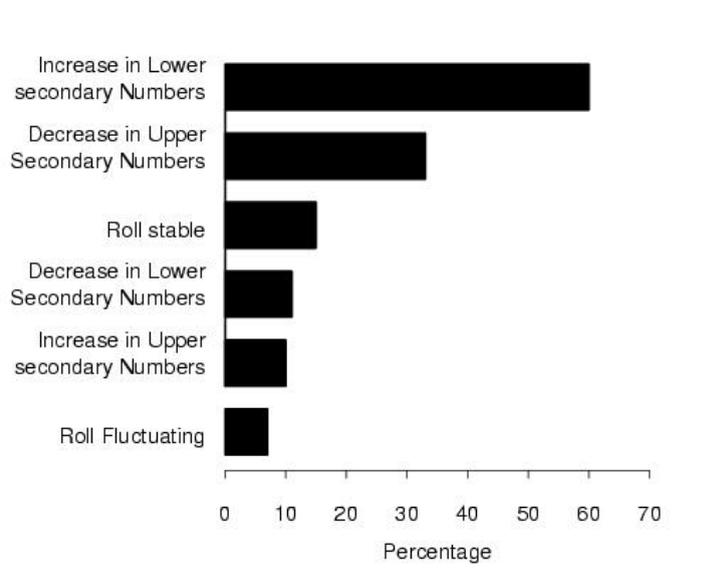
When roll numbers fall there can be competition for students. This is not necessarily straightforward—even when rolls are expanding, as they were in some areas in 2003, some schools were competing for students. Research critical of the impact of the early years of *Tomorrow's Schools* found that “parental choice” was in fact only a choice for those families with the means and ability to best exercise it. While some parents could and did move their children to “better” schools, other students were left in “sink” schools whose existing relative educational disadvantages were then compounded (Jonathon, 1990). According to Jonathon, even those parents who were philosophically opposed to this type of consequence were forced to choose between the greater good and their own children’s educational chances. A consequence was the burgeoning “better” schools put enrolment schemes in place to selectively manage their roll growth, while nearby “sink” schools were left with surplus places.

Patterns in secondary school roll changes

Reflecting the overall change in numbers of students entering secondary schools, 63 percent of the survey schools had experienced an increase in numbers in the lower secondary school since 1999. By comparison 35 percent had experienced an increase in upper secondary numbers—see the next figure. Few principals described their roll as stable, but even fewer described it as fluctuating. There were no significant decile-related differences in response to this question.

⁵⁰ In his presentation to the PPTA conference, Pool suggested that the disproportionate number of Māori students in the blip would impact most on lower decile school numbers.

Figure 28 **Patterns of school roll change 1999–2003**



While a majority of principals attributed at least some of the pattern in school roll changes to changes in the population, there was also an awareness that parental and student choice had contributed. While zoning had some impact on patterns of roll change, very few principals in the sample had experienced a reorganisation of schools as a result of an area review.

Table 105 **Reasons for school roll changes**

Reason	(n=95) %
Changes in general population/housing in local area	58
Changes in student/parent preferences	53
Change in number of international students	22
Zoning	21
Reorganisation of schools in area	4

Principals in minor urban schools were more likely to attribute roll changes to general population and housing changes in the area, while those in state-integrated schools were less likely to do so.

Asked if the board would be interested in merging with another school in the area, 82 percent of trustees said no. The few who said yes (5 percent), or that it depended on funding (2 percent), or that they were not sure (9 percent), were also asked what reasons they would consider for undertaking a merger. Responses were to allow students continuity in their schooling, or that the school roll was falling (both 5 percent), and to gain from sharing of expertise or to expose students to a wider world (both 4 percent). One trustee was interested in merging to create a middle school.

School capacity and enrolment schemes

Predicting and planning for changing roll numbers is clearly challenging. Many principals said they did not know how many new students to expect until the beginning of the school year (27 percent) and some said they did not know until several weeks into the new year (13 percent). Those with more opportunity to plan said they knew midway through Term Four of the previous year (17 percent) or at the end of the previous year (5 percent). The bigger the school, the more likely it was that numbers of new students would not be known until after the new term began.

Sixty percent of principals said they had places for all students who applied. Those in decile 9 and 10 schools, or in state-integrated schools, were more likely to say they did not. Three percent said they did not have places for students who applied during the school year.

Depending on the school's circumstances there were two different types of reasons for not wanting to see an increase in their school's physical capacity to take more students. Some principals said the school roll was already big enough (39 percent). Others said that the school already had unused space (27 percent). Some principals were keen to expand the school's physical capacity because they could not currently take all those who wished to attend (22 percent).

Principals of schools with 1,000+ students were more likely to say they did not want to increase the school's capacity because it was already big enough. Those in schools of 300 or less students who did not want to increase the school's capacity were more likely to say this was because they already had unused space.

Seventy-one percent of schools, including all those schools serving communities with populations of less than 10,000 people (i.e. rural and minor urban schools), did not have an enrolment scheme. (For 23 percent there were no other local secondary schools.) Forty-three percent of main urban schools and 38 percent of secondary urban schools did have an enrolment scheme. This was likely to be related to their overall size—73 percent of schools with 1,000+ students had an enrolment scheme. Sixty percent of principals said at least one other local school had an enrolment scheme.

Student transience

The average number of students who transferred out of secondary schools during the year was 37, with a range from 1 to 160. Incoming transfers (other than students beginning secondary school) averaged 49, with a range from 2 to 225. Secondary schools vary considerably in size so a more meaningful measure of roll stability is the percentage transience of students during the year. The median rate of transience was 10 percent of the total roll, with three-quarters of all schools having a total transience rate of 13 percent or less. There were wide variations in transience rates at the extremes. In 10 percent of schools there was a less than 3 percent transience, but in the 10 percent of schools with the least stable rolls transience ranged from 19–52 percent of the total roll. Transience rates were highest for decile 1 and 2 schools and decreased progressively to be lowest

in decile 9 and 10 schools. Transience rates were lower in state-integrated schools than in state schools.

Another type of snapshot of roll stability is provided by leaving students who have completed all their secondary schooling at the same school. The median rate for completing all their schooling at the same school was 97 percent for leaving Year 11 students and 56 percent for leaving Year 12 students. By contrast, a median of 69 percent of all leaving Year 13 students had completed their secondary schooling at the same school. The Year 13 students who stayed at the same school were more likely to be found in decile 5–10 schools than in decile 1–4 schools. The maximum number of leavers who had completed all their schooling at the same school rose from 92 percent at Year 11 to 97 percent at both Years 12 and 13. The minimum number of leaving students who had completed all of their schooling at the same school ranged from no leaving Year 11 students having been at the same secondary school for their whole learning career, to a minimum 9 percent at Year 13. Thus staying at school beyond Year 11 appears to be associated with stability of schooling.

Principals were also asked to estimate how many “boomerang” students moved in and out of the same school during the year.⁵¹ In more than half of the schools (n=72) less than 1 percent of students were in this category. However in 5 percent of the schools 5 percent of the student roll were boomerang students. These students were most likely to be in decile 1 or 2 schools, although small numbers were found in schools at all deciles.

Transition between schools

While transient and boomerang students experience many changes in the course of their schooling, all students who follow a traditional primary-intermediate-secondary school pathway undergo two potentially unsettling school transitions in the space of 2 years. The number of transitions is reduced when full primary schools retain their Year 7 and 8 students or in Year 7–13 secondary schools.⁵² The timing of the transitions can be more widely spaced when students move from primary schools to Year 7–10 middle schools, then on to senior colleges. Whenever the transition is made, any information about students that can be used to help them settle in to the new school will obviously be of value in easing the transition.

A bare majority of secondary principals felt sufficient information was provided to aid the planned transition between primary and secondary school. Because many secondary schools draw their students from a range of primary schools, it is perhaps not surprising that 38 percent of them said the information they got varied. Transfer between secondary schools is more *ad hoc* and

⁵¹ “Boomerang” students come and go from the same school.

⁵² And does not exist at all for Year 1–13 area schools.

fewer principals felt they received sufficient information about students they were enrolling in these circumstances. Again, many said the quality of the information varied.

Table 106 Principals' views of information provided for inter-school transitions

View	Primary/Intermediate (n=95) %	Secondary (n=95) %
Sufficient information is provided	56	26
Information varies	38	67
Insufficient information is provided	5	5

Principals of state-integrated schools were more likely to say the school received sufficient information about new students for a good transition from other secondary schools.

While there was a tendency for teachers to also think that they got better information about students transferring from primary schools, or that the information varied, they were much more likely to think they got insufficient information about their new students, wherever they came from.

Table 107 Teachers' views of information provided for inter-school transitions

View	Primary/Intermediate (n=744) %	Secondary (n=744) %
Sufficient information is provided	26	9
Information varies	41	60
Insufficient information is provided	21	29

Teachers in main urban schools were less satisfied with the information provided by primary schools for students' transitions.

Competition between schools

We have already noted that increased competition between some schools was a feature of the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms of the late 1980s – early 1990s. Whether this is seen as healthy or destructive is a matter of perspective and networks between schools are in any case complex (Wylie, 1999). We next report on perceptions of the nature and impact of competition between the survey schools and other educational institutions.

Relations with other local secondary schools

On the whole principals were more aware of the range of contacts the school had with other local secondary schools than were the teachers. Principals perceived more competition, but also more sharing of information, resources, and support. This accords with their reports of strong principal

networks (see Section 6). Teachers were most aware of sharing in professional development contexts.

Table 108 **Schools' relations with other local secondary schools**

Relation	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Some competition	60	16
Share information on individual students	54	7
Share RTLB	52	14
Share resources, give mutual support	42	-
Share professional development	38	32
Varies	28	10
Social contact with staff	28	18
Share specialist (non-RTLB)	13	6
No/limited contact	10	41
No other local schools	7	6

Principals in minor urban schools were less likely to perceive competition with other local secondary schools.⁵³ Principals of decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely, and those in decile 9 and 10 schools less likely, to have shared information about individual students with other local secondary schools. It may be that higher levels of transient students in low decile schools account for the greater sharing of information that takes place between them.

Decile 1 and 2 schools and teachers in state-integrated schools were more likely to share an RTLB with another secondary school. Teachers in schools of 500+ students were more likely to say they had no or limited contact with other secondary schools.

Forty-two percent of principals said the actions of other local secondary schools had not affected their own roll. Some had lost students to another school (22 percent) and some had gained them (17 percent). Decile 3 and 4 schools were more likely to have lost students to another school, while decile 1–2 and 7–8 schools were more likely to have gained them.

Clustering is one way for local schools to share resources and expertise. As the next table shows, most secondary schools are part of an RTLB cluster, and many are part of at least one other cluster as well. (Forty percent of principals nominated one cluster, 41 percent chose two, and 17 percent said they were part of three or more clusters.)

⁵³ For many of them there were no other local secondary schools.

Table 109 Secondary schools' clustering arrangements with other schools

Clustering arrangement	Principals (n=95) %
RTLB cluster	92
ICT cluster	27
School support	10
Star cluster	8
Share specialist subject teacher(s)	8
Administrative support	5
AIMHI	3

Clustering was valued by principals for the sharing of knowledge and for professional support/networking (both 64 percent), and because it maximised resourcing and expertise (62 percent). Some principals thought it created professional development opportunities that would not otherwise be available (38 percent) or mentioned the use of clustering for moderation purposes (17 percent).

Disadvantages were time (47 percent), the additional responsibilities such as the management of resources (45 percent), or that resources were not always distributed equally (30.5 percent). Principals of decile 7 and 8 schools were more likely to see the time needed as a disadvantage of clustering.

Relations with local primary and intermediate schools

As for contact with other secondary schools, principals were more aware of the range of contacts the school had with local primary schools than were the teachers. A range of sharing activities topped the list of types of contact and competition was seen as rare. Again, as might be expected given the range of primary schools in any one area, a fifth of both principals and teachers said this contact varied.

Table 110 Perceptions of schools' relations with primary and intermediate schools

Perception	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Share information on individual students	78	36
Share RTLB	47	16
Share resources, give mutual support	36	12
Social contact with staff	35	11
Provide professional support in specific curriculum areas	22	13
Varies	20	20
Share professional development	19	6
Share specialist (non-RTLB)	18	7
None/limited contact	14	32
Some competition	6	2
Not applicable	1	4
Not sure	-	4

Both principals and teachers in minor urban schools said they were more likely to share an RTLB with local primary and intermediate schools, and these teachers were also more likely to say they shared information on individual students. They were less likely to report no contact than teachers in other school types—a finding that is doubtless related to the smaller size of the communities in which they are located. In a related pattern, decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to share an RTLB with local primary schools, and to provide them with professional support in a specific curriculum area.

State schools were more likely than state-integrated schools to share information on individual students with local primary and intermediate schools. Teachers in main urban schools were less likely to say they had social contact with teachers in local primary schools and teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to say they had no contact, or limited contact, with their local primary schools.

Relations with local post-secondary providers

Post-secondary providers most often make contact with secondary schools when they deliver STAR or Gateway courses (see Vaughan & Kenneally, 2003 for examples). Also mentioned by principals was career advice for students (2 percent).

While principals saw some competition with post-secondary providers for students, this was more likely to be mentioned in relation to other local secondary schools (see above). As for other types of contact, some teachers were unaware of the types of contact that were made, and they were more likely than principals to say there was no contact, or limited contact.

Table 111 **Perceptions of relations with local post-secondary providers**

Perception	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Use them to provide STAR courses	74	50
Occasional use of specialist resources	51	37
Some competition	27	9
Use them to provide Gateway courses	22	28
No/limited contact	12	23
No local post-secondary providers	11	4
Social contact with staff	4	6
Not sure	-	5
Share RTLB	-	3

Principals said schools of 1,000+ were more likely to use the specialist resources of local providers. Showing a similar type of trend, minor urban and rural schools were less likely to use the services of STAR course providers.

Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to say they used Gateway courses hosted by post-secondary providers and less likely to say they had no or limited contact with these

providers. Teachers in main urban schools were more likely to occasionally use specialist resources from post-secondary providers, and to also use them for Gateway courses.

Summary

In 2003, a majority of schools had rolls that were growing in the lower secondary area. A few mid-decile schools reported losing students through competition with other schools but many principals of larger schools did not want their school to grow any bigger. Large urban schools were more likely to have enrolment schemes.

Information provided to aid students' transitions between schools varied. In general principals said they received better information from their local primary schools than they did when students transferred from other secondary schools. More principals than teachers said the school received sufficient information in either situation.

While small numbers of transient or boomerang students can be found in many schools, there are likely to be more of them in low decile schools. Students who have stable attendance patterns are more likely to stay at school beyond Year 11.

Principals perceived more competition, but also more sharing of information, resources, and support between local secondary schools than did teachers. Most secondary schools are part of at least one cluster that shares resources and expertise between local schools (both secondary and primary). While some competition is perceived between secondary schools and post-secondary providers, little is perceived with local primary and intermediate schools.

16. Parents and schools

Introduction

How successful have recent reforms of education been in actually drawing parents into closer contact with schools and into more involvement in school decision making about their children's education? We have already seen that many parents do not volunteer their direct help to secondary schools (Section 9). The focus of this section turns to other possibilities for contact between parents and the school, the information they have about the school and their child's progress, their satisfaction with the school, and factors that influenced their choice of school.

Sixty percent of parents had one child at the survey school, 33 percent had two children, and 5 percent had three or more children at this school. Most parents had had a child at this school for 2 years or more (80 percent). Seventeen percent of this group had had a child at the school for 6 years or more. The youngest child could be in Year 9 (34 percent), Year 10 (27 percent), Year 11 (18 percent) or Year 12 (13 percent). No parent had a youngest child in Year 13.

Parental contact with the school

Parents potentially make indirect contact with the school daily, via their child's experiences. Some questions probed their perceptions of characteristics of their child's classes. The "not sure" responses to these questions showed that, for a number of parents, details such as this appeared not to have been discussed.

Over half the children of these parents were in single year level classes. Nineteen percent said there were two year levels in at least one of their youngest child's class, and 11 percent said there were more than 2 years levels in at least one class. Around a quarter of the parents were not sure about either alternative (2 year levels, 21 percent; more than two year levels, 25 percent).

As might be expected, parents whose children attended small schools (less than 300 students) were more likely to report 25 or fewer students in their child's biggest class. Those attending schools of 300–499 were more likely to have 26–30 students in their biggest class, while students in schools of over 500 were more likely to have 31 or more students in their biggest classes (see Section 5).

Parental contact with teachers

Parents face new communication challenges when their children enter secondary school contexts where they are likely to interact with a wider range of subject specialist teachers than they did at primary school. The greater the number of teachers the student has, the higher the likelihood that at least one of these teachers will change during the course of the year. Forty-two percent of parents said their child had had a change of subject teacher during the past year and 33 percent said they had not. Parents were not as likely to be unsure about this as they were about class sizes (6 percent).⁵⁴ Students at state schools were more likely to have had a change of teacher during the year than students at state-integrated schools.

Some students had experienced just one change of subject teacher during the past year (19 percent) and some had had multiple changes, although not necessarily in the same subject (two or three changes, 17 percent; four to six changes, 5 percent). If they had a change at all, students at main urban schools were likely to have had just one change of teacher.

The next table shows parents' perceptions of the nature and extent of contacts between parents and teachers of their youngest child at the school. Formally organised parent/teacher interviews were the most common type of contact (64 percent), followed by discussion of students' progress in other situations. Situations that involve individualised contact at the school doubtless account for the considerable amount of time some teachers said they spent talking to parents (see Section 11). Also mentioned were contact when a parent worked at the school (2 percent), or when they carried out canteen, library, or other school duties, or talked to teachers at sports events (both 1 percent). Contact by email, and conversations about health issues were mentioned by a few parents (less than 1 percent). It is concerning that 21 percent of parents said they had no contact with their child's teachers. This is a much higher percentage than that found for contact with primary teachers in previous NZCER national surveys of primary schools (Wylie, 1999).

Table 112 **Contacts between parents and their child's teachers**

Contact	(n=503) %
Parent/teacher interviews	64
Talk about child's work	38
Talk about child's written report	25
No contact	21
Talk about child's behaviour	21
Talk about what parent can do to help child's learning	18
Informal talk at school functions	14
See teacher(s) around the community	12
At school meetings	11
Discussion about curriculum	9
Informal talk on school trips	7
Talk about school policy	6

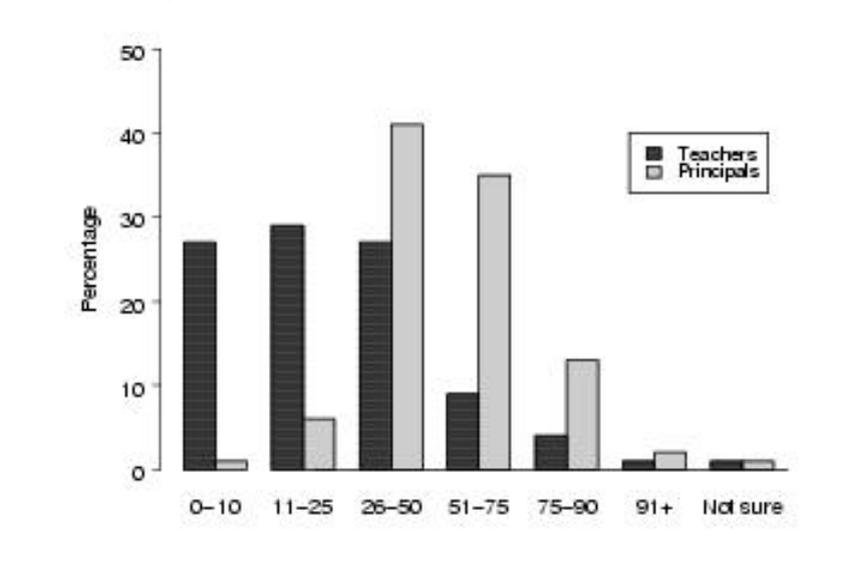
⁵⁴ A further 15 percent did not have a child at the school in 2002 so could not answer the question.

Pākehā and “other” parents were more likely to have attended parent-teacher interviews, while Asian and Māori parents were less likely to have done so. Parents of students at state-integrated schools were more likely to have talked informally to their child’s teachers at school functions. Male parents were more likely to say they had no contact with their child’s teacher. Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to have talked to a teacher about their child’s behaviour. Māori and “New Zealander” parents were more likely to have talked about what they could do to help their child’s learning.

Parental discussion of their child's report with teachers

The next figure compares teacher and principal estimates of the proportion of parents who discussed their child’s report with their teachers. Eighty-two percent of teachers, compared to 48 percent of principals estimated the extent of this contact at 50 percent of parents or less. The pattern held when the responses of principals and teachers from the same schools were compared. The differences in perception may lie in principals’ more general contact with parents compared to teachers’ contact with parents of the students who take the specific subjects they teach.

Figure 29 **Principals’ and teachers’ estimates of numbers of parents who discussed reports**



There were differences between the perceptions of principals in different types of schools. Principals in state-integrated schools were more likely to estimate that a high proportion of parents had discussed reports with teachers. Principals of decile 1–4 schools were more likely to estimate that fewer than 50 percent of parents discussed their child’s report with teachers at the school, while principals of decile 7–10 schools were more likely to estimate that 75 percent of parents or more did so.

There was also a clear trend for teachers of higher decile schools to estimate that a greater proportion of parents discussed reports with them. Teachers in decile 1 and 2 schools were more

likely to estimate that 10 percent of parents or less discussed their child's report with them. Those in decile 3 and 4 schools were more likely to estimate that between 11 and 25 percent of parents discussed their child's report. Those in decile 9 and 10 schools were more likely to place their estimates in one of the categories ranging between 26 percent and 91+ percent.

Do parents have enough contact with their child's teachers?

As we have already noted, students in secondary schools are typically taught by a range of teachers at any one time. Keeping in touch with all of these people is clearly not easy for many parents. Just 27 percent of them thought they had enough contact with *all* of their child's teachers. However, 40 percent felt they had sufficient contact with *some* of the teachers. Twenty-five percent felt they did not have sufficient contact with any of the teachers and 7 percent were not sure. These responses are put into perspective by the common perception that all the teachers *would* be available if parents wanted to talk to them—a view held by 57 percent of the parents. A further 28 percent felt that some of the teachers would be available if they wanted to talk. Just 2 percent felt that none of the teachers would be available to them if they wanted to talk.

Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were less likely to say that all teachers would be available to talk to them, or more likely to say they were not sure. Together with decile 3 and 4 parents they were, however, more likely to say that *some* teachers would be available if they wanted to talk.

Twenty percent of parents said there were issues they would feel uncomfortable about raising with their child's teachers. The issue most often cited was the teacher's style of teaching (14 percent) followed by the quality of that teaching (12 percent), homework (10 percent), and the child's progress (9 percent).

Parental contact with the board of trustees

Very few parents said they had direct and active contact with the school's board of trustees, as shown in the next table. Also mentioned were attendance at a board meeting, or taking part in the development of a curriculum/learning programme (both 2 percent). Small numbers of parents took part in the development or revision of school policies or charters, the discussion of an ERO report, or in working bees and fundraising with trustees (all 1 percent). A few saw minutes of or agendas for board meetings, or trustees came to parents' evenings or parent-teacher interviews (all 1 percent). Another 1 percent of responding parents were also trustees.

Table 113 **Parental contact with board of trustees**

Type of contact	(n=503) %
No contact	73
Received board newsletters/reports	15
Answered school survey	10
Talked with individual trustees about school policy	5
Talked with individual trustees about my children	3

It is possible that board newsletters and reports are not received in many cases if they are sent home with students. In view of trustees' reports that this was a common means of board consultation with the community (see Section 9) the low numbers of parents who saw such newsletters is concerning.

Parents of students at state-integrated schools and in decile 9 or 10 schools were more likely to have received newsletters or reports from the board of trustees. Parents of students at state schools were more likely to have had no contact with the school board.

Despite the low levels of reported contact, similar numbers of parents felt this contact was sufficient (34 percent) as felt it was not (36 percent). The large not sure response (27 percent) probably reflects uncertainty about the types of contacts that were possible, given the large no-contact response rate. Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to feel they did not have enough contact with the board of trustees, or to not be sure about this. Congruent with this decile-related pattern, parents who identified as Māori or Pasifika (along with those who said they were "New Zealanders") were more likely to be dissatisfied with contact levels. As in some other parts of the survey, Asian parents were more likely to be unsure. Parents who identified as Pākehā were more likely to say they had enough contact with the board of trustees.

Trustees' perspectives of their contact with parents

Fifty-nine percent of trustees are satisfied with their level of contact with parents. The next table shows the various ways in which trustees make these contacts. They have a very different perspective on the extent of contact between the board of trustees and parents than many parents do, perhaps because they mainly speak with individuals rather than groups of parents. This is a similar pattern to the one found for differences in perceptions of contact between teachers and trustees (see Section 10).

Table 114 **Trustees' contact with parents**

Contact	(n=180) %
Informal discussions with parents who are friends	72
Trustee talked at school functions to individual unknown parents	49
Individual parents contacted trustee concerning school policy	48
Individual parents contacted trustee concerning their children	47
Through board consultation with parents on strategic plan for charter	33
Trustee discussed student achievement with parents	31
Trustee contacted known individual parents to seek views	31
Parents come to board meetings	31
Attend meetings of PTA/Home and School Association/School Council	31
Help/work at school	27
Trustee consulted with parents to develop board policies	22
Trustee attended whānau/pasifika support/other meetings	22
Trustee discussed ERO reports with parents	21
Had no/little direct contact with parents	14
Trustee contacted unknown individual parents to seek views/invite to meetings	11
Trustee contacted groups of parents about school policy	10

Nearly half the trustees (48 percent) listed four or fewer types of contact but 10 percent of them identified 10 or more of these types of contact.

Trustees in small schools (less than 300 students) were more likely to have been in contact with parents when together they took part in strategic planning for the school charter. Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to have talked to individual parents whom they had not previously known at school functions, and to have had informal discussions with parents who were friends.

Parents' access to information

Parents had similar perceptions about the quality of information they received in the interrelated areas of their child's learning programme and learning progress. While a relatively small group was clearly dissatisfied with the quality of this information, most parents saw it as at least satisfactory.

Table 115 Parents' perceptions of quality of information they receive

Quality of information	About overall learning programme (n=503) %	About child's learning progress (n=503) %
Very good	18	21
Good	31	33
Satisfactory	36	32
Poor	11	10
Very poor	3	2
Not sure	2	2

A majority of parents were happy with the quality of their child's schooling (74 percent) but 15 percent were not happy and 11 percent were not sure. Those parents who rated the information they received as good or very good were more likely to be happy with the overall quality of schooling and those who rated the information poor or very poor were more likely to be unhappy.

Congruent with their other responses, the most common concern of this "not happy" group was that not enough information about the child was shared with parents (13 percent). Other questions in the survey shed more light on the specific types of information parents wanted.

Nearly half the parents (46 percent) said they would like information on their child's *progress* that they did not currently have. The next table shows the types of information they wanted. Some requests were non-specific, some related to information that could be used to support the child's learning, and some parents wanted comparative information on their child's progress.

Table 116 Additional information about students' learning that parents would like to have

Activity	(n=180) %
Information about assessments/tests taken	34
More detailed information about progress	33
Ideas on how to support child's learning	25
Comparative information on progress with respect to national standards	25
More regular reports	21
Information that is easier to understand.	12
Earlier indications of the child's performance	2

Fewer parents (24 percent) wanted more information about *the school*. Again a range from non-specific to very specific types of information were mentioned, as shown in the next table. In line with high levels of parental uncertainty reported in Section 12, the NCEA tops the list.

Table 117 **Additional information about the school that parents would like to have**

Information wanted	(n=180) %
More information about the NCEA	17
Information about overall student achievement	15
Information in general	13
Curriculum information	11
Information about board decisions	10
School planning information	9
Information on use of funds	9
Information on school policies	8

A similar sized group of parents (20 percent) said there were *areas of school life* where they wanted to have a say that they did not have. These areas included having input into their child's classes/teacher (13 percent), student behaviour (12 percent), uniform/dress (11 percent), school policies (8 percent), and curriculum (7 percent). Also mentioned was allocation of funding (4 percent).

Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to want to have a say on student behaviour.

Parents' satisfaction with the quality of their child's schooling

We have already reported that most parents who were generally not happy with the quality of their child's schooling (15 percent) cited communication issues. Concerns were also expressed about the child not receiving enough individual attention or failing to make adequate progress (both 9 percent), the low quality of teaching (8 percent), a poor school climate or an unsupportive peer group (both 5 percent).

In response to a more specific question about the quality of their child's overall *learning programme*, 18 percent of parents rated this very good, 31 percent said it was good, and 36 percent that it was satisfactory. Eleven percent rated the learning programme as poor, and 3 percent as very poor.

Notwithstanding this relatively low level of expressed unhappiness, 56 percent of parents would like to see changes in the education offered at the school. Parents of students at state schools were more likely to say there were things they would like to change about their child's education while those with a child at a state-integrated school were more likely to disagree or not be sure about this. Again there was a tendency for relatively more Asian parents to be unsure about this.

Changes parents would like to see, as shown in the next table, would primarily address the issues raised in the previous questions—for example better communication about progress or wanting smaller class sizes. Also mentioned were wanting a wider choice in academic curriculum, or an

emphasis on non-academic work (both 1 percent). Small numbers of parents (less than 1 percent) wanted streaming of classes, more emphasis on school policy, or a change in the NCEA.

Table 118 **Aspects of child's schooling that parents would like to change**

Aspect	(n=503) %
Does not want any aspect changed/unsure about changing anything	43
More communication about progress	31
Smaller class sizes	31
More individual help for students	31
More information to support learning at home	26
More accountability	18
More teaching resources	17
More emphasis on academic work	17
More emphasis on values	16
More challenging work	15
More use of technology	13
More emphasis on physical education/sport	7

State school parents were more likely to want smaller classes. Parents of students in decile 1 and 2 schools were more likely to want their child to have more challenging work, and more teaching resources. Together with decile 3 and 4 parents they were also more likely to want more emphasis on academic work.

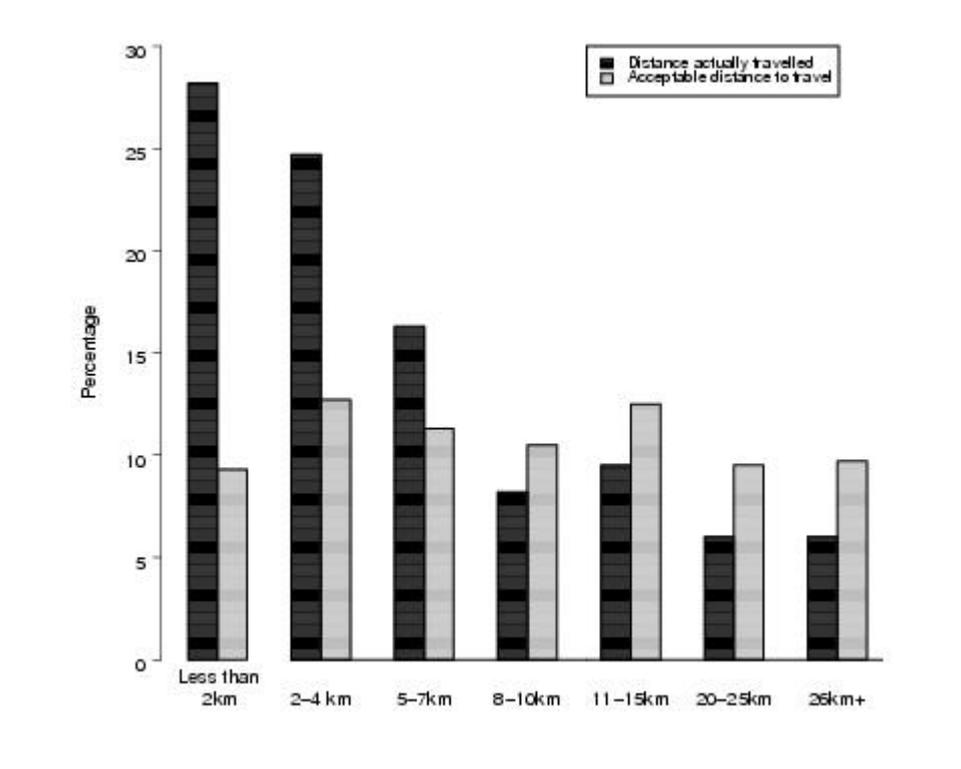
Parental choice of school

Just over half the parents said the school was their school of first choice and was the closest school to their home (54 percent). For another 30 percent the school was also the school of first choice but was not closest to their home. Fifteen percent of parents said their child was not attending their school of first choice. Factors preventing students from attending a school of first choice were an enrolment scheme or school zoning (7 percent), that the child had refused to attend the chosen school (4 percent), and cost and transport issues (both 3 percent). Two parents (less than 1 percent) said that the school was reluctant to cater for their child's special needs.

Students attending the school of first choice closest to their home were more likely to be at state schools, and at minor urban schools or secondary urban schools. Those attending a school of first choice not closest to their home were more likely to be at major urban schools, at state-integrated schools, and at decile 9 or 10 schools. Students attending decile 1 or 2 schools were more likely not to have been able to attend a school of first choice.

The next figure compares the actual distances students were travelling to school with the distances parents were prepared to let them travel. Over a quarter of the students were travelling less than 2 kilometres to school, while at the opposite extreme some were travelling considerable distances. It seems that many parents would be prepared to have their children travel further to school than they currently do.

Figure 30 Actual and acceptable distances travelled to school



Students attending the school of first choice closest to their home were more likely to be travelling less than 2 kilometres to school. Students attending a school of first choice that was not closest to their home were more likely to be travelling between 5 and 7 kilometres. Students attending state-integrated schools were more likely to travel distances greater than 5 kilometres. Interestingly, those who were attending a school that was not their first choice were more likely to be travelling 20–25 kilometres to school.

The next table shows the mode of transport used to get to school. In view of concerns about the physical fitness of today’s adolescents, it is interesting to note that not quite half the students walked or cycled to school under their own steam. The rest were almost evenly divided between those who travelled by car—with a few having their own vehicle—and those who travelled by public transport or school buses. Also mentioned were being part of a car pool (2 percent), travelling with another adult (1 percent), and living at the school (under 1 percent).

Table 119 Ways children travel to school

How child gets to school	(n=503) %
Walk	38
Parent's car	37
Bus provided by school	26
Public transport	14
Cycle	10
Own car	4

Students at state-integrated schools were more likely to travel to school in a parent's car or to use public transport while students at state schools were more likely to walk.

Future education plans

Sixty-six percent of parents said their child had decided to go to a tertiary institution when they left their current school, and 2 percent said they would go to another school. Some parents thought their child was still undecided (20 percent) or they were not sure if a decision had been made (12 percent). Parents of students in decile 1 or 2 schools were more likely to be unsure about their child's next educational move.

Summary

The main form of contact between parents and secondary teachers was by way of formal parent teacher interviews. Parent participation in such events varied considerably, and was generally higher in high decile and state-integrated schools. A range of more *ad hoc* and informal types of contact also took place and most parents were satisfied that at least some of their child's teachers would be available to talk with them if they wanted this opportunity. Parents of students in lower decile schools were more likely not to talk with teachers, and to express discomfort about the prospect of doing so.

Parents perceived less contact between themselves and the board than trustees have reported. Few said they received newsletters, despite this being a main method of board consultation. Nevertheless about a third of the parents felt their level of contact with the board was sufficient.

Some parents were sending their children to schools that were not the closest to their home. This choice was more likely to be exercised by parents of students in high decile and state-integrated schools. Just over half the students did attend the school closest to their home and many of them walked or cycled to school.

Around half the parents rated the school's learning programme and their child's learning progress as good or very good. Less than 15 percent of parents saw either of these aspects as poor or very poor. This general level of satisfaction did not preclude parents from identifying aspects they

would like to change. These included gaining more information in a range of areas such as progress and achievement, assessment including the NCEA, and school planning and board decisions.

A majority of parents intended the child to move on to tertiary education when they left school.

17. Schools and government

Introduction

During the last few years there has been a gradual shift in the focus of the Ministry of Education. While it was initially envisaged as a policy-making body that would provide advice to the government, it has increasingly adopted an active role in the provision of advice and support to the school sector as well. Many services that were formerly provided by the Department of Education are now largely provided by the MoE, and it has undergone considerable expansion to accommodate the extra work, at both regional and national levels. This section reports on perceptions of these expanded services.

We have already noted the tension between the requirement for schools to be both responsive to national education policy initiatives and accountable to their local community. Section 14 reported on the early interpretations of the school self-review process which is one approach currently being taken to focus schools on the achievement of national goals for improved educational outcomes—within the specificity of each local context. From time to time the call is made for context-independent national testing to be used as an instrument of accountability. This section reports on sector responses to that proposal.

The Education Review Office (ERO) is directly responsible for monitoring schools' progress on meeting government goals for publicly funded education but it cannot tell schools what to do and until recently made no attempt to provide advice at the same time as it monitored compliance. In 2002 the focus of ERO reviews changed to an “assess and assist” approach to the review process. In introducing this new focus, ERO acknowledged the tension between accountability and devolution, and sought to diffuse this tension by explaining what it could and could not do to help schools achieve their own educational goals:

The term ‘assess and assist’ reflects the balance between ERO’s twin purposes of accountability and improvement, but in some ways it is misleading because it implies that ‘assess’ and ‘assist’ are two separate activities that take place sequentially. It has led to a view in some parts of the education sector that ‘assess’ is what happens during reviews and ‘assist’ is what happens afterwards. ERO’s view is that the best way that it can assist schools is through its reviews. It intends to carry out reviews that are focused on schools’ needs and concerns, give schools the best possible information and identify strategies for improvement that are useful to schools. In ERO’s view, ‘assess and assist’ is a single process that is part of the role of an external evaluator. Activities that fall outside the scope of evaluation, such as providing ongoing advice and support, are not part of ERO’s role. In practical terms this

means that ERO will be involved in developing recommendations and formulating action plans, but it does not intend to be involved in the implementation of those plans⁵⁵. (www.ero.govt.nz/EdRevInfo/Schedrevs/SchoolFramework.htm#Introduction).

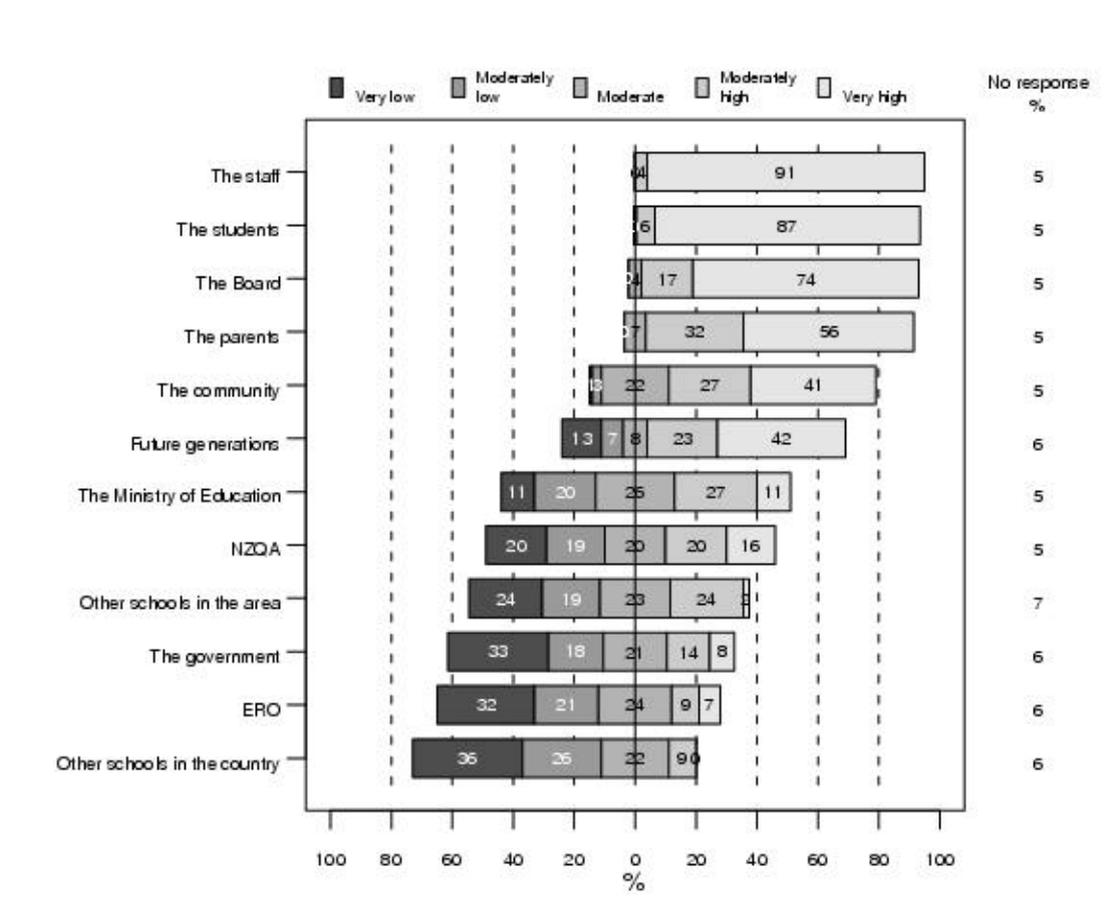
This section also reports on the manner in which the refocused “assess and assist” approach has been received in schools.

To whom do people in schools feel responsible?

Principals, trustees, and teachers were asked to rate the responsibility they felt to a range of groups, as they carried out the work related to their role. The next three figures show the pattern of responses made by each group.

While there are only slight differences between the top-rated groups to whom principals, trustees, and teachers felt most responsible, it is interesting that principals were the only group to rank the staff of the school in top place. Teachers and trustees felt most responsible to the students.

Figure 31 Groups to whom principals feel responsible



⁵⁵ This quote was accessed as four short paragraphs which we have condensed into one.

There was relative unanimity about the six groups to whom the majority of principals, trustees, and teachers felt they had moderate to high degrees of responsibility. These were students, staff, parents, the BoT, and the community. Interestingly, teachers gave a slightly higher rating to future generations.

Figure 32 Groups to whom teachers feel responsible

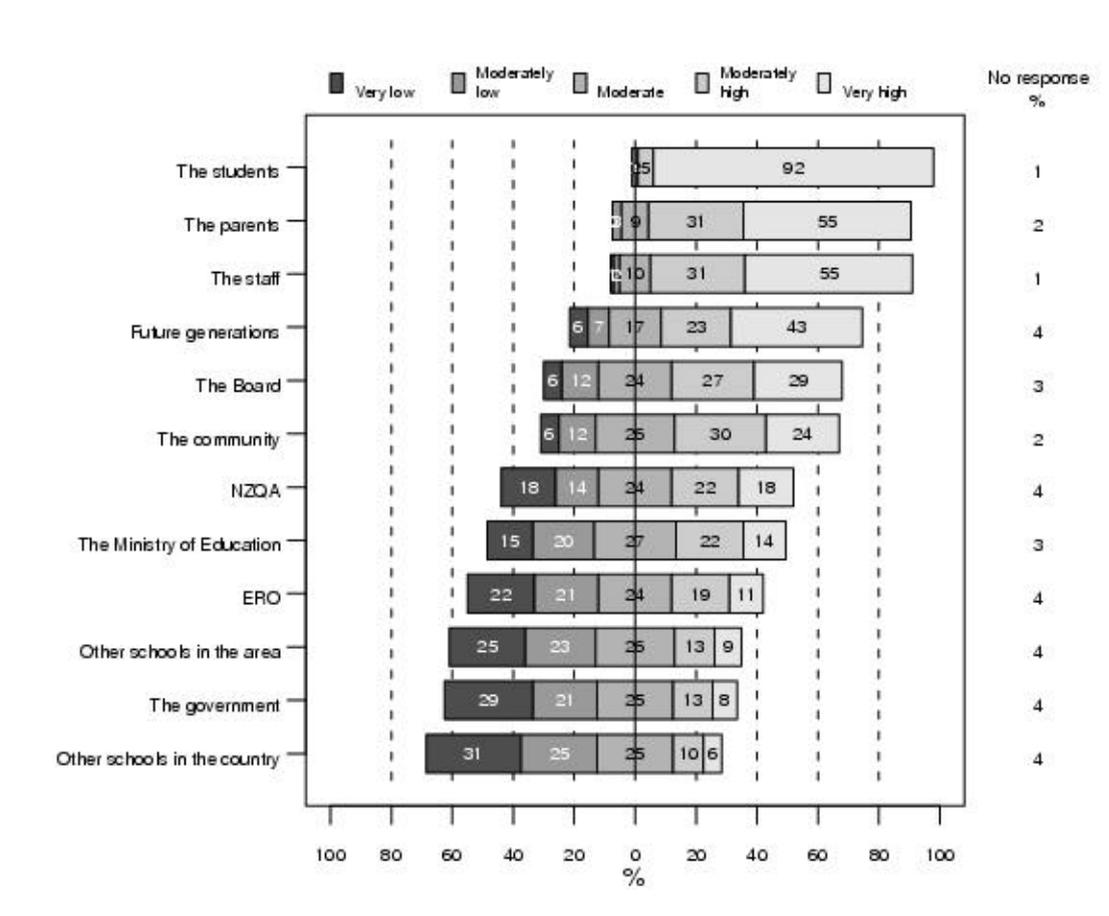
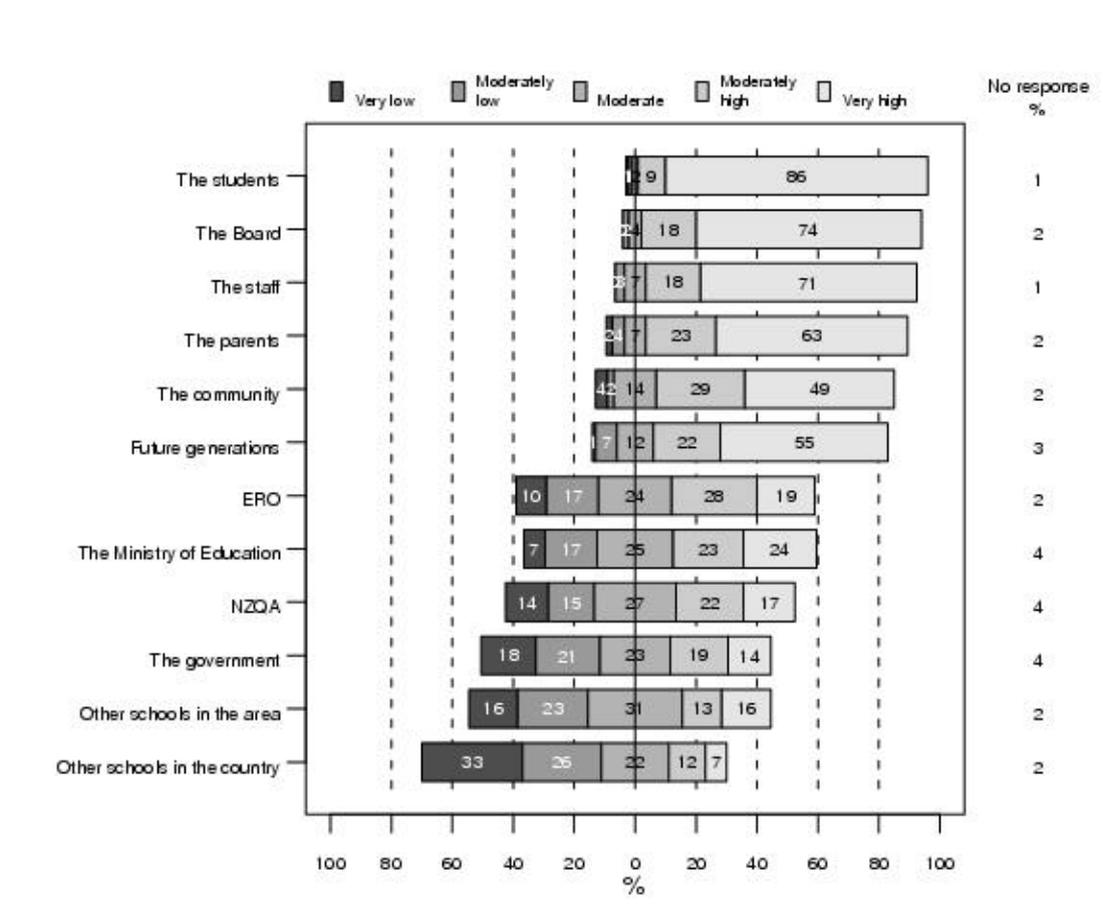


Figure 33 Groups to whom trustees feel responsible



For all the remaining categories, a higher number of moderately low/low responsibility responses were made, although a number of individuals did express moderate and high levels of responsibility to these groups. Principals, trustees, and teachers felt least responsible overall to other schools in the country. It is food for thought that the agencies that monitor aspects of schools' accountability for their work were ranked below the "top six" (ERO, NZQA, MoE) along with the government. Principals, trustees, and teachers all ranked responsibility to the government in their bottom three places. Overall, trustees felt more responsible to ERO than did the principals. Relationships with the MoE and with ERO are discussed next.

Principals' relations with the Ministry of Education

The next two figures compare principals' ratings of services provided by the national and regional offices of the MoE. They show that, on the whole, principals perceived they had better relations with their regional MoE office than with the national office. The regional office was more likely to be seen as approachable, timely with responses, and as providing good or very good support and advice. As for the government agencies discussed in Section 6, principals were less sure about MoE involvement in education sector policy development and change, with 26 percent not

responding or not sure about national provision, and 31 percent not responding or not sure about local provision of this service.

Figure 34 Principals' perceptions of national MoE services

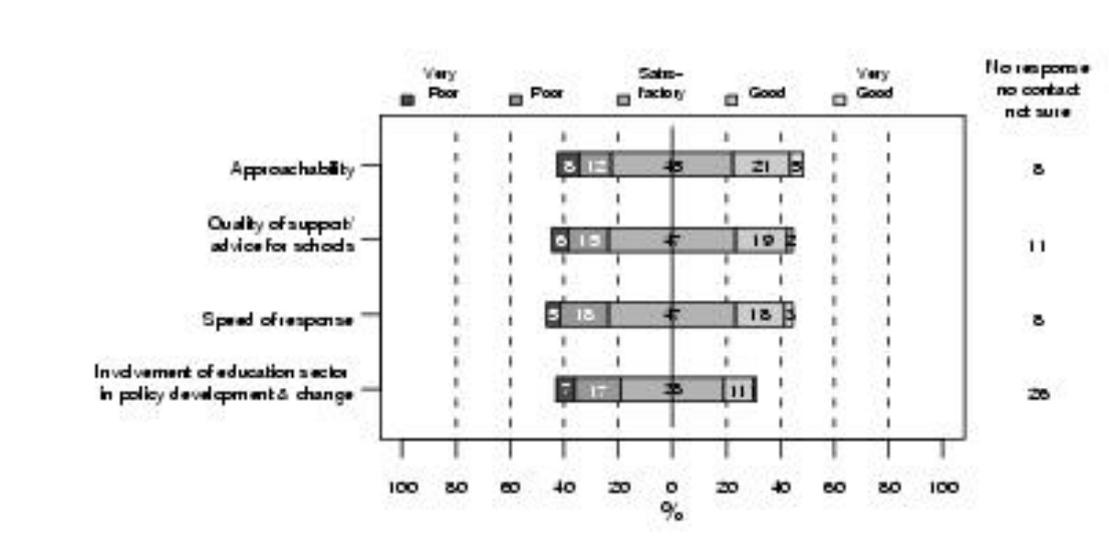
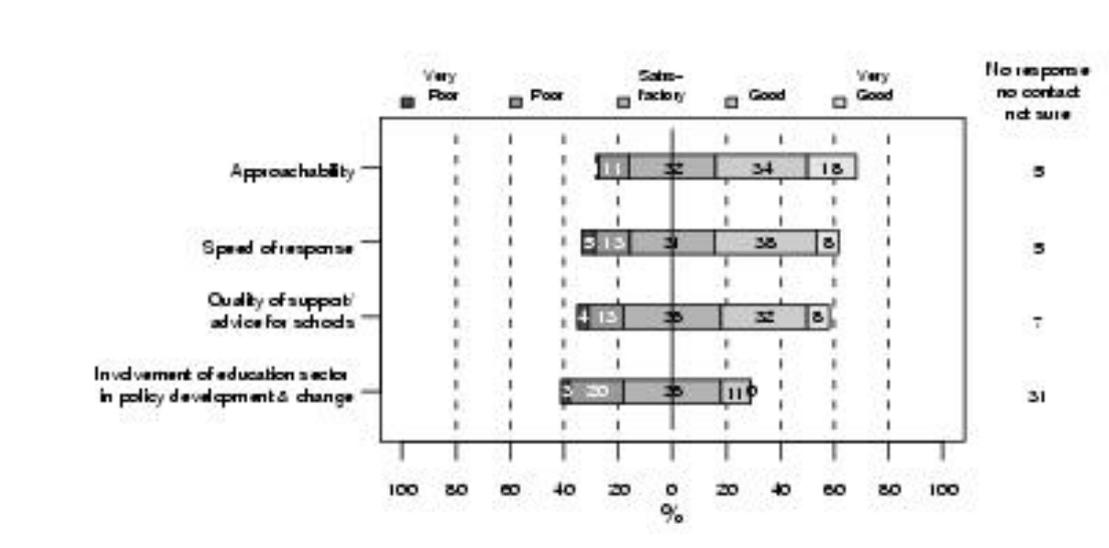


Figure 35 Principals' perceptions of local MoE services



Meeting the various information demands generated by the Ministry of Education's planning and reporting requirements is an important aspect of principals' administrative tasks. Section 11 reported that, on average, administrative tasks took up the largest chunk—about 29 percent—of a principal's working time. Section 14 reported that some principals appeared to interpret the school self-review process as essentially a new compliance tool—and therefore presumably as yet another administrative task. How promptly, then, did principals meet the various information demands the MoE placed on them? Twenty-nine percent of principals said they always met deadlines and 56 percent said they met most of them. Seven percent said they met deadlines if

they thought these were important to the school, and 3 percent said they met them if they had time.

When principals needed to get satisfactory answers from the MoE about school funding, or staff resources, many tried several lines of approach. More of them negotiated with the local MoE office (64 percent) than the national office (53 percent). Many turned to supporting professional organisations such as the PPTA or SPANZ (42 percent). Some approached their local Member of Parliament for help (31 percent) and some went directly to the Minister of Education (20 percent). In some cases the principal and/or trustees discussed the situation with district committee representatives for capital property expenditure (22 percent). Fewer turned to people of national influence (14 percent) or the media (12 percent).

Teachers' relations with the Ministry of Education

Many more teachers than principals either did not respond, or had no contact, or were not sure of the quality of the range of services provided by the national office of the MoE. The average percentage of non-response for the provided factors was 57 percent for teachers and 13 percent for principals. Unlike the principals, who perceived they had better relations with the regional MoE, teachers were even more unsure about the services provided by this agency (average non-response rate = 73 percent).

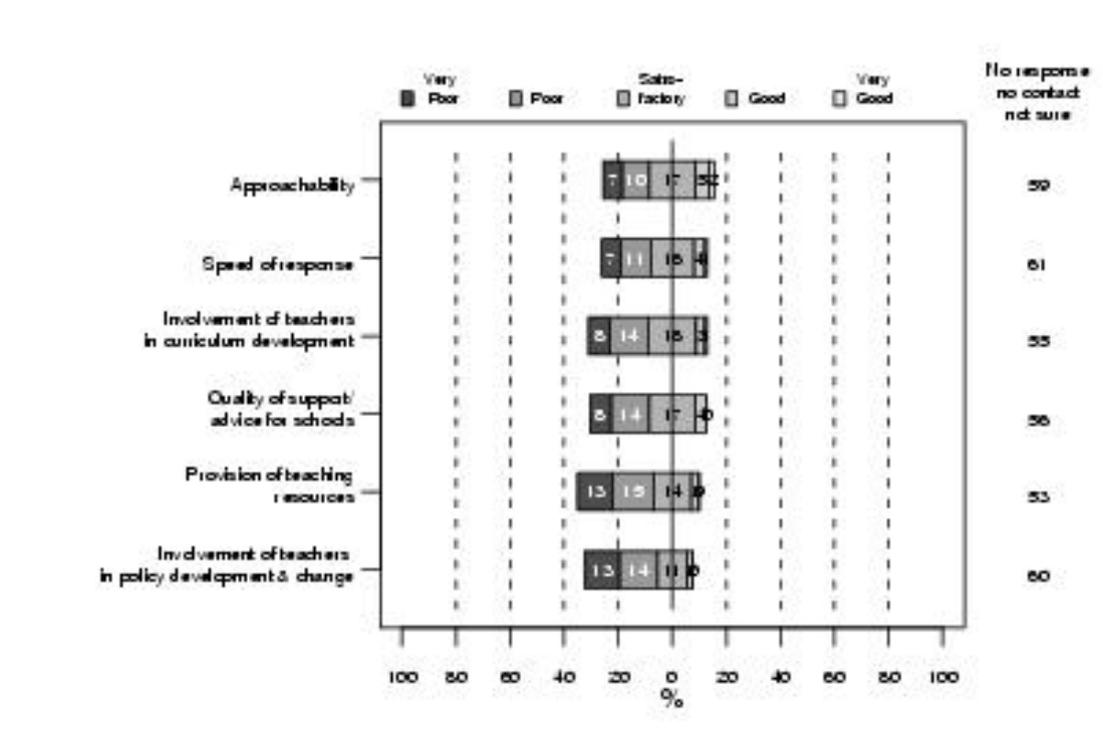
The teacher survey asked about two additional services provided by the national office of the MoE. One of these was the provision of teaching resources, in reference to the MoE's role in funding the development of resources to support specific aspects of professional development. Examples include the development of exemplars of good assessment practice for each of the seven curriculum areas, and materials to support the implementation of standards-based assessment for the NCEA. These materials are posted on the TKI website where they are freely accessible to all teachers. The second additional aspect concerned the involvement of teachers in curriculum development, which was part of the *Curriculum Review* process, and has been an integral aspect of the subsequent, ongoing *Curriculum Project*.⁵⁶

The next figure shows that teachers who did respond were more negative than the principals about the services provided by the national MoE. No combination of good/very good responses totalled more than 7 percent and most were 5 percent or lower. The highest levels of dissatisfaction were expressed for teaching resources, perhaps because some MoE-provided NCEA exemplars were proving problematic at this point of the overall implementation process (Hipkins & Vaughan, 2002). We also found that dissatisfaction with involvement in policy development and change during 2003 was strongly correlated with some teachers' negative views of the NCEA (see

⁵⁶ It should be noted that more widespread efforts to involve as many teachers as possible in the discussion process have been a feature of the MoE curriculum team's 2004 work – that is, *after* the time this survey was taken. See www.minedu.govt.nz for details.

Section 12). Responses for the regional MoE showed a similar negative trend but, as already noted, there was a very high rate of non-response.

Figure 36 Teachers' perceptions of national MoE services



Teachers in secondary urban schools were more likely to say they had no contact with their regional MoE office or were unsure about the quality of their services. By contrast, teachers in rural schools were more likely to say support provided by the MoE regional office was good or very good.

Trustees' relations with the Ministry of Education

Nearly a quarter of the trustees said they did not know about the kinds of contacts that had taken place between their board and the local MoE office. Types of responses that trustees were aware of are shown in the next table.

Table 120 Contact between boards and regional MoE offices

Kind of contact	(n=180) %
General information about policy changes	40
Discussions on funding and resources	38
Discussions on issues for school	33
Don't know	23
Discussions on new planning and monitoring requirements	19
Discussions on area reorganisation/area demographics	17

Trustees from state-integrated schools were more likely to have contacted the local MoE office for general information about policy changes, but were less likely to want local MoE advice if they encountered a problem (see below). Trustees in decile 1–4 schools were more likely to have had discussions with the local MoE office on issues for the school. Those in decile 1 or 2 schools were also more likely to have consulted their MoE branch on local and regional changes, while trustees in decile 7 or 8 schools were less likely to have done this.

While some trustees may not have been aware of contacts in the past, there was more awareness that the local office of the MoE would be able to provide advice and support if this was called for in problem situations. The services provided seemed to be seen by many trustees as a backstop rather than as a source of advice about routine board work.

Table 121 **Contact desired between trustees and regional MoE office**

Kind of contact	(n=180) %
Support if encounter problem	61
Advice if encounter problem	59
Consultation on any local/regional changes	56
Advice on responsibilities as board	42
Advice on policy issues	34
Support in appointing principal	12
Advice on appointing principal	11
None	6

Trustees were asked a hypothetical question about their roles if regional MoE offices were to be given more responsibility for allocating resources to local schools. Trustees thought that they should be included in advisory groups for the local area as a whole (51 percent) or in some decision-making group (41 percent). Fewer thought trustees should be advocates for their own school only (27 percent), or have no role beyond their own school (13 percent).

Education Review Office

ERO's new-style "assess and assist" reviews began in Term One 2002. At the time of the survey (mid-2003) 45 percent of principals said their school had experienced a new-style ERO review and 2 percent were not sure. Eighteen percent had taken the option to include a "friend of the school" as part of this review and 26 percent had not done so. The overall response to the new style of reviews was positive. Thirty-eight percent of principals said the impact was very helpful or helpful. Just 2 percent said it had no impact and 6 percent found it unhelpful.

Responses from teachers showed a similar pattern. Forty-three percent said their school had received a new-style ERO review. More teachers than principals were not sure (17 percent). Like the principals, teachers were generally positive about the overall impact of the new style of reviews, with 29 percent finding the process helpful or very helpful. Six percent said there was no

impact and 5 percent said the process was unhelpful. A majority of teachers who had taken part in reviews had seen the ERO report (32 percent) compared to those who had not (11 percent).

Principals and teachers were asked to identify how the ERO review had been helpful. There was a large non-response rate to this question (principals, 63 percent; teachers, 72 percent). For those who did see the review as helpful or very helpful, there was a shared view that the most helpful factor was the affirmation of current practice (principals, 86 percent; teachers, 66 percent). Other factors identified were that the review provided an objective view of the school (principals, 80 percent; teachers, 57 percent), that it reinforced community confidence in the school (principals, 74 percent; teachers, 50 percent), or that it provided impetus for positive changes in the school's programmes (principals, 51 percent; teachers, 54 percent).

Teachers in decile 9 and 10 schools appeared to have a more positive view of the ERO experience. They were more likely to say the ERO review had provided a positive impetus for changes to programmes, that it had affirmed current practice, and that it had provided an objective view of the school.

The few respondents who found the ERO review unhelpful said this was because ERO did not understand the school (principals, 3 percent; teachers, 2 percent) or that they did not have enough time in the school (principals, 3 percent; teachers, 2 percent). Some thought ERO needed to find something negative to say (principals, 1 percent; teachers, 3 percent) or that the ERO team focused on things that were not important to the school (principals, 1 percent; teachers, 2 percent). Other factors mentioned by a single principal included that the review unsettled the staff and school, that the review methodology was poor, that preconceptions on the part of an ERO reviewer influenced the outcomes, or that there was poor conduct on the part of ERO officers.

In the schools that had been reviewed, 12 percent of principals and 5 percent of teachers said they had made major changes. Twenty-nine percent of principals and 21 percent of teachers said they made minor changes. Given these relatively low percentages, there was a large non-response rate to the next question, which asked about the types of changes that were made (principals, 59 percent; teachers, 75 percent). Areas of change identified by those who did respond are shown in the next table. While a somewhat larger proportion of principals than teachers identified changes, their rankings of frequency of occurrence of each type of change were broadly in agreement. Both groups were most likely to cite changes in the analysis of student achievement data (which would provide a strong source of evidence for the school self-review process) and performance management changes. Also mentioned were discipline changes (2 percent of teachers; 1 percent of principals) and communication with parents (2 percent of teachers).

Table 122 **Changes made as the result of an ERO review**

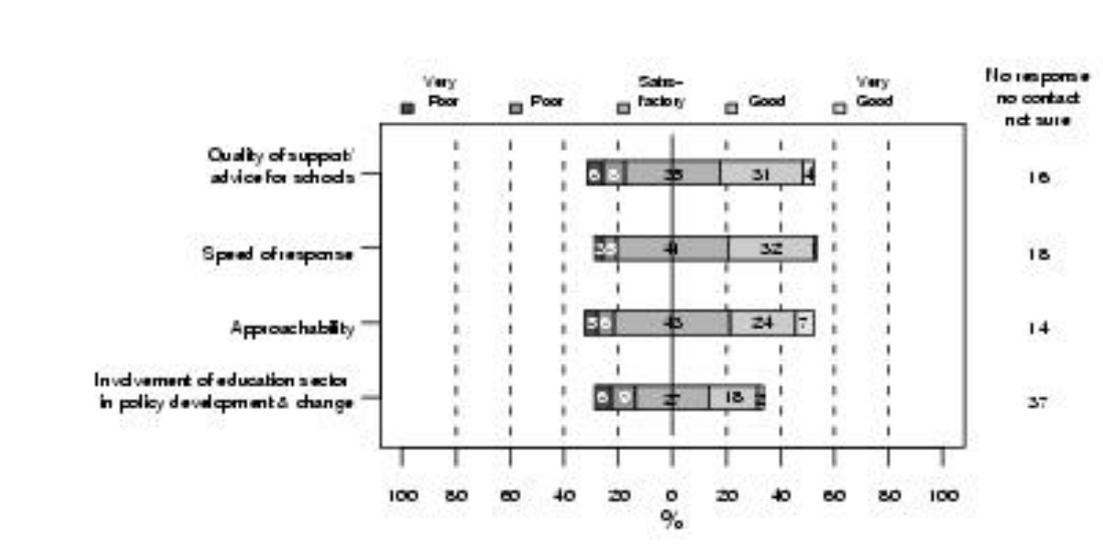
Aspect of change	Principals (n=95) %	Teachers (n=744) %
Analysing student achievement data	22	7
Performance management	15	7
Curriculum	12	5
Reporting student achievement to the board	11	4
Assessment	10	8
Strategic planning	10	7
Professional development	8	3
Board self-review	8	2
Personnel	7	3
Work with a particular group of students	5	5
Reporting student achievement to parents	4	4
Governance	2	4
Health and safety	2	3

Of those schools that had had a new-style ERO review, 22 percent of principals and 19 percent of teachers said the review was reported in the media. Others said it was not reported (principals, 14 percent; teachers, 7 percent) and some did not know (principals, 9 percent; teachers, 14 percent). The impact of this was more likely to be seen as positive (principals, 18 percent; teachers, 11 percent) than negative (principals, 1 percent; teachers, 2 percent). Principals sent the community summary page to parents (26 percent), put it on the school's website (16 percent), or in a school information pack (13 percent), put it on display at the school (10 percent), or discussed it at a community meeting (3 percent).

Principals' ratings of services provided by ERO

Principals rated ERO satisfactory or better for most aspects of the services provided. Again they were more uncertain about ERO's role in education sector policy development and change.

Figure 37 Principals' perceptions of services provided by ERO



Teachers were not asked to complete Likert ratings of ERO's services.

Government funding and accountability for educational outcomes

In the last few years there has been an increasing emphasis on making decisions about both educational policy and “best practice” that are based on evidence such as research findings. Research is also used to determine whether the nation is getting “value for money” from the government’s investment in education—that is, it serves accountability as well as decision-making functions. This section explores two issues that can arise in this dual research/accountability context.

Should New Zealand have a national testing programme?

Like most other OECD nations, New Zealand takes part in large international studies such as TIMSS and PISA where comparative achievement data are gathered.⁵⁷ The focus is on international comparisons and a selection of schools and students are sampled in each country. Since 1995 New Zealand has also had a National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP) that assesses a large national sample of Year 4 and Year 8 students in each curriculum area on a 4-yearly cycle, with a focus on reporting growth in educational achievement across time at a national level. Unlike the largely paper-based international tests, NEMP assessments are intended to draw a wider range of best assessment practices and teachers are involved in the development,

⁵⁷ A range of findings from both initiatives can be accessed from www.minedu.govt.nz, or as attractively produced printed reports.

trialling, and administration of tasks, and in the analysis of student responses. As a matter of policy, NEMP does not produce information about individual students, teachers, or schools.⁵⁸ The new NCEA qualification (see Section 12) provides another means of generating comparative data about educational achievement. With an emphasis on what individual students know and can do, its use for comparative accountability purposes is more complex and more problematic than was the use of the more traditional norm-referenced qualifications that preceded it.⁵⁹

Notwithstanding the considerable government investment in the production of this range of types of achievement data, the call for standardised national testing of all students continues to be made from time to time. Principals, trustees, and teachers were all asked if they thought the government should set specific minimum standards of achievement for students and require each school to report to the government and to parents on how well students in the school are meeting those standards. The next table compares their responses. Principals were the group most inclined to reject this suggestion outright. Many responses were ambivalent, with 38 percent of principals, 37 percent of teachers, and 48 percent of trustees saying it depended either on the standards set or on how they were measured. Trustees were the group most likely to agree with national testing, albeit that only 19 percent of them did so. More teachers than principals or trustees were unsure.

Table 123 **Should the government set standards for which schools are accountable?**

View expressed	Principals % (n=95)	Teachers % (n=744)	Trustees % (n=180)
No	44	22	20
It depends on how the standards are measured	26	23	35
It depends on the standards	12	14	13
Yes	8	14	19
Not sure	6	22	12

Schools' involvement in the generation of "evidence-based" policy and practice

Schools are increasingly being drawn into greater research involvement as evaluative evidence for the success of various initiatives is sought. There has been a trend to appoint researchers as evaluators of MoE initiatives as an integral part of new projects and innovations. The MoE has also been proactive in promoting an evidence-based approach to its provision of advice to all schools for ongoing practice, primarily via a range of commissioned "Best Evidence Syntheses" (BESs).⁶⁰ One way of supporting the ongoing generation of such evidence has been via the government-funded Teaching and Learning Research Initiative (TLRI) which requires researchers

⁵⁸ Additional information can be obtained from www.nemp.otago.ac.nz

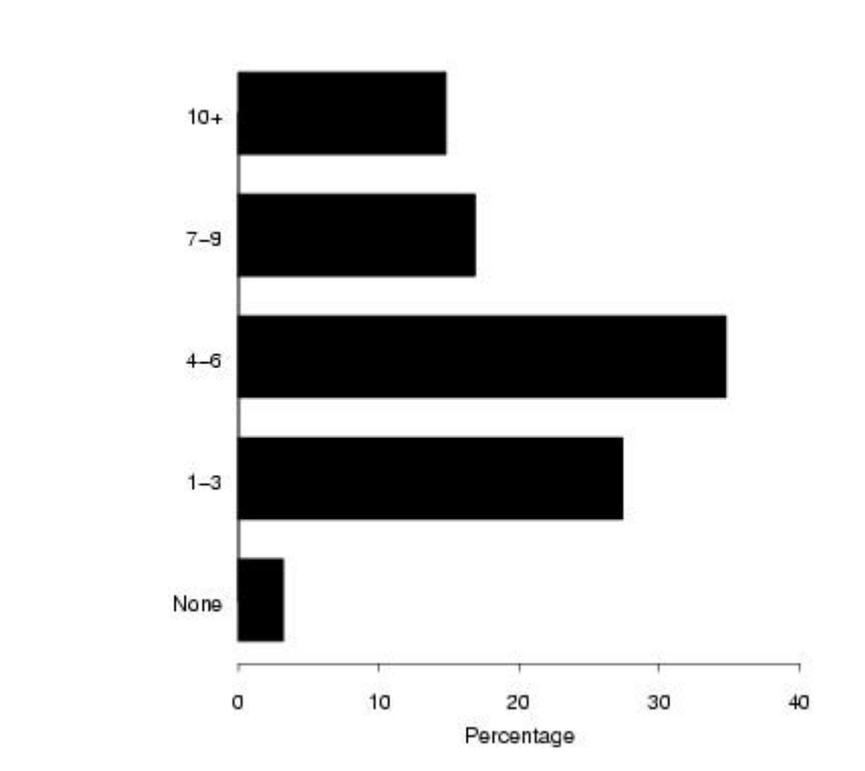
⁵⁹ For some discussion of this see Section 6 of the second *Learning Curves* report on www.nzcer.org.nz

⁶⁰ Published syntheses can be accessed at www.minedu.govt.nz

applying for funding to demonstrate established partnerships with schools or other education providers as a precondition of application.⁶¹

How is all this research and evidence gathering impacting on secondary schools? The next graph shows the number of research projects with which each of the survey schools was involved in 2002. Very few schools were not part of any research project. For some the commitment to a number of projects suggests a considerable impact on the life of the school (although we note that “research” can be local/small-scale or national/large-scale).

Figure 38 **Number of research projects/surveys that principals participated in during 2002**



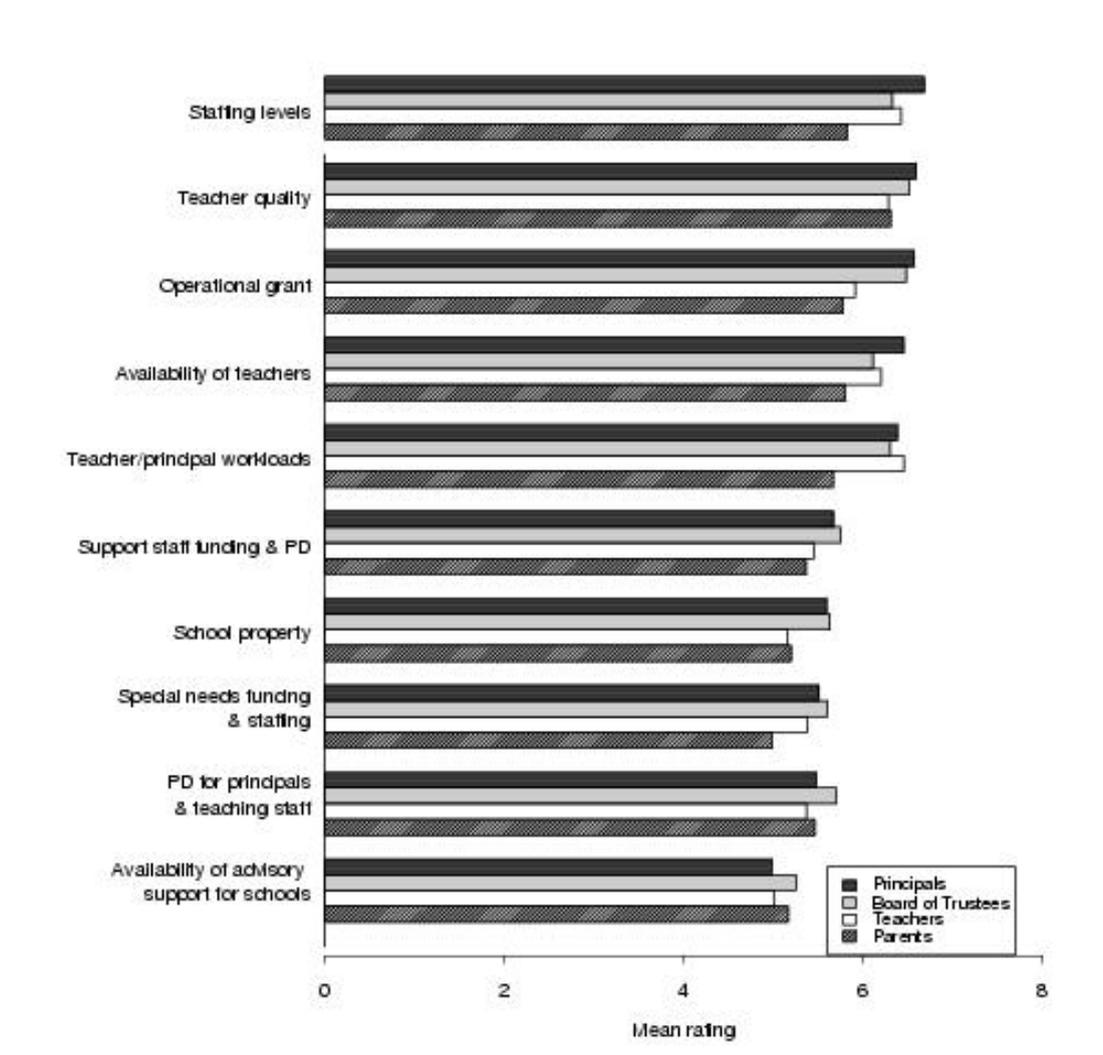
What should be given priority by the government?

Principals, teachers, trustees, and parents were all asked to assign a priority rating from 1 (extremely low) to 7 (extremely high) to 10 areas for potential educational action/change. The next figure shows the mean rankings for all four groups. There is a remarkable degree of unanimity in the identification of issues that should be given priority by the government, with staffing levels and teacher quality emerging as the top priority areas. In the light of other findings in this survey, this seems justified. We have reported a rising “blip” in secondary school rolls

⁶¹ Information about the fund can be accessed at www.nzcer.org.nz

(Section 15) and a shortage of well-qualified staff in some schools (Section 4). Although not rated as a “top three” issue elsewhere in the survey, teacher and principal workloads were ranked fifth of the 10 areas provided for this question.⁶²

Figure 39 Mean priority rating for issues the government should address



Trustees in schools of more than 300 students were more likely to see the school’s operational grant as an extremely high priority while those in schools of less than 300 students were more likely to see it as only a moderately high priority.

⁶² The areas to include were determined in consultation with others in the secondary sector.

Summary

People in schools put local responsibilities above national ones. Principals, trustees, and teachers all rated their responsibility to the government and its various education agencies lower than their responsibility to each other and to students, parents, and others in their local community.

Staffing levels and teacher quality were most often seen by principals, teachers, trustees, and parents as the issues to which the government should give priority. There were very low levels of unqualified support for the introduction of standardised national testing.

The change to “assess and assist” ERO reviews has been well received in secondary schools. Most schools that had undergone such a review found the process helpful, largely because it affirmed current practice or provided an objective view of the school. Some schools used ERO findings to change their processes for analysis of student achievement data or performance management and some cited findings in their promotional material.

Very few schools were not involved in some type of educational research in 2002 and a number of schools were involved in multiple projects.

Principals and trustees would be more likely to turn to their local MoE office for advice and support than to approach the national office. More than half the teachers seemed to be unaware of (or would not comment on) the role of the MoE in the provision of resources and advice for their work.

The policy work that underpins the setting of educational goals, with the associated implementation of various initiatives and associated compliance procedures, did not appear to be well understood. This and other sections have reported high levels of uncertainty about the involvement of a whole range of agencies in national policy discussions and decision making (MoE, ERO, NZSTA, NZTC, Group Special Education, School Support Services, CYFS, and so on.)

Principals, teachers, trustees, and parents are broadly in agreement on educational issues that should be given priority by the government. Staffing levels and teacher quality top the list, followed by the operational grant, availability of teachers, and teacher and principal workloads.

18. Looking back, looking forward

This is the first systematic national survey of secondary schools in New Zealand to have been carried out in over a decade. It marks the beginning of what we intend to become a regular process of taking the pulse of secondary schools. In much the same way as the NZCER national surveys of primary schools have charted the progress of the reforms that began as *Tomorrow's Schools*, it is our intention that the secondary surveys capture ongoing changes that accompany the major curriculum and assessment reforms currently underway. We also hope to chart the success of policy initiatives intended to close substantial equity gaps between New Zealand's highest and lowest achieving secondary school students, and to better prepare students for productive participation in the "knowledge economy". The groundwork has been laid here by documenting key aspects of current practice, against which future shifts can be compared. In this final section we draw together findings that contribute to several themes relevant to this ongoing project.

This survey also contributes to the ongoing work of monitoring the evolving reform of New Zealand schools' governance and management processes. Shortly after the release of this report, the national surveys of primary school and of early childhood education will be released. It is intended that further comparative analysis of patterns in primary and secondary schooling will follow.

To schools that hath shall be given

The results of this survey paint a clear picture of very different learning experiences and opportunities for students in schools of different deciles. Like Ritchie (2004) we have found that "to schools that hath shall be given". We found many respects in which state-integrated schools showed similar patterns to decile 9 and 10 schools so the following comments could equally well apply to them in most cases.

Students and teachers in high decile schools generally have access to better resources than those in low decile schools. Their parents are charged higher school fees and on the whole are more likely to pay them. International students add another cultural dimension to these schools but more importantly they are a source of locally raised funds that can be used to buy additional teacher support and also extra resources. Classrooms and other facilities in high decile schools are likely to be in better condition and are less likely to be subjected to vandalism. There will probably be trustees on the board with the expertise to see that good property maintenance is both affordable and sustained.

While students in low decile schools may not be at the school of their choice, those in high decile schools often travel considerable distances, with associated high costs to their parents. High decile schools are often in a position to restrict student entry and parents of their students are more likely to have their child's next educational steps mapped out in advance. "Boomerang" and transient students are more likely to be in low decile schools. One positive aspect of this situation is that low decile secondary schools are more likely to have good contacts with each other and with local primary schools to share information about students.

Students in high decile schools are likely to have better opportunities to learn. While their classes are likely to be larger if they attend very big schools, behaviour and discipline are less likely to be issues that distract them and their teachers from their work. Their schools are more likely to attract well-qualified staff when vacancies arise, and retaining good staff is less of an issue. Accordingly, students are less likely to have time without an appropriate teacher. This trend may well be exacerbated in the immediate future as the "baby blip" swells lower secondary school rolls, especially if teachers follow through on stated intentions to move out of teaching within 5 years at anything like the levels reported in Section 10.

There is also a trend for provisionally registered teachers in high decile schools to be better supported in their advice and guidance programmes as they complete the final stages of their initial teacher education. All the teachers are more likely to have taken advantage of a range of professional development opportunities, including one-off seminars and conferences, and the students are more likely to have been offered additional chances to learn in out-of-school programmes paid for by their parents. Principals and teachers in high decile schools are more likely to be positive about ERO reviews.

Parents in high decile schools are more likely to be in communication with the teachers about their children's progress and their children are more likely to stay at the same secondary school for all of their education, which in turn is associated with staying until Year 13. Fewer parents attend school report evenings at low decile schools and they are more likely to be uncomfortable about doing so, despite the fact that they are more likely to be dissatisfied with the education their children are receiving. Parents of students in low decile schools are more likely to want more challenging work for their children. They are also more likely to say they need more information about the NCEA, although in general they are supportive of it. Low decile schools are also less likely to gain parental help they need, often because parents are too busy working. And so another potential avenue of home/school communication is circumscribed. The higher the decile the greater community support for the school is perceived to be.

When trustees attempt to communicate with parents, it is most likely to be by written means, but newsletters are more likely to be read by parents of students in high decile schools. Parents of students at low decile schools are more likely to be dissatisfied with their level of contact with boards of trustees. Trustees of boards in low decile schools are more likely to have been in conflict with each other as they face the challenging issues they must overcome. Property development and the school roll are likely to be ongoing issues for them.

Collectively these differences paint a strong multifaceted pattern of relative advantage for students who attend high decile schools.

Differences related to school size

While decisions taken in government-initiated area reviews are not necessarily directly related to school size, the uneconomic maintenance of smaller schools has been a strong contributing factor. As for decile-related differences, we found a number of patterns of difference between small and large secondary schools. Just as there were similarities between patterns of responses from people in decile 9 and 10 and state-integrated schools, there are many similarities and connections between responses from people in small (less than 300 students) and in rural schools.

As might be expected, teachers in small schools are more likely to be teaching smaller classes. In theory, this should make it easier to effect curriculum change (since class size was seen as a major barrier to doing so). However a possible lack of within-school opportunities for professional learning may mitigate against being able to capitalise this advantage. Teachers in small schools were less likely to have collectively undertaken school-wide professional development for the NCEA implementation, over and above their attendance at jumbo days. There were hints that professional interactions between them are more likely to be problematic, such that they turn to teachers beyond their own school for advice and support, and they are less likely to have observed each other's teaching. Provisionally registered teachers in these schools are less likely to have been supported with a good-quality advice and guidance programme.

Parents are more likely to be involved in small schools. Along with principals, teachers, and trustees, they are more likely to perceive that a range of people and groups belong to the school's community. There seems to be more contact between small schools in the same area than there is between larger city schools. Teachers are likely to have closer relationships with trustees in small schools, and they are more likely to be involved in strategic planning together. On the other hand, the board is more likely to be struggling than to be on top of the task, and members are likely to lack expertise in areas such as legal and fundraising skills.

Governance and management of secondary schools

In the introduction we noted a trend to recent government recognition that school-site management and governance does need real support: not just for administration, but for teaching and learning. Over the past few years, the MoE has progressively taken up a leading role in designing and funding professional development and teaching resources to support a focus on student achievement. In this, context planning and monitoring have become key roles for boards, with previous governance and management tensions (Wylie, 1999) taking a more minor place in the overall flow of their work. This survey was taken at a time when the change of emphasis was

gathering momentum and it is interesting to see how some aspects of governance/management issues were playing out in practice in 2003.

The tensions from the early years of *Tomorrow's Schools* have not gone away. A quarter of the trustees wanted clearer distinctions between governance and management, and there were some responsibilities that many of them were reluctant to pick up. On the whole they do not want to take responsibility for negotiating the principal's salary and conditions, preferring to have access to some type of shared contract. The overall picture suggests relationships between most principals and boards are strong.

Trustees want more involvement from parents, yet often do not seem to use consultation methods that are likely to ensure they get this. The issues they want to discuss with parents tend to be of a strategic nature, but when parents do want to speak to boards, they are likely to have more prosaic topics in mind. And the reality is that the bulk of the board's time is likely to be spent on managing finances and property maintenance issues—related areas that are challenging when resources have to be stretched.

There is clear evidence that the government focus on closing gaps in achievement patterns has impacted on secondary school strategic planning. Many principals have undertaken professional development related to literacy leadership, and most schools have policies for improving literacy levels. Strengthening achievement in numeracy has received somewhat less attention. The translation of policy into specific strategies for reaching achievement-related goals seems somewhat more problematic. While boards have largely adopted the new planning and review framework, there is a level of suspicion that this is more to the benefit of central government than to the school community. What is more, policies in areas such as raising Māori or Pasifika achievement levels may exist, but they are less likely to be translated into specific achievement targets than are the high-profile areas such as literacy.

Policy and targets are all very well. In the end it is up to teachers to effect changes in practice. They have coped, with varying degrees of willingness, with the implementation the NCEA, and for some this has been a source of ideas for changing classroom practice, or was seen as a major personal achievement of the 2002–2003 year. Teachers who felt they had not coped with the NCEA implementation were likely to have low morale, and this was also associated with general negativity about other aspects of school life, including involvement in policy and planning. ICT-related changes seem to be happening slowly, with full integration into lesson sequences uncommon as yet. In this context of ongoing challenge and change, teachers' perceptions of low levels of support for taking risks in their teaching are of concern.

When the next survey of secondary schools is undertaken policy initiatives such as the planning and review framework and the NCEA may be well bedded in—or schools may have had to cope with yet more widespread change. Whichever is the case, we will be looking for evidence of greater equality of learning opportunities than we have been able to report here.

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Appendix 1: Characteristics of survey responses

Table 124 Principals⁶³

	2002 Ministry School Statistics (n=375) %	2003 Sample School Statistics (n=200) %	2003 Returns (n=95 schools) %
<i>Type</i>			
Composite	16	7	0
Secondary (Year 7–15)	23	30	29
Secondary (Year 9–15)	62	63	71
<i>Size</i>			
1–99	3	2	1
100–299	20	16	11
300–499	22	22	27
500–999	34	38	34
1,000+	21	22	27
<i>Location</i>			
Urban	55	58	57
Secondary urban	10	12	14
Minor urban	22	21	16
Rural	13	9	14
<i>% Māori</i>			
< 8%	23	28	31
8–14%	28	22	24
15–29%	26	30	33
30% +	24	20	12
<i>Authority</i>			
State	76	73	82
State integrated	24	27	18
<i>SES-Decile</i>			
1–2	17	16	13
3–4	21	22	20
5–6	25	24	26
7–8	22	23	21
9–10	15	16	20
<i>Returns</i>			
N		200	95
%			48%

⁶³ There was one principal from each school, so the data in this table represents both the characteristics of the schools, and the school characteristics of the principals.

Table 125 Teachers⁶⁴

	2002	2003	2003
	Ministry School Statistics (n=375) %	Sample School Statistics (n=197 ⁶⁵) %	Returns (n=190 schools) %
<i>Type</i>			
Composite	16	0	0
Secondary (Year 7–15)	23	31	31
Secondary (Year 9–15)	62	69	69
<i>Size</i>			
1–99	3	1	1
100–299	20	14	12
300–499	22	22	22
500–999	34	40	40
1,000+	21	24	25
<i>Location</i>			
Urban	55	57	57
Secondary urban	10	13	12
Minor urban	22	21	21
Rural	13	10	10
<i>% Māori</i>			
< 8%	23	27	27
8–14%	28	22	23
15–29%	26	30	31
30% +	24	20	19
<i>Authority</i>			
State	76	78	79
State integrated	24	22	21
<i>SES-Decile</i>			
1–2	17	14	14
3–4	21	23	23
5–6	25	25	25
7–8	22	22	22
9–10	15	16	16
<i>Returns</i>			
N		1,543	744
%			48%

⁶⁴ There were between one and five teachers sampled from each school (depending on school roll). This table gives the characteristics of the 261 schools from which we obtained teacher responses, rather than the school characteristics of the 430 teachers from whom we obtained responses (in that sense, we would have an over-representation of large schools, and intermediate schools, as these are the schools in which four or five teachers were sampled).

⁶⁵ The teacher sample was selected by the NZEI from their list of members in our sample schools. Seven of our schools had no teachers on the NZEI list and so were not included in our teacher sample.

Table 126 Trustees⁶⁶

	2002	2003	2003
	Ministry School Statistics (n=375) %	Sample School Statistics (n=200) %	Returns (n=137 schools) %
<i>Type</i>			
Composite	16	7	1
Secondary (Year 7–15)	23	30	33
Secondary (Year 9–15)	62	63	66
<i>Size</i>			
1–99	3	2	0
100–299	20	16	15
300–499	22	22	24
500–999	34	38	34
1,000+	21	22	26
<i>Location</i>			
Urban	55	58	55
Secondary urban	10	12	15
Minor urban	22	21	21
Rural	13	9	9
<i>% Māori</i>			
< 8%	23	28	29
8–14%	28	22	24
15–29%	26	30	31
30% +	24	20	15
<i>Authority</i>			
State	76	73	75
State integrated	24	27	25
<i>SES-Decile</i>			
1–2	17	16	10
3–4	21	22	22
5–6	25	24	25
7–8	22	23	26
9–10	15	16	18
<i>Returns</i>			
N		400	180
%			45%

⁶⁶ Two questionnaires were sent to trustees from each school. The numbers in the third column represent the characteristics of the schools from which we received one or two responses.

Table 127 Parents⁶⁷

	2002 National roll figures (n=246,493) %	2003 Sample school statistics (n=28) %	2003 Survey respondents (n=782) %
<i>Type</i>			
Composite	7	4	4
Secondary (Year 7–15)	16	35	32
Secondary (Year 9–15)	77	61	64
<i>Size</i>			
1–99	< 1	0	0
100–299	6	18	16
300–499	13	25	20
500–999	37	21	24
1,000+	43	36	40
<i>Location</i>			
Urban	72	61	60
Secondary urban	9	14	12
Minor urban	15	14	16
Rural	5	11	12
<i>% Māori</i>			
< 8%	26	29	28
8–14%	31	25	28
15–29%	27	25	24
30%+	16	21	20
<i>Authority</i>			
State	85	64	68
State integrated	15	36	32
<i>SES-Decile</i>			
1–2	12	14	12
3–4	20	25	28
5–6	24	21	20
7–8	24	18	20
9–10	20	21	20

⁶⁷ The National Roll Figures in this table give the percentages of students at schools of the types included in the sample, using the July Roll 2002. Thirty-five schools agreed to participate in the study, and we had responses from at least one parent from each of these schools. The percentages in the middle column of the table are those of the characteristics of the *schools* in the parent sub-sample. The percentages in the column on the right are those of the *parents* who responded, which can best be compared with the percentages in the column on the left, of the pupils on the school rolls.