



**ATTRACTING, DEVELOPING AND RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS
IN THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND**

OECD COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT

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NOTE

This Country Background Report (CBR) for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland has been prepared as part of the OECD Activity on *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*. Country Background Reports are being prepared by all twenty-three countries participating in the project, to be used in the common Analytic Review. A Thematic Country Review will take place in a smaller group of nine countries, not including the UK.

This report was prepared for the Department for Education and Skills, England, together with the Department of Education, Northern Ireland; the Scottish Executive Education Department; and the Department of Education and Training, Wales. The document was prepared in response to guidelines the OECD provided to all participating countries. The guidelines encouraged the authors to canvass a breadth of views and priorities on teacher policy issues. The opinions expressed are not necessarily those of the national authority, the OECD or its Member countries.

The CBR is intended for three main audiences: the Secretariat and other countries participating in the Activity; those interested in teacher policy within the United Kingdom; and those interested in teacher policy at international level.

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We are also grateful for the views and information submitted by a wide range of stakeholders in the educational system and included in summary in various places in this report. The stakeholders that contributed are listed in Appendix 1.

The report has been prepared by Professor Alistair Ross and Dr Merryn Hutchings, of the Institute for Policy Studies in Education, London Metropolitan University.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The administration and management of the recruitment, development and retention of teachers in the UK varies across the four constituent countries of England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland [§17-46]. The school systems are diverse in their organisation and administration. There are different kinds of schools [§76-102], and the diverse and changing school populations, both in terms of their size and their composition [§47-56]. Patterns of teacher employment reflect this, and vary between countries [§121-129, §309-391]. The nature and pace of recent educational reforms in all four countries have led to changes in the nature and conditions of teachers' work. The key issues for attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers identified in this report are as follows.

Attracting effective teachers

While the overall trends in recruitment to initial teacher training and teacher numbers are positive, a significant proportion of teachers will retire in the next decade [§122-5] and the cohort of teachers who will replace them, particularly in school leadership positions, is relatively small. There is evidence of teacher shortages in some geographical areas, especially London and the South East of England, and in some subject areas including mathematics, science and technology. In England and Wales, a number of incentives have been introduced to boost recruitment to initial teacher training [§179-192] and schemes have been introduced to encourage former teachers to return to the profession [§201-2, §265-6]. In Scotland an agreement relating to workload and terms and conditions of employment should assist in ensuring that sufficient numbers of teachers continue to be attracted into the profession [§44]. Particular efforts are also being made to ensure that the teacher workforce is representative of the diversity of the local population. There are proportionately too few male teachers, particularly in primary schools, and action is being taken to increase male recruitment to the profession. There are also proportionately too few teachers drawn from the significant minority ethnic communities of the UK, and strategies are in place to recruit a higher proportion of new teachers from these groups [§168-170]. Both women and minority ethnic group teachers are also currently less well represented in school leadership positions: leadership training programmes are being targeted at these groups [§290-2, §339-349]. In England there are plans for an expansion in the number of support staff in schools, and the further development of their roles and career pathways [§130-6, §449-51].

Developing effective teachers

Various new routes for initial training and qualification have been introduced in England and Wales. These are designed to complement more traditional routes by offering more flexible and work-based options for mature students and career-changers [§231-253]. Induction schemes have been introduced or strengthened in all four countries. In Scotland trainees are guaranteed a post with a reduced timetable for their probationary year; this will better prepare newly qualified teachers for their professional career. There is a growing emphasis on the need for all teachers to engage in continuing professional development after initial training and induction are completed. For example, the contractual changes set out in the national agreement for workforce reform in England are, among other things, intended to provide teachers in England with more time for professional development [§444-51]. Professional career development programmes are in place in all four countries, to support teachers early in their careers, and to provide training and support for teachers involved in middle and senior management positions in their schools [§268-303]. There is also a growing emphasis on the importance of effective leadership as evidenced by the establishment of national standards and qualifications for leadership in all four countries and the setting up of the National College for School Leadership in England [§290-2, §299-303]. The career structure has been revised in England, Wales and Scotland. In England and Wales a career progression threshold has

been introduced, so that experienced and successful teachers can move to an extended salary scale. In Scotland, a new grade of Chartered Teacher has been introduced, requiring additional study and qualification. The position in Northern Ireland is currently under review [§338-354]. The creation of General Teaching Councils in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (Scotland having had such a Council since 1965) [§13] aims to increase the professional self-management of the teaching profession and to help to enhance its self-esteem.

Retaining effective teachers

Teacher retention of is at least as much of a concern as recruitment. A significant number of teachers leave the profession early – both within the first 5 years and subsequently [§399-412]. Teacher workload has been identified as a factor in retention in all four countries and is one of the main reasons given by teachers for leaving the profession. All four administrations are taking steps to ensure that workload patterns are reduced, career patterns and remuneration addressed, and the nature and status of the profession is recognised and enhanced. In Scotland, policies to progressively reduce the hours worked by teachers are in place, following an agreement in 2001. In England a national agreement in 2003 between government, employers and school workforce unions is focused on action to raise standards and reduce teacher workload through an increasing focus on teaching and learning and greater delegation of other tasks to support staff. As part of this, in England and Wales, specific routine non-teaching tasks will no longer be required of teachers. In England, the aim is for these to be transferred to support staff, and numbers of support staff are being increased to enable this; in Wales, support for administration generally is being increased [§438-453].

School workforce data

In preparing this report it has become clear that there are limitations in the range and availability of data and it has not always been possible to provide an analysis for all four countries. The General Teaching Council England has commissioned some preliminary work to assess the range of datasets about teachers. The Department for Education and Skills is also undertaking a quality review of school workforce data in England. The lack of comparative data highlighted in producing this report will help to inform that review which will, in turn, inform future decisions about the range of future data collection exercises.

INTRODUCTION

Teacher recruitment and retention in the United Kingdom

1. Teacher recruitment and retention in the United Kingdom is a complex mosaic of patterns, with different forms of government and traditions in the different countries, with recent major changes in the forms of devolution, and with a wide variety of regional variations. Policies for recruitment and retention reflect this variety. This report identifies these policies and practices in relation to attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers across the UK: it has been prepared against the background of ongoing educational reform and a process of remodelling of the school workforce in all four countries, with the ultimate aim of raising standards¹. These policies have a much higher degree of coherence than has been evident in the past. What follows describes the current position, the key themes, and the direction in which policies are moving rather than a set of outcomes. Nevertheless, it has in many places been possible to refer to ongoing and recent research and evaluation studies, that help both to identify issues and needs and to appraise policies. Some of these have been commissioned by the respective governments, as part of their monitoring of development, and others initiated by stakeholders or independent researchers. A list of the current range of government-sponsored research projects is given in Appendix 2.
2. Responsibility for the provision of education, and thus for the recruitment, retention and management of teachers, varies in different parts of the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (conventionally abbreviated to the UK) comprises four countries, England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Each has developed particular educational structures and provisions: the extent to which these vary is in part a reflection of their administrative histories. England and Wales have been effectively unified for over 700 years, until the very recent measures of devolution, and their educational provisions are the most similar. England and Scotland united as 'Great Britain' in 1707, and Great Britain and Ireland united in 1801 ('United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland'). Educational legislation for Scotland and Ireland remained separate from that of England and Wales. Following partition in Ireland in 1921, the six northern Irish counties remained part of the United Kingdom as Northern Ireland and the current name of the country was adopted in 1927. 'Great Britain' is still used on some occasions (in the production of certain statistics, for example), and refers to England, Wales and Scotland only. The Isle of Man and the bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey are British crown dependencies, and not part of the UK. These differences account for the sometimes different structures by which schools and teachers are organised, and differences in the professional and educational ethos in different parts of the UK. This report thus concerns policies and practices relating to attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers across the four countries.

Current educational reforms in the United Kingdom

3. The reform of education has been a dominant theme in UK politics for the past twenty-five years. In 1976 the then Prime Minister, James Callaghan, initiated a 'Great Debate' on the nature, purposes and practices of the educational system in a speech given at Ruskin College, Oxford (Callaghan, 1976). A decade later, the government led by Margaret Thatcher introduced a National Curriculum for England and Wales, followed by very similar changes in Northern Ireland, and rather different

¹ Policy development in relation to attracting developing and retaining teachers is ongoing; this report includes developments that took place before 15 February 2003.

but parallel reforms in Scotland. The present government, coming into power in 1997, was elected on a platform committed to raising educational standards.

4. Current educational reform has been largely predicated on raising standards of achievement rather than the reformation of educational structures. Since 1997 - particularly in England and Wales and in Northern Ireland - there have been a variety of initiatives to provide resources for this, and schemes to identify and use good practice as exemplars. Most of the schemes for resources have involved targeted approaches for specified programmes, often involving schools bidding for funding, setting objectives and milestones, and reporting on achievements. Similarly, the identification of best practice has variously involved the analysis of achievements and standards, the assessment of school practices, and schools applying for recognition. Such recognition may bring with it additional resources, generally intended to ensure the dissemination of the best practice.
5. In addition to these targeted schemes, there have also been more universal programmes to raise standards: initially in primary education, and then particularly in the earlier stages of secondary education. National standards of attainment by pupils have been used as key indicators in England and Wales, and although there have been sustained initiatives to identify the socio-economic barriers to educational attainment, there has been an explicit policy not to use such factors as an excuse for lack of progress, but to expect development and progress across the board. There has been an emphasis on the role of education in promoting social inclusion.
6. These approaches have put additional demands on teachers and on schools. Keeping pace with new initiatives and training programmes, increased forms of assessments and record-keeping for measuring pupil attainment, and the additional requirements for making applications for various targeted funding schemes led to teachers and head teachers reporting pressures on their workloads. These initiatives followed closely on the decade that saw the introduction of the National Curriculum in England and Wales and the Northern Ireland Curriculum, their development and revision, and in England and Wales, the introduction of a comprehensive programme of national testing and the development of 'league tables' that compared school and local authority performances.
7. As a consequence of all this, many teachers in England reported feeling that they had lost a considerable measure of their professional autonomy (as evidenced by several stakeholder professional associations, also Hutchings *et al.*, 2000, 2002). Teachers reported that ability to manage their professional practice felt threatened, and they felt less able to be creative in their work with pupils. Autonomy and creativity are two factors that teachers have said initially attracted them to join the profession.
8. A further factor was the change in the managerial structures of schools, particularly in the early 1990s. In all four countries, management powers have been devolved from the local authorities to school governors and the head teacher, and budgets have increasingly been transferred from local authorities to schools. This has given head teachers greater autonomy, but has also placed new demands on them, which they had not anticipated when they took on the role, and for which they were not always well-prepared. Some stakeholders have suggested that poor management in these circumstances has led to further feelings of alienation by teachers. The quality of school leadership has thus become an increasingly important issue, which has been addressed by all four governments.
9. The supply of teachers has often been linked to phases in the economic cycle (Dolton, 2003; Dean, 2002; Johnson, 2002; Smithers and Robinson, 2000). It has been observed that when the economy is in recession, there are generally adequate numbers of teachers, but that as the economy lifts out of recession, then a sufficiently significant number of teachers move out of the profession, and a teacher shortage is observed. There has been a steadily expanding economy in the UK since the mid 1990s. Particular economic growth in London and the South East has led to rising wage levels in the private sector in these areas, coupled to high rises in the cost of privately-owned housing. It should be noted that in the UK there has been an expectation that professional workers aspire to home ownership, and many teachers share this.
10. There were many indicators of a teacher shortage in the late 1990s in parts of the UK (in particular, London and South East England, and some other large urban areas in England). These factors will be

analysed in detail in Chapters 3 and 6 of this report. Additional demands for teachers are created by some educational initiatives, which take some classroom teachers out of part or all of their teaching (creating a demand for cover), and may also involve the recruitment of additional teachers. Thus initiatives can create further pressures on the supply of teachers.

11. There is evidence (reviewed in Chapter 2) that most teachers do not tend to relocate for employment opportunities, so that shortfalls in particular regions have not been adequately met by teachers migrating within the UK. The different governments and administrations of the four countries of the UK have therefore largely been able to take independent measures to address issues of teacher supply. However, in Wales, proximity to England has led to concerns that teachers may be encouraged to move to England by incentives on offer there, and thus Wales has adopted some of the same policies as England.
12. The government and administrations of the four countries have increasingly recognised the pressures that affect teachers. However, the government has consistently argued that the changes necessary to raise educational standards were essential for the sake of pupils in the educational system and that these reforms could not be postponed or delayed. Instead, there has been a dual strategy, firstly to better reward teachers who could demonstrate high standards of performance, and secondly to restructure the school workforce to bring in additional support staff who can take on many of the administrative tasks increasingly undertaken by teachers, thus allowing them to concentrate on their professional roles. It will take time for the effects of these policies to become evident, but there are at the time of writing some early indicators that they are beginning to have the desired effect.
13. There have also been efforts to restore teachers' confidence and self-esteem. One major aspect of this has been the establishment of General Teaching Councils (GTC) in England and in Wales in 2000 and in Northern Ireland in 2002. Scotland has had a General Teaching Council since 1965. These Councils were designed as professional bodies for teachers, to provide them with an opportunity to shape the development of professional practice and policy, and to maintain and set professional standards. All practising teachers must maintain registration with their respective council, and may participate in the elections to the Council. GTCs advise government on issues affecting the profession, based on teachers' views and expertise. They have a regulatory role to maintain professional standards.

Scope of this report

14. This report focuses particularly on teachers working with children in the statutory ages for education (5 to 16 in England, Wales and Scotland, 4 to 16 in Northern Ireland). However, many statistics of education that cover this sector also cover *some* teachers working with younger and older pupils. Thus some provision for children below statutory age is made in nursery classes in maintained schools, and staff working with these children are not distinguished in the statistics from those working with older children. But staff working in non-school settings - Early Years Centres and Nurseries - are not included in many of the ranges of statistics used in this report, and are not referred to in this report. Similarly, substantial post-16 provision (up to the age of 18/19) takes place in secondary schools, and their teachers cannot be distinguished from those working with younger pupils: these teachers are included in references in this report. But many other 16-19 year olds are educated in Further Education Colleges, and the teachers in these establishments are not referred to in this report.
15. In all four countries teachers are only one part of the whole school workforce. In the space available in this report, it has not been possible to provide a full description of policies that relate to the attraction, development and retention of the whole school workforce but - given the increasing significance of support staff in education, particularly in England - some details of this are given in the following chapters.

1: THE UNITED KINGDOM NATIONAL CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

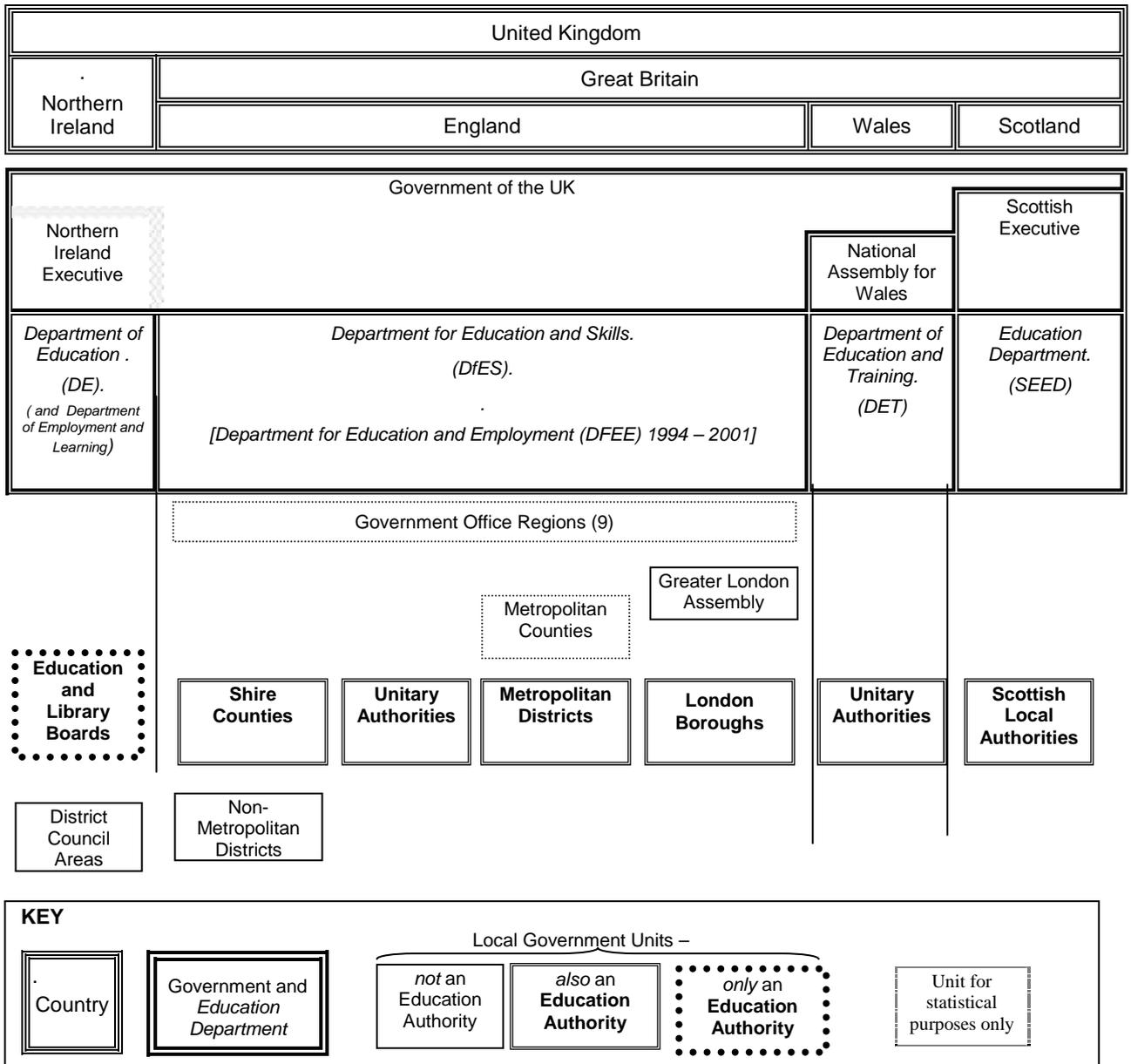
16. This chapter sets out the broader social context of the four countries in the UK, emphasising five factors that impact on attracting, developing and retaining teachers. These are:
 - i. the administration of education in the UK;
 - ii. broad population trends;
 - iii. economic and labour market trends and their implications for schools and teaching;
 - iv. public and private resources available for schooling; and
 - v. public perceptions of schools and teachers.

1.2 The administration of education in the UK

17. The different administrative and political structures relating to the four countries have led to a complex range of provision. The following summary draws attention to the main distinctions and differences between them. Until 1999, educational legislation for England, Wales and Scotland was made by the UK Parliament at Westminster, and for Northern Ireland at the Northern Ireland Assembly at Stormont, except during periods of direct rule, when the Westminster Parliament became responsible. Separate Acts were required at Westminster for provision in Scotland, but England and Wales were generally (but not always) legislated for together.
18. Prior to devolution in 1999, Wales was fully incorporated into England for all administrative, judicial and legislative purposes. A Welsh Office was established in Cardiff in 1965, and most of the responsibilities of the Department of Education and Science for statutory-age education in Wales were transferred in 1970. Separate arrangements for the school system for Scotland were developed in the 19th Century (although this was administered entirely from London until the 1920s). A Department of Education was established in 1939 as part of the Scottish Office, based in Edinburgh. Similarly, the union with Ireland and the subsequent partition maintained a distinct administrative system: after 1921 Northern Ireland had its own legislature and government, including a Ministry of Education. From 1972 executive and legislative powers have been largely exercised by London (though on occasion by the Northern Ireland Assembly and Executive). In practical terms, the Department of Education in Northern Ireland, based in Bangor, continued to operate throughout the period, whether responsible to a NI Executive Minister or to a UK Government Minister.
19. A series of constitutional changes in 1997–99 devolved considerable powers over internal government, including education, to Scotland and Wales. Other changes in Northern Ireland in this period re-established a Northern Ireland Assembly and Executive on a power-sharing basis.
20. Figure 1.1 shows the national and local government structures in the four constituent countries.
21. Responsibility for education in England lies with the Secretary of State for Education, whose department is currently called the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). Local government so far as education is concerned is based on one of four systems: there are currently
 - 34 Shire Counties that have responsibility for education, found in the rural areas;
 - 47 Unitary Authorities, largely in medium-sized urban areas (including one for the purposes of education in the Isles of Scilly with responsibility for a single school);
 - 36 Metropolitan Districts in the urban conurbations; and

- 33 London Boroughs
- Each of these 150 bodies constitutes a Local Education Authority (LEA).

Figure 1.1: National and Local Government structures, UK, 2002



Sources: various.

22. In Wales, most of the powers of the Secretary of State for Wales were transferred to the National Assembly for Wales in 1999, following a referendum in 1998. The Welsh Assembly has a limited range of devolved powers, including the making of regulations and orders, but not of primary legislation (Acts of Parliament), and it has no tax raising powers. The Welsh Assembly Government Departments, including the Department for Training and Education, are answerable to the Assembly Cabinet, which includes Assembly Ministers (appointed by the First Minister), who deal with specific areas, including Education. Twenty-two unitary authorities are responsible for the day-to-day provision of school education, acting as Local Education Authorities. However, some arrangements for Wales are carried out in common with England: for example, teachers' pay and conditions of service are not devolved, and the School Teachers' Review Body (STRB) that reports on teachers' pay and conditions covers both England and Wales.

23. In Northern Ireland, the Northern Ireland Assembly appoints the Executive on a power-sharing basis that allows all parties represented in the Assembly to participate in the Executive. One of the positions in the Executive is Minister of Education, who is responsible for the Department of Education. Local provision is the responsibility of the five Education and Library Boards (ELB), which have responsibilities only in education and libraries, and (unlike local authorities in England, Wales and Scotland) have no other local government functions.
24. In Scotland the Scottish Parliament was established in 1999 with a Scottish Executive responsible for a range of devolved matters, including education. It has limited tax-raising powers. Overall responsibility for education resides with the Parliament. The Scottish Executive is responsible for policy development, subject to parliamentary scrutiny. The Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED) administers national policy on education. Thirty-two Scottish Local Authorities are responsible for the provision of school and pre-school education in their local area. Scotland's educational system remains distinct from that of England and Wales.

Key policy priorities and developments in education

25. The Government and administrations of the four countries share certain key priorities in their education policies: a stress on raising educational standards; on developing the qualification base of the population, particularly with reference to vocational needs; and on developing education as a means of social inclusion. Increasing proportions of the population are expected to gain higher educational qualifications. To achieve these aims, a series of educational reforms have been instigated – by the UK government for England, by the National Assembly for Wales, by the Northern Ireland Executive, and by the Scottish Executive. All of these potentially impact on the attraction and retention of teachers.

England

26. A Standards and Effectiveness Unit was established in the DfEE in 1997 to lead the Department's drive to raise pupil achievement. The Unit's current focus is on working with schools and other stakeholders to build processes that transform teaching and learning and strengthen leadership. The *Schools Standards and Framework Act (1998)* established various monitoring programmes to chart the achievement of specific targets for pupil attainment, as measured by Standard Assessment Tasks and national examinations. National strategies for numeracy and literacy, which integrate teaching frameworks with research-based pedagogy and intensive staff development, are now embedded and are securing significant improvement in pupil attainment in primary schools. A more recent strategy aims to achieve similar improvements in the 11-14 age range. Aggregated results of pupils' levels of attainment have been published in school performance tables as part of the accountability process. These show rising national levels of attainment in English, mathematics and science at ages 7, 11, 14 and 16. Many teacher and head teacher associations have suggested that these comparisons are over-simplistic, and do not allow sufficiently for the fact that pupils from poorer socio-economic backgrounds have lower levels of achievement. 'Value added' tables have recently been introduced to provide information about the progress secondary schools help their pupils to make relative to their different starting points. Similar data for primary schools is currently at the pilot stage. An Innovation Unit has been established as a key interface with schools, and new powers in the Education Act 2002 enable the Secretary of State to exempt schools from education legislation where appropriate, to encourage schools to innovate. The National College for School Leadership (§291) has been established to provide a coherent national training and development framework for school leaders. In addition, an Advanced Skills Teacher pathway has been introduced to offer a new route for career development for teachers who want to stay in the classroom.
27. The inspection of schools and of teaching by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) has been used in the strategy to drive up standards (§140). Ofsted describe school inspections as a process of evidence gathering to provide an assessment of how well a school is performing. They achieve this using data on attainment, observing lessons, interviewing teachers, analysing pupils' work, and meeting with parents, pupils and governors. Inspections are conducted by teams of trained inspectors, led by a registered inspector, and result in a published report. School inspections are required in law

and are governed by the *School Inspections Act* 1996 and later amendments. Schools are normally re-inspected within six years of their previous inspection, and the school receives 6 to 10 weeks' notice of an inspection.

28. Schools that do not meet the required standards may be identified as 'underachieving' or 'having serious weaknesses', or in extreme cases placed in 'special measures'. They are then subject to a system of more frequent inspections to identify their progress towards meeting prescribed development targets.
29. This inspection regime has met with some criticism from many teachers, whose perception was that inspections were made too often, were bureaucratic and required too much preparation time. Ofsted suggest that much of the preparation that teachers make for inspections is generated by the schools themselves, and is not required by the inspectors. Since 2000 a 'light touch' inspection has been introduced for those schools (about a quarter of the total number) that are judged to have performed well in exam results and have received very favourable reports in previous Ofsted inspections, designed to reduce 'the build up of anxiety by teachers' (Ofsted, 2002a) caused by preparations for inspections.
30. There have also been policy initiatives to ensure that a greater proportion of young people achieve educational qualifications. A national framework for vocational qualifications was developed in the 1990s (currently under review), and the National Council for Vocational Qualifications merged in 1997 with the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority to form the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). QCA has a wider remit than any previous education or training body, including pre-school learning, the national curriculum for 3-16 year olds, national tests for 7, 11 and 14 year olds, GCSEs, A-levels, NVQs and higher level vocational qualifications. The QCA coordinates education and training, bringing together academic and vocational qualifications. A more detailed description of the curriculum is given in §113 - §117.
31. Measures have been taken to increase the take-up of post-16 tertiary education, which has been historically low in England. The Green Paper *14 – 19: Extending Opportunities, Raising Standards* (DfES, 2002a) outlines proposals for the development of more coherent phase for post-14 education: this includes vocational education from the age of 14; parity of esteem for academic and vocational qualifications; and more flexible approaches to mix school, college and workplace learning. Post-16 education, and higher education in particular, has not had a high level of participation from the poorer socio-economic groups. Although the proportion of the age cohort participating in higher education has risen from 15% in 1989 to 33% in 1997, most of this expansion had been achieved through the inclusion of more young people from more privileged socio-economic backgrounds. A target of 50% inclusion by 2010 has been set, largely to be achieved by broadening the participation of different social groups in higher education, not simply increasing participation (HEFCE, 2000).
32. One element of the strategy to improve standards has been to diversify the range of educational establishments. Schools offering particular examples of good practice have been formally recognised and are currently known as Beacon schools (§94). They receive additional resources to promote teaching, learning and school management strategies. Secondary schools can apply to be designated as specialist schools (§87-90), with additional resources to develop their chosen specialism; numbers have increased since 1997. This policy has sometimes been criticised by the profession, some of whom argue that available resources should be more equally distributed. The government has tended to target resources towards particular areas, specifically through the use of the 'Standards Fund', but funds are now increasingly being allocated to mainstream school budgets rather than being ring-fenced for specific purposes; thus decisions will rest with schools as to how they wish to deploy their budgets.
33. The school workforce – particularly, but not only, teachers – has been identified by government as key in the delivery of these policies. *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* (DfEE, 1998a) set out a series of structural reforms, with the creation of performance management pay, new career grades of Advanced Skills teachers, and a developing framework for career advancement through professional development. This was augmented by a new pay structure, with a performance threshold. The growing focus on the wider school workforce was signalled in 2001, when the DfES

reviewed its internal organisation and launched the School Workforce Unit as the body within the DfES with policy responsibilities in relation to the whole school workforce, not just teachers.

34. The recent White Paper *Investment for Reform* (DfES, 2002c), together with the government spending plans for the period to 2005/6, mark a new phase in this commitment to school improvement. They offer head teachers and teachers a new partnership for the next phase of reform, shifting from 'informed prescription' to 'informed professional judgement'. The then Secretary of State argued in her foreword to the White Paper, '...if we ask more of our teachers, we must also ask more of ourselves, and we must match our demands with more support'. Schools are being offered greater opportunities for professional autonomy: through the status of 'earned autonomy', the commitment to diversity and collaboration, the Leadership Incentive Grant, the Innovation Unit, and the significant increase in Education Standard Spending, the DfES has begun to shape a new role in the next phase of educational reform.
35. The reform of the school workforce is at the heart of this. *Time for Standards: Reforming the School Workforce* (DfES, 2002b) set out further reforms, including a reappraisal of teachers' workload, and the consolidation of a series of strategies to augment teachers with more and diversified support staff in schools. This was followed by a historic national agreement between Ministers, employers and school workforce unions, *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement* (DfES, 2003b). This sets out a seven point plan for creating time for teachers and head teachers which will enable them to focus more effectively on teaching and learning. The delivery of these changes depends on schools deploying more support staff in extended roles as a means of releasing extra time for teachers and reducing their workload. Further details are provided in Chapter 6 (§445-51).

Wales

36. In Wales, policy was initially developed by the Welsh Office prior to devolution, and set out in *Building Excellent Schools Together (BEST)* (Welsh Office, 1997), followed by *The BEST for Teaching and Learning in Wales* (Welsh Office, 1999). As in England, this stressed the need to achieve consistently high standards, to recognise the key role of strong leadership and financial management, performance incentives, better training and career development, and an improvement in the esteem for the teaching profession.
37. Following the establishment of the National Assembly for Wales, more distinctive Welsh education policies were established: for example, legislation was put in place for a revised National Curriculum; pilot schemes were announced for a Welsh Baccalaureate, and a National Council for Education and Training for Wales was formed as part of Education and Learning Wales (ELWa). Also referred to as the National Council ELWa, it has responsibility for funding, planning and promoting all post-16 education and training in Wales with the exception of Higher Education. In 2001 the Welsh Assembly's Training and Education Department published a strategy document, *The Learning Country: A Paving Document* (National Assembly, 2001a), a comprehensive strategic statement on education and lifelong learning in Wales. This proposed improving early years' provision and special needs; ensuring better transition between primary and secondary schools; progressively adjusting schools' working practice so that they can operate more flexibly, innovatively and responsively; transforming provision for 14 to 19 year olds; and giving still stronger support to teachers. The Department published a ten-year strategy for developing the Welsh higher education sector *Reaching Higher* (National Assembly, 2002c), and a consultation paper on developing a distinctive 14-19 strategy for Wales, *Learning Country: Learning Pathways 14-19* (National Assembly 2002d).
38. A distinctive path for education policy in Wales is now possible, in that much Westminster legislation that covers both England and Wales has provisions that are enabling in character, and the National Assembly in Wales has the discretion as to the extent of their application in Wales.
39. The Minister for Education and Lifelong Learning in Wales set out 'a vision for education and lifelong learning, that Wales should become internationally renowned as a Learning Country.' She continued: 'we share key strategic goals with our colleagues in England - but we often need to take a different route to achieve them' (National Assembly, 2001a: *The Learning Country*).

Northern Ireland

40. The School Improvement Programme for Northern Ireland was set out in 1998 with a wide-ranging redistribution of existing resources to target new priorities. This included intensive professional and financial support for improvement measures in some 80 low achieving or underachieving schools; a co-ordinated approach to the promotion of literacy and numeracy across the Province; a framework for a consistent, co-ordinated and effective in-school and external support structure for schools in addressing pupils' discipline problems; guidance for schools on setting their own targets for pupils' achievements within the context of the overall targets for Northern Ireland, and guidance for school self-evaluation.
41. The Northern Ireland Council for the Curriculum Examinations and Assessment is undertaking a review of the curriculum and has proposed that the statutory curriculum should be presented in a small number of broad areas rather than a large number of specific subjects. There will be programmes covering personal development and local and global citizenship. The 14 to 16 curriculum is to consist of key transferable skills, personal, social and health education, citizenship and education for employability. Statutory tests at 8, 11 and 14 are to be replaced by annual reports, and, as in Wales, a new Foundation Stage is to be introduced to cover pre-school and the first two years of primary school.
42. Following an independent report on post-primary education, the Minister announced in October 2002 that the current transfer tests, which determine access to grammar schools, will be abolished as soon as practicable. No decision has been taken on academic selection. New post-primary arrangements are currently under consideration and the next stage of the review will be announced shortly.

Scotland

43. Scotland's educational policy has always been distinct from that of the rest of the UK. A major series of public consultation exercises began with *Improving our Schools* (Scottish Executive, 1999), the aim of which was to raise standards in Scottish education, and develop an education service based on a shared vision, responsive to local needs, and giving every child the best start in life. The consultation resulted in the strengthening of provisions to involve young people as active participants and to consult their parents, and in giving greater powers to the new School Boards (Peck and Ramsey, 2000).
44. Following the failure of pay negotiations in 1999, an independent *Committee of Inquiry into Professional Conditions of Service for Teachers* (Scottish Executive, 2000a) (the McCrone Committee) was established to make recommendations on teachers' terms and professional conditions. The report set out a radical restructuring of the profession, including a 35-hour working week for teachers; a maximum of 22.5 hours class contact time; contractual professional development time of 35 hours a year; new arrangements for the probationary period for teachers; and the creation of a new career grade of Chartered Teacher. These changes are being phased in and will not be fully in place until 2006.
45. The Scottish Executive has subsequently determined its *National Priorities in School Education* (2000c). The *Standards in Scotland's Schools etc. Act 2000* created a new statutory framework for schools education that requires local authorities and schools to plan, monitor and report on improvement in education:
 - Scottish Ministers and local authorities must improve the quality of education;
 - Ministers determine strategic direction through national priorities and measures of performance (subsequently set out under the headings achievement and attainment; framework for learning; inclusion and equality; values and citizenship and learning for life);
 - Local authorities report on local improvements as national priorities are implemented locally;
 - Schools create Development Plans linked to the local authority's statement of objectives, and report annual progress.
46. The Scottish Executive set these priorities recognising the role parents play in the development and education of their children, and focusing on the principles of social justice and equality - ensuring

that education policies are focused on raising attainment for all. In promoting an understanding of the interdependence between individuals and other members of the neighbourhood and society, Ministers wanted the principles of sustainable development reflected in the priorities. The priorities reflect the importance in school education both of academic achievement and the development of the foundation and life skills which will become increasingly important in a changing global economy. These include a range of fundamental transferable skills.

1.3 Broad population trends

47. The 2001 census (United Kingdom, 2002) shows the respective sizes of the four countries:
- | | | |
|-----------------------|------------|---------|
| England: | 49,139,000 | (83.6%) |
| Wales: | 2,903,000 | (4.9%) |
| Scotland: | 5,062,000 | (8.6%) |
| Northern Ireland: | 1,685,000 | (2.9%) |
| Total United Kingdom: | 58,789,000 | |
48. The school-age population has fluctuated in size: it contracted in the 1980s, and grew again (but not to quite the same extent as before) in the 1990s (Government Actuary and Registrars General, 2002). It is now projected to fall again over the next fifteen years, and then, over the UK as a whole, to slowly rise again towards 2025 (but with some regional variations) (see Table 1.1). There are further projections towards 2040, which show another phase of decline in the school population.

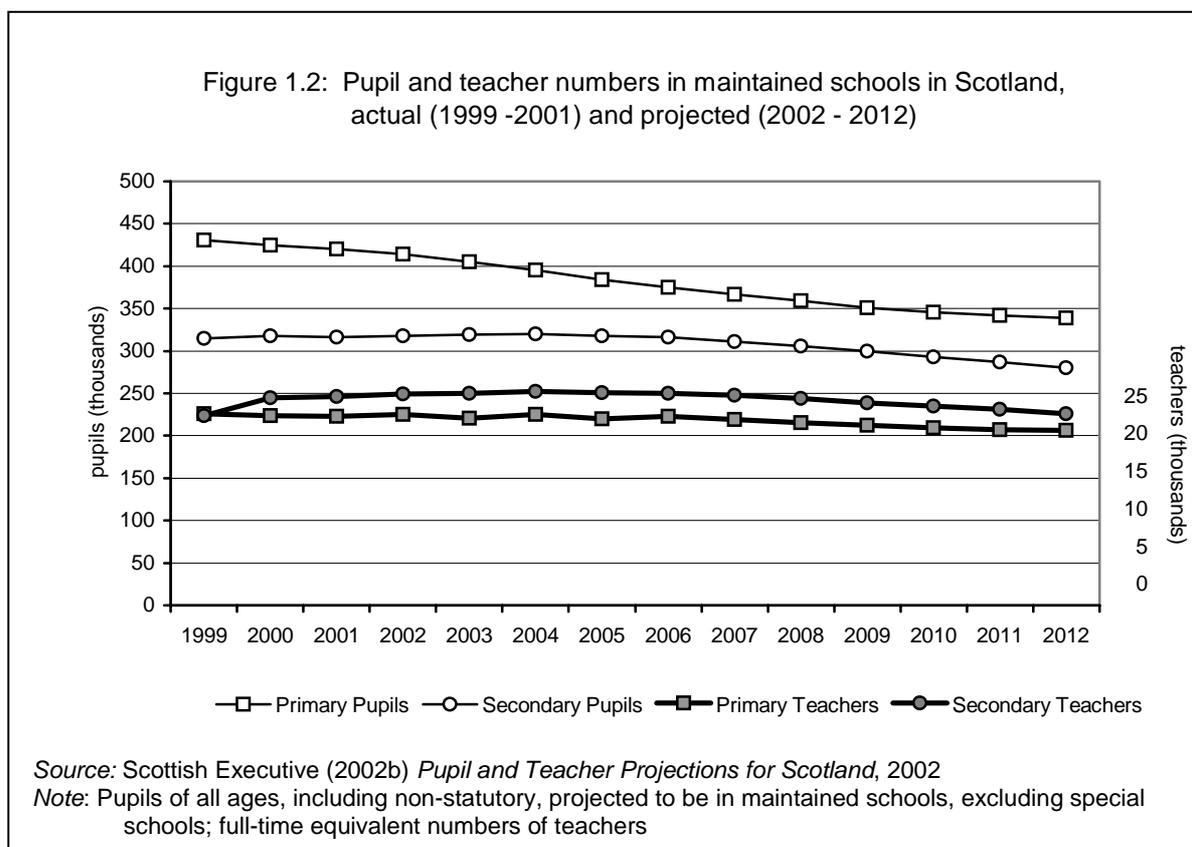
Table 1.1: Population aged 5-16 inclusive: actual (2001) and projections (2016, 2026), UK
(thousands)

year	2001	2016	2026
England	7,610	6,959	7,246
Scotland	760	613	599
Wales	458	396	410
Northern Ireland	310	260	256

Source: Government Actuary and Registrars General, Population Projections 2001 projection (mid-year estimates: this closely approximates the statutory school-age population)

49. Primary school rolls are already falling, but are expected to begin to recover by around 2012; Secondary rolls will continue to rise slightly to 2004, and then are also predicted to move into decline, not beginning to rise until 2018. These figures are for pupils of statutory school age. The proportion of children in pre-school centres has been rising in recent years, as has the proportion of pupils staying on after the age of 16.
50. These are not dramatic fluctuations in size, although changes are projected in the distribution of the school population, particularly at the sub-national level. The effects on the projected number of teachers are not simple to calculate, because they will depend on the pupil-teacher ratio that it is desired to achieve.
51. Scotland has published more detailed projections for pupil and teacher numbers than have the other countries in the UK to the year 2012. Teacher numbers are expected to rise in the short term, as the result of the teachers' pay and conditions agreement reached following the McCrone report. The teacher projection numbers then begin to decline after 2005, on the assumption that pupil-teacher ratios do not change. Figure 1.2 shows the projections of the Scottish Executive National Statistics Branch.
52. A demographic feature of the school population of note is the proportion of pupils eligible for free school meals. These are given when the parent is receiving state support benefits or support under the *Immigration and Asylum Act 1999*. This is a widely-used indicator of social deprivation and poverty, used extensively in targeting funding and as an index of the degree of poverty in a school's intake. Schools with substantial proportions of pupils eligible for free school meals are sometimes referred to as 'challenging' schools. In England (2002), 17.2% of primary pupils and 14.9% of secondary pupils are judged eligible. The proportion is particularly high in Inner London (31.5% in each

sector). Areas of relatively little deprivation, using this measure, are found in the South West, South East and East of England regions (DfES, 2002d).



Minority ethnic group population trends

53. There are substantial numbers of members of minority ethnic groups in the UK population. Many of these groups are long-standing residents in their local areas, of second or third generation UK birth; while others have settled in the UK more recently. Settlement has been uneven, and most groups have tended to live in the metropolitan regions. There are some difficulties in quantifying the size of these groups: although categories are offered in the census, ethnicity is self-defined, and many people will describe themselves in hybrid terms (such as ‘Black British’, or ‘Pakistani-British’), and there are increasing numbers of children from inter-racial marriages who form new categories.
54. Minority ethnic groups have younger populations than the white population, so the proportion of these groups in the school system is higher than their proportion in the population as a whole. Some new groups have very young populations, and there are disproportionately higher numbers of young people in the Bangladeshi- and Pakistani-origin populations: respectively 41% and 36% of these groups are under 16 years old. By way of comparison, the equivalent figure for the white population is 18%, the Indian-origin population 25% and the Black Caribbean 22%. The ratio of minority ethnic groups within the school population is therefore changing. Numbers of Bangladeshi- and Pakistani-origin pupils will rise, numbers of Indian and Chinese-origin pupils will remain more or less static, and Black African pupil numbers will grow to overtake Black Caribbean numbers, which will remain more or less stable. The ‘Black Other’ group will grow rapidly, as will the ‘Other’ group.
55. An outstanding characteristic of many of these groups is that they are distributed in varied and uneven patterns: predominantly in the London boroughs and in certain English metropolitan districts and unitary authorities. Relatively low numbers are found in most of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, in the shire counties and in most unitary authorities of England (Hainsworth, 1998; Irwin and

Dunn, 1996; Schuman, 1999; Scottish Executive, 2000d). The estimated distribution of minority ethnic school-aged populations is thus:

England	537,700	(approx 12.0%)
Scotland	17,800	(approx 2.3%)
Wales	7,900	(approx 1.6%)
Northern Ireland	2,200 – 3,300	(between 0.6% and 0.9%)

56. Another category of pupil, not identical to or to be confused with the minority ethnic group population, is of pupils whose first language is not English, referred to as speakers of ‘English as an Additional Language’ (EAL). These may include some more-recently arrived members of minority ethnic groups, but also those of ‘white’ ethnicity, from East and Central Europe. This group is also very unevenly distributed around the UK, and is found in similar areas to those in which minority ethnic groups have settled. It is estimated that 10.0% of primary and 8.6% of secondary pupils in England have a mother tongue other than English (633,000 pupils in all); 45% of these are in London, and in Inner London some 48% of pupils are thought to speak a language other than English (DfES 2002d).

1.4 Economic and labour market trends and their implications for schools and teaching

57. There has been a well-established link between the supply of teachers and the economic cycle: in periods of economic expansion, teacher supply has proved difficult as teachers in post can more readily find alternative careers, and new entrants see opportunities in other professions. Conversely, in periods of recession, teachers tend to be less able or willing to leave the profession, and it becomes a relatively more attractive career for new entrants (Dolton, 1996; Dean, 2002; Smithers and Robinson, 2000).
58. There are also particular sectoral pressures in the labour market that have implications for the supply of secondary teachers in certain subjects. For example, information and communications technology teachers and business teachers have many alternative career opportunities (see Table 1.2, p.13). Similarly there are employment demands from industry and research for a large proportion of the available mathematics and science graduates. Sir Gareth Roberts’ recent review of the supply of people with science, engineering and mathematics skills (Roberts, 2002) highlighted the pressures in this area and has led to subsequent work on a strategy for science and the setting up of an independent inquiry into post-14 mathematics.
59. Teaching is a major employer of graduates, but many other employers are now moving towards all-graduate entry, or to recruiting graduates where they would previously have taken school leavers. These changes place pressure on the graduate market, particularly at times of relatively full employment. The supply of graduates has increased, though not as rapidly in the last decade as the previous decade. It is planned to have 50% age participation in higher education by 2010, which should ease the graduate supply position, but it may also be anticipated that other non-educational employers will continue to increase their demand for graduate entry.
60. The Employers’ Skills Survey compares the relative skills shortage in the education sector to other labour market sectors (Table 1.2). This suggests that there is not a disproportionate shortage in the sector (although most stakeholders would argue that there is a specific shortage of *teachers* within the education labour market).
61. There are also variations across the UK. The graduate pool in Scotland is declining, and education is competing with other employers for the same people. In all parts of the UK, ‘late entrants’ to the profession (those who are mature, and are often changing careers) are seen as a particularly valuable source of supply, bringing important experiences to teaching. In many cases they intend to stay in teaching throughout their careers, unlike some of the younger entrants (Bird, 2002).

1.5 Public and private resources available for schooling

62. Total public expenditure on education in the UK in 1999 was 11.8% of total public expenditure (up from 11.2% in 1995). The primary, secondary and pre-higher education sectors took 8.1%. The

average OECD figures were 12.7% for total expenditure on education and 8.7% for non-tertiary education (OECD, 2002, Table B3.1). Total public expenditure on education in the UK, at 38% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), is also lower than the OECD mean (41%). Public education spending as a percentage of the total GDP was 4.7%, of which 3.3% went to the non-tertiary sector. These figures include public subsidies to private educational providers.

Table 1.2 Sectoral employment vacancies, UK, 2001

Sector	% employers reporting shortages	Shortage as vacancies per thousand employees	Absolute number of vacancies	Vacancies in sector as % of all vacancies	Employment in sector as % of all employment
Agriculture	1	5	1,000	0.6	1.0
Manufacturing	4	6	21,500	13.6	17.5
Construction	3	17	15,500	9.8	4.5
Wholesale and Retail	3	5	18,500	11.7	18.1
Hotels and Restaurants	3	5	6,000	3.8	5.9
Transport & Communications	4	6	7,000	4.4	5.7
Finance	4	5	4,500	2.8	4.4
Business Services	5	17	51,500	32.5	14.8
Public Administration	4	2	2,500	1.6	6.1
Education	5	4	5,500	3.5	6.7
Health and Social Care	4	8	17,000	10.7	10.4
Other Community, Social and Personal services	3	8	8,000	5.0	4.9
All UK	4	8	158,500	100%	100%

Note: The definition of vacancies in this survey may differ from definitions of teacher vacancies used elsewhere in this report.

Source: Employers' Skills Survey, Warwick Institute for Employment Research/DfES, 2001.

63. Of the total public spending on education for primary and secondary education, 21.1% was direct public expenditure on private institutions; this relatively high proportion is explained by the private ownership of the voluntary aided and voluntary maintained schools, which are schools in the maintained, state sector (§79) (OECD, 2002, Table B4.3). Additionally scholarships and grants to households indirectly transferred a further 0.2% to the private sector. Thus 78.7% of public spending on education went to public institutions.
64. However, there is also additional expenditure on education by a variety of private sources. Of all expenditure on educational institutions (i.e. excluding private expenditure outside educational institutions, such as private spending on educational books and materials, or on private tutoring), some 16.3% came from such sources (OECD, 2002, Table B4.1). The total UK educational spend in 1999 was thus 5.6% of GDP – 4.7% from public sources, 0.9% from private sources. However, a disproportionate element of this is private support for tertiary/university education. Taking only expenditure for the primary and secondary sectors (excluding pre-primary education for children under three, and higher and adult education), then 11.8% of expenditure on education institutions comes from private sources.
65. The average expenditure per school pupil in the maintained sector in 1999 was US\$ 4,354 on educational core services, and \$208 on ancillary services (transport, meals, residential accommodation, etc) (OECD, 2002, Table B6.2). Table 1.3 shows the categories in which this expenditure falls.

Table 1.3: Distribution of expenditure per pupil in schools, 1999, UK and OECD mean

	UK		OECD country mean
Capital	6.1%	(\$278)	7.9%
Current	93.9%	(\$4,284)	92.1%
Teachers' remuneration	49.0%	(\$2,236)	65.1%
Other staff remuneration	18.1%	(\$826)	14.3%
Other expenditure	32.8%	(\$1,497)	19.7%

Source: OECD, 2002, Table B6.3

66. Public expenditure on education rose from 4.7% of GDP in 1999 to 5.0% in 2001-2, and is projected to rise to 5.4% in 2004-5. In addition, a number of Public-Private Partnerships, including Private Finance Initiatives (PFI), are planned to bring private resources into the state sector to finance capital expenditure. Private expenditure is used to provide and manage buildings and facilities, and to deliver certain non-core services. About 50 schools in England have been built or substantially refurbished in this way since 1997. Other private funding streams into the maintained education sector include private sponsorship of Education Action Zones (see §91) and for some specialist schools (see §87-90). These initiatives have attracted some criticism from certain stakeholders, such as the teacher associations. It is not possible to quantify the proportion of expenditure arising from these sources.
67. Private schooling, described in detail in the following chapter, provides another way for the private resourcing of education. About 590,000 pupils are in private schools in England, and just 40,000 in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland (DfES, 2002, and Eurydice, 2002): taking the estimated average cost of £5,062 per private primary pupil, and £6,364 per secondary pupil (Pollard, 2002; Seaton, 2002), a total approximate expenditure of £3.3Bn is reached. The DfES spends £26.5Bn on school education, suggesting around 11% of total expenditure on schools is from private sources. Scotland does not have a significant private school sector (there is a small secondary provision in the Edinburgh area), and the sector is negligible in Wales and Northern Ireland.
68. There is other private educational expenditure that is excluded from these calculations. There is a long-standing tradition of commercial publishing of text books (and now multi-media materials), and development of educational technology. Maintained schools are free to select which commercially produced materials they require. Ultimately, this private investment in educational resources is recouped from a mixture of public spending (by maintained schools) and private sources (representing purchases by the independent sector and by parents).

1.6 Public perceptions of schools and teachers

69. Surveys have shown that the British public value education, and the teachers that they come into contact with. However, as the data in this section show, there is greater ambivalence about whether being a teacher is a 'good' job, and about standards of behaviour in schools.
70. Social surveys have for many years shown that the public put education as their second highest public expenditure priority after health: in 2001 67% put education as one of their first two priorities (up from 50% in the early 1980s) (Wragg and Thomson, 2002). Annual surveys of public perceptions of education conducted in England for the DfES show increasing satisfaction with all sectors of education, and that over 50% of the public rate primary and nursery education as very good or good (43% for secondary education). But this survey also showed in 2002 that there were increasing concerns over standards of behaviour: 55% believe that behaviour standards in primary schools are worsening (11% improving), and 70% believed the situation was worsening in secondary schools (just 6% said they were improving). Surveys show that teaching as a profession is well regarded: 59% were reported in 1995 as agreeing that teaching was a profession likely to be of high value to society (Hill and Knowlton, 1995). However, only 11% of the population said that they would be proud for a member of their family to be a teacher (33% for a doctor) (DfES, 2002g).
71. The General Teaching Council (England) commissioned a public opinion poll in 2000 to estimate public perceptions of schools and teachers; the headline findings of this were:

- 91% of adults in England agree that teaching children is a highly-skilled job;
 - 84% of parents think teachers do a good job at their child's school; 48% are 'very happy' with teachers' work;
 - 82% of parents of school-aged children agree that they would trust teachers to take good educational decisions in the interests of a child's education; of these, 43% strongly agree;
 - 81% of non-parents think teachers do a good job;
 - 78% of non-parents would trust teachers to take good educational decisions in the interests of a child's education (GTC England, 2000c).
72. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) point to differing public perceptions about the quality of schooling in England. 'On the one hand, parents repeatedly express confidence in the work of the schools and the impact schools make on their children's development. Year on year, national examinations demonstrate that the achievement of learners is on a trajectory of continuing improvement. In addition, the public reports by Ofsted and HM Inspectorate in general affirm that the quality of schooling is sound. On the other hand, there are three factors which leave less room for complacency. Firstly, in some areas the results of national tests are uneven, with little or limited progress being demonstrated over the years. Secondly, contingency arrangements are in place to manage failing schools, and the range of initiatives introduced by government to improve schooling suggest that existing provision is in need of significant improvement. ... Thirdly, there is evidence that the independent sector is increasing in popularity' (UCET, 2002a).
73. An analysis of a series of public opinion polls in Scotland conducted in 1998 (McCrone, 1999) (during the devolution debate and referendum) included questions about schools, teachers and education. They showed the public as generally being supportive of the teachers and the educational system:
- more people thought it had improved since their own school-days, especially older people and semi- and unskilled manual workers;
 - the system was deemed to be better than in England by almost half of respondents, especially by older people;
 - 78% thought teachers were hard-working; about the same proportion denied they were overpaid;
 - 70% respondents believed them to be in touch with children, and to be generally undervalued by society;
 - roughly the same proportion thought that there was insufficient discipline in schools, and marginally more thought that qualifications were easier to get nowadays than 5 or 10 years ago.
74. In Northern Ireland, data gathered by the Schools Inspectorate from questions given to parents has been aggregated for 2000-01. These questionnaires covered 4,000 parents' views on school ethos, management, quality of learning and pastoral care issues, gathered from 140 schools. Fifty-three per cent strongly agreed with the school's approach, 36% agreed with it, and 7% and 2% either disagreed or strongly disagreed.

2: THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND THE TEACHING WORKFORCE

2.1 Introduction

75. This chapter sets out the context for the analysis of the recruitment, training and retention of teachers that follows in Chapters 3 to 6. It describes:
- i. the main structural features of the school system;
 - ii. teachers in employment;
 - iii. personnel other than teachers; and
 - iv. organisations involved in the development of policies concerning teachers.

2.2 The main structural features of the school system

76. The variety of types of school in the UK in part arises from the devolved structure of education, referred to in Chapter 1. The various systems were at one time described as ‘a national system, locally administered’, but there are four different national systems, each with its own structure for local government. Education is in most cases devolved to a particular level of local government, which, amongst its other responsibilities for local services, forms an education authority in respect of the maintained schools within its area. Northern Ireland is an exception, in that specific educational authorities have been created that are responsible only for education and libraries. Figure 1.1 (p.5) indicates the various local government structures, identifying those responsible for education. This section outlines the principal categories of school: details of the sizes of the various sectors and their distribution are given in Appendix 3.
77. There is a legal requirement for children of statutory school age (5 to 16 in England, Wales and Scotland, 4 to 16 in Northern Ireland) to either attend school or be otherwise educated. A very small number of parents arrange to educate their children themselves at home, and this provision can be inspected to ensure that it is adequate. Schools are either publicly provided or private. Confusingly, in England some private schools are known as ‘Public Schools’: this terminology is not used in this report.

Types of schools

78. The state-maintained sector is by far the largest element of the educational system. In the UK as a whole, just over 6% of pupils attend independent schools. By far the largest number of these are in England, where 92.9% attend state-maintained schools. In Scotland, 96% attend state schools, in Wales 98.1%, and in Northern Ireland, 99.6% attend grant-aided schools.
79. The system of state-maintained schools has developed since 1860, and the evolution of the system has involved significant concordances with those foundations that provided schools before state intervention, principally the churches. Schools for public use (with no or token fees) were established by the Church of England, the Church in Wales and the Roman Catholic Church and, to a much lesser extent, the Methodist Church, various Jewish congregations, and some other non-religious foundations. These schools – some 14,000 in number – provided about a third of the educational provision in England in 1939, and a rather smaller proportion in Scotland and Wales. In 1944, these schools were incorporated into national, state-maintained, provision. In England and Wales, those with a large degree of state support became Voluntary Controlled schools, and those retaining more powers for the church became Voluntary Aided schools, and have now been joined by a small

number of Muslim and Sikh schools. Faith-based schools have particular issues of teacher recruitment and retention: they prefer to appoint members of their own faith communities to teaching posts. However, Catholic schools sometimes find difficulty in appointing practising Catholics to more senior posts, and Church of England schools have particular difficulties in attracting practising Anglicans to teach (Ross, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c).

Sectors and types of state maintained schools

80. Compulsory schooling is from the start of the term following the fifth birthday (England, Wales and Scotland) (fourth birthday, Northern Ireland) until the end of June in the school year during which the pupil becomes 16 years old. (However, in England many children enter school before they are five years old). Education between these ages is normally divided into a primary phase and a secondary phase, with the division generally occurring in the summer after the eleventh birthday. Some areas of England have a system of middle schools, either from 9-12 or 10-13.
81. There are also in all four countries Special Schools, for children with particular learning needs, and in England, Pupil Referral Units, which are small units with a low teacher-pupil ratio for children with particular behavioural or other difficulties (see §432).
82. In most of Northern Ireland, and in some areas within a small number of English Local Education Authorities (LEAs), there is selective secondary education. In the English areas with selection, there is an examination in the last year of primary education, the 11+, and those pupils judged more able (between 10% and 25%, depending on area) attend secondary Grammar Schools; the remaining pupils attend what are called Comprehensive Schools (but, as they do not take all pupils, they are not comprehensive in intake). In Northern Ireland most secondary education is selective, and following a transfer test in the last year of primary schools, pupils attend Grammar Schools or Secondary Schools. Post-primary arrangements are currently under review (see §42).

State maintained schools in England and Wales

83. *The School Standards and Framework Act 1998* reorganised the categories of mainstream maintained school into three: community, foundation and voluntary. The voluntary school category is further divided into aided and controlled. Schools in all three categories work in partnership with other schools and with LEAs and they all receive most of their funding from LEAs, in accordance with an allocation formula which is the same for all categories of school with the same characteristics within the same LEA. Each category has its own particular characteristics:
 - Community Schools: the LEA employs the school's staff, owns the school's land and buildings and has primary responsibility for deciding the arrangements for admitting pupils;
 - Foundation Schools: the governing body (see §108-110) employs the school's staff and has primary responsibility for admission arrangements. The school's land and buildings are owned by the governing body or by a charitable foundation;
 - Voluntary Aided Schools: the governing body employs the school's staff and has primary responsibility for admission arrangements. The school's land and buildings are normally owned by a charitable foundation. The governing body contributes towards the capital costs of running schools;
 - Voluntary Controlled Schools: the LEA employs the school's staff and has primary responsibility for admission arrangements. The school's land and buildings are normally owned by a charitable foundation.
84. In England, schools receive their core funding direct from central government, through two streams: Core Funding, which is a simple Age Weighted Pupil Unit, and funding related to a school's participation in one of the government's initiatives specifically aimed at raising standards and sharing good practice through collaboration (Beacon School - see §94, or specialist school - see §87-90). Schools also receive Formula Funding - additional funding for particular individuals or groups of children. These funds are often administered through the LEA according to approved formulae for such activities as Excellence in Cities (§91-93) (such as providing mentors), Social Inclusion Pupil Support, and the prevention of exclusion. There is also a funding formula that includes a

‘disadvantage’ weighting, and for Special Educational Needs, where each child with such needs has individual funding based on their statement of need.

85. In Wales, the bulk of funding for schools is provided by the National Assembly to the LEAs through a local government revenue settlement. LEAs distribute the great majority of funding to schools’ delegated budgets, using a funding formula based largely on pupil numbers.
86. About a quarter of schools in Wales use Welsh as the sole or principal medium of instruction.

Initiatives in England: Specialist schools, Excellence in Cities and Beacon schools

87. A Specialist Schools programme encourages schools, in partnership with private sector sponsors and supported by additional Government funding, to establish distinctive identities through their chosen specialisms. Specialist schools focus on their chosen subject area but must meet the full National Curriculum requirements (see §113-117) and deliver a broad and balanced education to all pupils. The Ofsted survey of the programme *Specialist Schools: An Evaluation of Progress* (2001a) found that the specialist status has helped most schools to sustain or accelerate the pace of whole-school improvement. Specialist schools are also expected to work with other local schools and the wider community.
88. Specialist schools aim to:
 - raise achievement, particularly in the specialist subjects, for all pupils;
 - extend the range of opportunities available to pupils, and raise teaching and learning standards;
 - develop a visible specialism, reflected in the school’s aims;
 - benefit other schools in the area; and
 - strengthen the links between schools and private or charitable sector sponsors. Sponsors will not only support the specialism with cash or goods sponsorship, but will also take an ongoing role in the development of the school.
89. Any maintained secondary school in England which is not in serious weaknesses or special measures (see §27-9) may apply to be designated as a specialist school in one of eight specialist areas: language, sports, arts (performing, visual or media), business and enterprise, technology, engineering, science, and mathematics and computing. From October 2003 two further specialisms, music and humanities, will be available. Schools can also combine two specialisms. Schools designated in their chosen specialist area are referred to as Colleges (for example, Science Colleges).
90. Since the Programme’s inception in 1994, 1,209 specialist schools have been designated across all areas of England. The Government has set a target to increase the number of specialist schools to at least 2,000 by the year 2006, as an interim towards all schools becoming specialist schools.
91. Excellence in Cities (EiC) is a programme delivered by partnerships between local authorities and their secondary schools in cities with substantial levels of deprivation. It currently involves 58 authorities in the main programme. There are now also Excellence Clusters of smaller groups of schools in pockets of deprivation elsewhere. In an earlier initiative, groups of schools working with some private financial support were able to become Education Action Zones in areas of significant deprivation. These generated local approaches supported by national funding to raise attainment. Over the next three years they will be re-designated as Excellence Clusters.
92. EiC provides: extended opportunities for gifted and talented pupils; Learning Mentors to remove barriers to learning; and Learning Support Units to tackle disruption. In addition there are policies aimed at strengthening schools as institutions through the strategic use of Beacon and specialist schools; and through a network of City Learning Centres providing access for all schools to up-to-date IT opportunities. EiC now includes leadership development which has become a major element with the establishment of the Leadership Incentive Grant.
93. EiC was introduced in three phases from 1999 and covers selected primary schools in the 25 first phase partnerships through the Primary Extension Project. The government is currently making available over £300 million a year to fund EiC. This figure is expected to rise to over £700 million by the financial year 2005-06, taking into account expansion and new targeted initiatives. Ofsted reports

that the programme is having a good effect in primary and secondary schools in areas of disadvantage, and that primary schools in EiC areas have improved their performance in tests taken at age 11 faster than schools nationally (Ofsted, 2003). There is also positive feedback from independent evaluation; head teachers and teachers believe that the programme is beneficial (Kington *et al.*, 2002; Stoney *et al.*, 2002).

94. The Beacon schools initiative was introduced in 1998 to raise standards through the dissemination of good practice. The 1,150 Beacon schools across England were identified as being amongst the best performing schools in the country representing examples of successful practice that could be shared with others. Beacon schools offer advice on a wide range of areas. Some are working with schools facing challenging circumstances or with serious weaknesses. Others provide support through parental involvement and contribute to initial teacher training and continuing professional development. The Beacon initiative is being phased out over the period to 2005, and is being replaced by the Leading Edge Programme, which strengthens the sharing of good practice and collaborative working between schools.

State maintained schools in Scotland

95. All non-private schools are publicly maintained; there are no voluntary schools in Scotland. Church schools that have chosen to transfer to the education authority, rather than be independent, became 'public schools', although they can make separate arrangements for denominational instruction. Most of these are Roman Catholic.
96. The New Community Schools initiative was launched in 1998 and there are currently 62 pilot projects in areas of greater deprivation. New Community Schools address the fact that there are many factors which affect achievement at school, and that it is necessary to look at achievement in the widest sense; on their own schools cannot address all the barriers to children's learning. A team approach is key: integrated provision of services and integrated response to needs and aspirations. In New Community Schools, teachers, social workers, community education workers, health professionals and others play their part as members of a single team working together to provide the services which individual children need. Projects vary from single primary or secondary schools to variations on a cluster theme: groups of primary and nursery schools or family centres and secondary schools together with the primary schools with which they are associated. Ongoing evaluation is taking place at national and local levels.

Grant-aided schools in Northern Ireland

97. Schools that are funded by the state in Northern Ireland are known as grant-aided schools. There are five types of school in Northern Ireland:
- Controlled Schools, managed by the Education and Library Boards (ELBs) through School Boards of Governors, which include, in primary and secondary schools, representatives of the Transferors (the Protestant Churches), parents, teachers and ELB representatives. Controlled Grammar, Special and Nursery Schools only have parent, teacher and ELB Governors.
 - Within the controlled sector there is a small but growing number of controlled integrated schools.
 - Voluntary (Maintained) Schools, managed by Boards of Governors that consist of members nominated by trustees (mainly Roman Catholic), with representatives of parents, teachers and the ELBs. Voluntary schools vary in the rates of capital grant to which they are entitled, depending on the management structures they have adopted. A majority are entitled to capital grants at 100%. A few still preserve a modicum of independence, and some teach in the Irish language. The Department of Education (DE) has a statutory duty to 'encourage and facilitate' Irish-medium education under the *Education (Northern Ireland) Order 1998*, and has established a promotional body 'Comhairle na Gaelscolaíochta', and an Irish-medium Trust Fund 'Iontaobhas na Gaelscolaíochta' to promote and support the strategic development of the sector.
 - Voluntary (Non-Maintained) Schools: Mainly voluntary grammar schools managed by Boards of Governors which consist of foundation appointees with representatives of parents and teachers (and, in some cases, members appointed by the DE or the ELBs). Voluntary Grammar Schools were funded directly by the DE, but have from 1998 been funded by the ELBs.

- Grant Maintained Integrated Schools: in recent years a number of grant-maintained integrated schools have been established at primary level and post-primary levels. Such schools were funded directly by the DE but have been funded by the ELBs from 1998.

Private schools

98. In England and Wales, the *Education Act* 1996 defines an independent school as ‘any school at which full-time education is provided for five or more pupils of compulsory school age (whether or not such education is also provided for pupils over or under that age), not being a school maintained by a local education authority’. In Northern Ireland, the *Education (NI) Order* 1996 provides a similar definition but does not specify a minimum number of pupils. In Scotland, the *Standards in Scotland’s Schools etc. Act* 2000 provides for registration of such schools, but again with no minimum size.
99. Most independent schools receive no state funding and are financed through fees and charitable donations. Though other names are used, such as private and public schools, they all now tend to describe themselves as independent schools.
100. Preparatory schools are independent schools that admit pupils aged seven or eight to 12 or 13. Pupils then take the Common Entrance examination for admission to senior schools (12 or 13 years to 18 years). There are also pre-preparatory schools or departments that admit pupils below the age of seven or eight years. Some independent schools cater for the same age ranges as state schools, that is, 3-5 years, 5-11 years and 11-18 years.
101. There are a number of independent schools and non-maintained special schools catering wholly or mainly for pupils with special educational needs. Most non-maintained special schools are run by major charities or charitable trusts.
102. Independent schools must be registered with the education department of the country they are in. The regulatory requirements are laid down for England and Wales in Sections 463-478 of the *Education Act* 1996. Northern Ireland and Scotland are regulated by Articles 38-43 of the *Education and Libraries (NI) Order* 1986, and Sections 24-25 of the *Standards in Scotland’s Schools etc. Act* 2000. However, there are very few independent schools in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (see §78).

Governance of schools

103. Responsibility for education is divided, in each country, between the central Department, the local authority, and the Governors or Board of each school.
104. In England, the DfEE paper *The Role of the Local Education Authority in School Education* (DfEE, 2000c) sets out the LEA’s role and proposes new ways of providing key services to schools in England. While schools have the main responsibility for raising standards, LEAs support schools to achieve continuous improvement. LEAs have a number of essential functions, some of which are not undertaken by schools: support for special educational needs, access and school transport, school improvement and tackling failure, educating excluded pupils and pupil welfare, and the strategic management needed to underpin these functions. LEAs are expected to maximise delegation of both funding and responsibility to schools, to help them become more genuinely self-managing, and able to make well informed choices among different service providers.
105. LEAs work with local partners to contribute to cross-cutting approaches to tackling deprivation. Education is central to the community strategies that local authorities are developing to promote the economic, environmental and social well-being of their areas. Schools and groups of schools have a key role in regenerating communities, and the LEA can help co-ordinate support to enable them to contribute most effectively. LEAs in England and Wales, and ELBs in Northern Ireland, also have a key role in helping to implement national initiatives (such as the literacy and numeracy strategies) and in early years and childhood development plans and provision.
106. The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted), and in Wales, Estyn (Her Majesty’s Inspectorate for Education and Training in Wales), are responsible for the inspections of LEAs, conducted by a team

led by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), which may also include Audit Commission staff. LEAs will normally be informed at least three months before the proposed date of inspection. Each inspection aims to review, and report on, the way in which the LEA performs its functions and, in particular, to determine the contribution of LEA support, including support to individual pupils, to school improvement and to high standards of achievement.

107. Where an inspection reveals that an LEA is failing to exercise its functions and duties effectively, the *School Standards and Framework Act 1998* gives the Secretary of State in England, and the National Assembly in Wales, the power to intervene to secure satisfactory provision. A follow-up inspection will usually take place one year after the initial inspection but may occur earlier if requested by the Secretary of State.
108. School governing bodies in England and Wales consist of appointed, elected and co-opted governors. All governing bodies include parent, teacher and LEA governors. All but the smallest primary schools will also include a non-teaching staff governor. Head teachers may choose whether or not to be governors. Depending on the type of school, the governing body may also include partnership, foundation, co-opted or representative governors. The composition of a governing body depends on the size and age range of pupils at the school as well as the school's category (community, voluntary or foundation). In Voluntary Aided schools the foundation governors must be in the majority. For community and Voluntary Controlled schools, the LEA are responsible for all parent, teacher and staff governor elections, unless they have delegated this function to the head teacher. The governing body is responsible for elections in foundation and Voluntary Aided schools.
109. Governing bodies in England and Wales have a wide range of responsibilities and powers. Currently, they:
 - help to raise standards of pupil achievement;
 - plan the school's future direction;
 - select the head teacher;
 - make decisions on the school's budget and staffing;
 - establish and implement a performance management policy for appraising all staff;
 - make sure the National Curriculum is taught;
 - decide how the school can encourage pupils' spiritual, moral and cultural development;
 - make sure the school provides for all its pupils, including those with special needs;
 - are accountable for the performance of the school to parents and the wider community.
110. The *Education Act 2002* allows governing bodies, from September 2003, to hold joint meetings, or set up joint committees, with other schools to make shared decisions on matters of common interest. The Act also allows two or more schools to federate under a single governing body, while retaining their individual identities as separate schools.
111. In Scotland School Boards exist for each school, with elected representatives of parents and teachers, and members co-opted by these two groups. School Boards have a special duty to represent and communicate with parents: they must also be involved in the appointment of senior staff and approve the head teacher's spending proposals for books and equipment. School Boards should carry out these functions with a view to raising the standard of education at the school (Peck and Ramsey, 2000).

Types of school curriculum and programme

112. There are different national curriculum provisions in each of the four countries.
113. In England and Wales, the National Curriculum was originally established by the *Education Reform Act 1988*. The National Curriculum for England and the National Curriculum for Wales are now established separately by the *Education Act 2002*. The two National Curricula remain similar in many respects. They define the minimum educational entitlement for pupils of compulsory school age. The National Curriculum is governed by broad teaching requirements that comprise:
 - inclusion, providing effective learning opportunities for all pupils;

- the use of language across the curriculum;
 - the use of information and communication technology (ICT) across the curriculum; and
 - health and safety.
114. The National Curriculum includes the following subjects: English, mathematics, science, design and technology, information and communication technology, history, geography, art and design, music, physical education, and from age 11, modern foreign languages and citizenship. The content of each National Curriculum subject is defined in a statutory order. Each Order consists of:
- common requirements which relate to access to the curriculum for all pupils; pupils' use of language; pupils' access to information technology; and to the Curriculum Cymreig (in Wales);
 - the programme of study which sets out the minimum knowledge, understanding and skills for the subject at each stage, and the breadth of study or contexts through which these will be taught;
 - attainment targets and level descriptors which provide the basis for judging pupil attainment at particular stages.
115. All state schools must provide pupils with a curriculum that: is balanced and broadly based; promotes their spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development; prepares them for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life; and includes, in addition to the National Curriculum, religious education, and for secondary pupils, sex education and careers education from the age of 13.
116. The two National Curricula do not constitute the whole curriculum for schools. Schools have discretion to develop the whole curriculum to reflect their particular needs and circumstances. The National Curriculum applies to all pupils aged 5–16 in maintained schools. They do not apply in independent schools although those schools may choose to follow them.
117. In England, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) is responsible for monitoring, disseminating and reviewing the National Curriculum.
118. In Wales the Awdurdod Cymwysterau, Cwricwlwm ac Asesu Cymru (ACCAC)/ Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales is responsible for reviewing and developing the curriculum. The curriculum differs in that Welsh is included as a core subject for all pupils aged 5-16. All schools in Wales, therefore, teach Welsh as a first or second language and about a quarter use Welsh as the sole or main medium of instruction. In addition, it is planned that in Wales, from September 2003, maintained schools will be required to provide Personal and Social Education for all pupils aged 5-16. Similarly, it is planned that schools will be required to provide work-related education from September 2004 for all pupils aged 14-16.
119. The Northern Ireland Curriculum was established by the *Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order* 1989 and introduced into schools in 1990; the curriculum was amended in 1996 and is currently under review. The Northern Ireland Council for Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (CCEA) sets out a curriculum that is compulsory in all grant-aided schools, of religious education and English, mathematics, science and technology, environment and society studies, creative and expressive studies, Irish (for Irish-medium schools) and modern languages (in secondary schools). The curriculum also contains six compulsory cross-curricular themes: education for mutual understanding, cultural heritage, health education, information technology, and - in secondary schools - economic awareness and careers education.
120. The Scottish curriculum is less prescriptive than its counterparts in the rest of the UK. Scotland does not have a statutory curriculum, but education authorities and head teachers follow general national guidelines to ensure the breadth and balance of pupils' compulsory education. A recently-established body, Learning and Teaching in Scotland, keeps it under review, issuing guidance to education authorities and schools, and promoting a programme of curriculum development work with the education authorities. The '5-14 curriculum' extending from primary into secondary education is taken from the best practice already in schools. It covers language (Gaelic is also used in a small number of schools, and modern languages are taught in secondary schools), mathematics, environmental studies, expressive arts, religious and moral education, personal and social development and health education. National guidelines give teachers advice on what each of these

areas is about rather than instructions on the range of skills, knowledge and understanding that have to be taught to every pupil in every school. They also describe how progress should be measured using targets that most children should be able to reach by particular ages.

2.3 Teachers in employment

121. There has been an increase in the number of teachers employed in each country over the past ten years. Table 2.1 shows the percentage increase on the position a decade earlier. However, it should also be noted that school pupil numbers also grew over the same period - by 2.1% in Northern Ireland, considerably less than the growth in teacher numbers, by 2.8% in Wales, slightly more than the growth in teacher numbers, and by 8.8% in England, which is 3.8% more than the growth in teacher numbers. In England, the current government made a commitment in its manifesto to increase the number of teachers. There are plans to employ at least 10,000 more full-time equivalent teachers by January 2005 than were in place in 2001. Numbers have increased by 9,400 between January 2001 and January 2002 (3,600 qualified and 5,800 unqualified teachers - for information on unqualified teachers see §127-9) (DfES, 2002k). For more detail on changing pupil and teachers numbers in England, see Figure 3.2, p.32.

Table 2.1: Changes in the number of teachers in the past decade, by country and sector

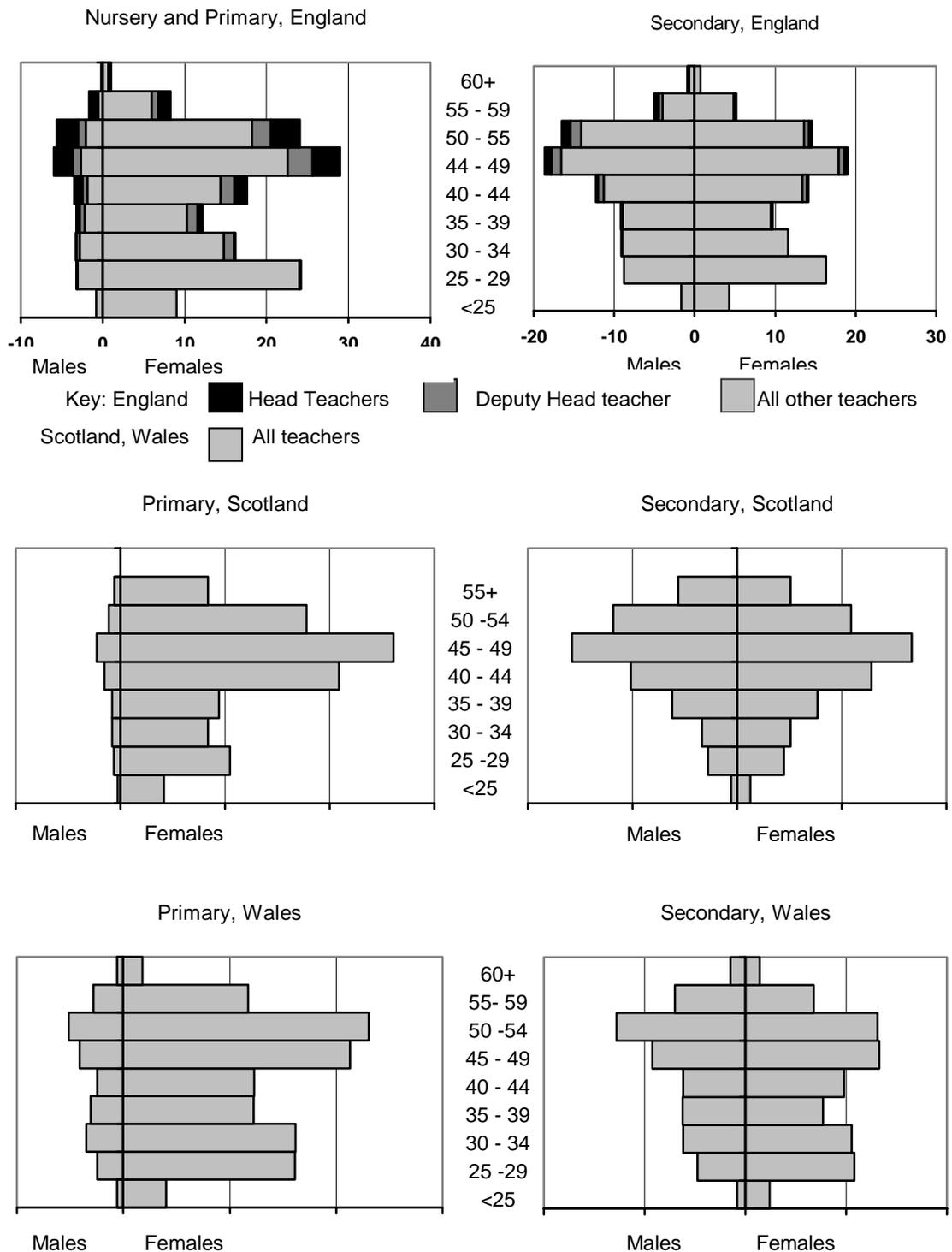
England (full-time equivalent)			
	1992	2002	Change
Maintained schools*	379,507	398,662	+5.0%
Nursery	1,632	1,534	-6.0%
Primary	177,873	187,409	+5.4%
Secondary	183,555	192,910	+5.1%
Special*	16,447	14,528	-11.7%
Pupil Referral Unit		2,281	
Independent schools	52,558	57,346	+9.1%
* the figure for special schools also includes a small number of non-maintained special schools.			
Wales			
	1990/91	2001/02 (provisional)	
Maintained schools	24,720	26,503	+7.2%
Nursery	118	91	-22.9%
Primary	12,001	12,902	+7.5%
Secondary	12,026	12,955	+7.7%
Special	575	555	-3.5%
Independent schools	1,232	948	-23.1
Northern Ireland			
	1990/91	2001/02 (provisional)	
Maintained schools	18,596	20,474	+11.6%
Nursery	155	195	+25.8%
Primary	8,271	8,940	+8.1%
Secondary	9,596	10,809	+12.6%
Special	574	803	+39.9%
Independent schools	93	130	+39.8
Scotland			
	1990/91	2001/02 (provisional)	
Maintained schools	48,459	48,870	
Nursery	892	...	
Primary	22,632	22,289	-1.5%
Secondary	23,988	24,552	+2.4%
Special	1,839	2,029	+10.3%
Independent schools	3,282	3,272	-0.3%

Sources: see Appendix 3, Table A3.1

122. The age structure of the teaching force that is employed in each country is uneven, with a preponderance of teachers in the older age groups. The best way to illustrate the variations in age,

gender and sector is by means of age pyramids. Figure 2.1 shows these for England and Wales (2002) and Scotland (1998). Comparable data for Northern Ireland is not published; however, the Teachers' Health and Well-Being Survey (DE Northern Ireland, 2001a) indicated that 71.3% of the profession was female and that 69.1% of teachers are aged 35-64. The bulk of school principals (45% females and 55% males) are aged 45-54.

Figure 2.1: Percentage age pyramids, teachers in England, Wales (2002) and Scotland (1998)



Sources: DfES (2002m) *Educational Statistics: Teachers* Table 26; Scottish Executive (2000b) *Teachers in Scotland, September 1998*, Table 3; GTC Wales (2002b) *Annual Statistics Digest, 2002*, Table 1.6.

123. The English data also shows the distribution of head and deputy head posts by gender and age. In England, male teachers are predominantly older (over 45): this is particularly striking in the secondary sector. The numbers of teachers in their 30s is low: this is in part due to women taking maternity leave. Also of note is the disproportionate number of head and deputy head positions taken up by men, particularly in the primary sector, but also in secondary schools (see Hutchings, 2002a).
124. The Scottish figures show an even greater predominance of women in primary teaching. In comparison with England, a higher proportion of teachers are in the older age groups in both primary and secondary sectors.
125. These demographic characteristics are of great significance for the future of the teaching workforce. The proportion of teachers over 45 years of age is high. As will be seen in Chapter 6, about 58% of these teachers elect to retire when they are between 55 and 59. Thus in England, 45% of all current teachers may retire in the next fifteen to sixteen years, including 50% of all male teachers. If the recruitment of men into secondary teaching in England continues at the level of the past twenty years, the proportion of male secondary teachers will fall to just over 40%. In Scotland, 50% of all current primary teachers may retire in the next ten to fifteen years, and a further 19% in the following five years. Fifty-nine per cent of male secondary teachers are 45 or over, and 77% are over 40. The teaching workforce is ageing, and demographic trends point to it becoming increasingly feminised.
126. The figures given so far have been for full-time equivalents; it should be noted that a proportion of teachers work on a part-time basis. In England, 18.7% of all teachers work part-time (22.1% of women; 10.3% of men). The number of part-time teachers has risen from about 30,000 in the mid 1980s to 67,000 in 2001. Part-time teaching appears to be seen by some teachers as offering a better work-life balance, and can be attractive to those with family responsibilities.

Unqualified teachers

127. While the majority of teachers have a teaching qualification, it is possible to work as an unqualified teacher, except in Scotland, where all teachers must have a qualification. In maintained primary and secondary schools in England in January 2002, there were some 9,000 full-time and 17,000 part-time teaching staff other than qualified teachers; this is equivalent to 11,600 full-timers in total (DfES, 2002d, Table 27a).
128. Some of these unqualified teachers in England are on employment-based routes (§246-9) leading to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (§218-224). Numbers in this group are up from 500 in 1997 to 3,300 in 2002. This group includes some overseas-trained teachers who are working to gain QTS (DfES, 2002k).
129. The majority of unqualified teachers in England are not on routes to obtain QTS; their numbers have risen sharply from 2,500 full-time equivalent (or 0.6% of all teachers) in 1997, to 4,300 (1.0%) in 2001, and 8,100 (1.9%) in 2002. This group includes instructors (those possessing specialist knowledge, and often valuable expertise, employed only when qualified teachers are not available), foreign language assistants, and temporary teachers who trained outside the UK and may work in maintained schools for up to four years without obtaining QTS. In addition, some supply teachers working on contracts of less than one month (termed 'occasional' teachers in the data) are unqualified, generally because they are overseas-trained teachers). On the date teacher statistics were collected in 2002, 17,500 supply teachers were employed for the whole day (i.e. 4% of all teachers). However, it is not recorded how many of these had QTS (DfES, 2002k).

2.4 Personnel other than teachers

130. Data on those working in schools other than teachers are not published for Northern Ireland, but there is considerable detail on the position in England, where there has been a programme to expand and systemise school support staff. The current government's manifesto commitment to recruit at least 20,000 additional support staff by 2005 has already been met, and it is now expected that 50,000 full-time equivalent support staff will be employed in 2005 than were in post in 2001. The role of support staff is also being developed. A consultation paper, *Developing the Role of School Support Staff* (DfES, 2002e) was published as part of the package *Time for Standards: Reforming the*

School Workforce (DfES, 2002b), which invited comments on plans for: a further expansion of the numbers of support staff; their future roles, training and development; and arrangements for their management and supervision. A national agreement was reached in early 2003 (DfES, 2003b): this is described in §445-7.

131. There are 216,000 non-teaching staff (full-time equivalents - FTEs) in maintained schools in England (DfES, 2002e.). The largest groups of these are (DfES, 2002d, Table 27b):

	<i>Primary Schools</i>	<i>Secondary Schools</i>	<i>Special schools</i>
Teaching assistants	42,900	4,700	7,100
Special Needs Support staff	24,600	14,500	7,000
Secretaries	14,500	9,400	1,400
School Bursars	1,900	2,700	300
Other admin/clerical staff	6,600	11,500	800
Technicians	600	15,600	300
Other educational support staff	26,400	9,300	3,500

132. This sector has grown very rapidly over the past five years: total numbers rose by 28,000 FTEs between January 2001 and January 2002. The largest group are teaching assistants, who play a particularly significant role in literacy and numeracy teaching in primary schools, where they have had a positive impact (Lee, 2002): there has been a shift in emphasis from providing individual support to pupils with special educational needs or disabilities (which still continues) to providing learning support for a wider group of pupils.
133. It is now proposed to continue this expansion at a rapid rate, as part of the process of re-modelling the school workforce. In particular, support staff will be expected to assist classroom teachers with routine administrative and other tasks, take on some higher-level tasks more directly associated with teaching, support school-wide behaviour management policies, provide ICT technical support, and provide administrative support for head teachers. However, recent research by the National Foundation for Educational Research suggests that the increased number of teaching assistants has not necessarily led to reductions in teacher workload, nor allowing them extra time to concentrate on teaching-related tasks such as planning and preparation. It has instead given teachers additional management and planning tasks in directing the work of these assistants (Lee, 2002). The national agreement (§445-7) proposes, in parallel with the expansion of support staff, contractual changes to provide teachers with guaranteed time for planning, preparation and assessment, and leadership and management time. New research is being put in place to assess the impact of these changes.
134. A training and career pattern is being established for support staff, with three main career pathways envisaged: pedagogical, behaviour and guidance, and administrative and organisation. Training programmes are being developed, particularly for the newly-established higher level teaching assistant roles (where it is intended to support 20,000 staff a year in training).
135. Guidance is being drawn up setting out the activities of which only a qualified teacher is capable; those teaching activities which could be undertaken by staff without QTS, subject to an appropriate degree of supervision by a qualified teacher; and activities that do not necessarily require any professional involvement from a qualified teacher. There will be new responsibilities and duties for teachers relating to the supervision of support staff undertaking teaching activities, but the guidance will provide clarity which should allow teachers to focus more clearly on the direction of teaching and learning: the National Foundation for Educational Research's recent research suggests that where there is effective collaboration, teachers and teaching assistants working as a team produce very positive results for pupils (Lee, 2002).
136. Similar trends have been followed in Scotland, although there are a number of significant differences in the way that non-teaching staffing strategies have been developed. The McCrone agreement (Scottish Executive, 2001) stated that the deployment of additional support staff across a wide range of tasks and functions such as administration, finance and secretarial services was important, both in addressing teacher workload, and in bringing into education professional skills which are appropriate to the range of activities required. Tasks that should not routinely be carried out by teachers were

identified. Recent surveys have shown that over 7,000 non-teaching adults work in classrooms, and that secretarial and other management support staff have also increased in number.

2.5 Organisations involved in the development of policies concerning teachers

137. The government department with lead responsibility for the development of teacher policies in England is the Department for Education and Skills. In the devolved countries the relevant department of the executive takes responsibility for policies relating to teachers: the Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED), the Department of Education Northern Ireland (DE Northern Ireland), and the Department for Training and Education of the National Assembly for Wales. The government departments work in partnership with other stakeholders and organisations.
138. Parliamentary scrutiny in England comes from the House of Commons Education and Skills Select Committee, which comprises about 11 back-bench Members of Parliament drawn from all parties (although the government of the day will hold a majority). Their remit is to scrutinise Departmental policy, and to this end they will undertake about ten inquiries a year where they will call on both written and oral evidence from relevant and interested parties. These have, from time to time, concerned the supply and retention of teachers. Inquiries, which take about two months to complete, often start with the Committee calling for written evidence from the Department and invariably conclude with questions (oral evidence) from the appropriate Government Minister. The Scottish Parliament has a similar Parliamentary Committee for Education, Culture and Sport made up of seven Scottish Members of Parliament, who, *inter alia*, 'consider and report on matters relating to school and pre-school education and such other matters as fall within the responsibility of the Minister for Education and Young People'. The Northern Ireland Assembly (when it is in operation) has an Education Committee of 11 Assembly members, who advise and assist the Minister of Education in the formulation of policy and undertake a scrutiny, policy development and consultation role. In Wales, the Welsh Assembly has an Education Committee of ten members (which includes the Minister), with a remit based on the Minister's portfolio and the review of education policy in areas which it has identified as either having no cohesive or national policy or where an existing policy needs to be revisited.
139. The Teacher Training Agency (TTA) is an executive non-departmental public body established by the *Education Act* 1994. It works mainly in England, but also has some roles in Wales - see below. Its purpose is to raise standards in schools by attracting able and committed people to teaching and by improving the quality of teacher training. Thus it has responsibility for the teacher training curriculum and the standards for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) and induction; for allocating numbers and funding to providers of initial teacher training, and for providing information to potential applicants. The TTA works closely with the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) to support its delivery plans. In Wales the Welsh Assembly Government works alongside the TTA in respect of the promotion of teaching as a career to ensure information and assistance is made available to those wishing to train and teach in Wales, and funds this work, media campaigns and other related matters (including a Teacher Recruitment Adviser for Wales post) within the TTA. The Welsh Assembly Government sets numbers for initial teacher training, and the responsibility for accrediting and funding initial teacher training in higher education institutions and for allocating training places to them rests with the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales. In Scotland the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council allocates numbers for teacher training on the advice of the Scottish Executive Education Department. In Northern Ireland the Department of Education sets numbers.
140. The work of teachers has been evaluated as part of the inspection of schools by central and local government since the inception of state education in the 19th century. Her Majesty's Inspectors of schools (HMI) have had a status independent of the various government departments responsible for education, and were established separately in England, Wales and Scotland. In 1992 the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) was established for England and Wales; the frequency of inspections increased, and more defined schedules of inspection were introduced, which included specific evaluation of the performance of teachers that was observed on inspection visits. These judgements of individuals were, however, not made public and were subsumed in an overall judgement and

report on the school, which was published. HMI always operated as a separate agency in Scotland, and was reformed as HM Inspectorate (HMIE) as an Executive Agency of the Scottish Executive in 2001. In Northern Ireland the inspection services are carried out by the Education and Training Inspectorate (ETI), who provide inspection services for the Department of Education, the Department for Employment and Learning, and the Department of Culture, Arts and Leisure. In Wales HMI (Wales) was established in 1992 and became responsible to the National Assembly for Wales as Estyn (Her Majesty's Inspectorate for Education and Training in Wales) on devolution.

141. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) acts as a national forum for the discussion of matters relating to the education of teachers and to the study of education in the university sector, and it contributes to the formulation of policy in these fields. Its members are UK universities and colleges of higher education involved in teacher education.
142. Each country has a General Teaching Council. The GTC for Scotland was set up in 1965, and was one of the first such councils in the world. The GTCs for England and for Wales started in 2000, and for Northern Ireland in 2002. The fundamental principles underlying the work the Councils is that of professional self-government. They have common aims to advise the relevant government departments on teaching issues such as recruitment and professional development, and to maintain and enhance professional standards.
143. The National Employers' Organisation for School Teachers (NEOST) is the representative body for local education authorities in England and Wales on matters related to school teachers' pay and conditions. NEOST comprises representatives from the Local Government Association, the Catholic Education Service, the Church of England Board of Education and the Foundation and Voluntary Aided Schools Association. In Scotland, the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (CoSLA) acts in this capacity. Northern Ireland has its own Teachers' Salaries and Conditions of Service Negotiating Committee. Its membership comprises the Department of Education, the main employing authorities (see Chapter 5) and teacher representatives from the five recognised teacher unions.
144. There are sixteen professional teacher associations or unions in the UK. One of these is specific to Wales, four to Scotland, and three to Northern Ireland (though one of these is based in Eire), and the remaining eight operate across the UK (two of these being for heads of independent schools). Seven associations are specifically for head teachers; two of these are in Scotland (Figure 2.2).
145. The level of union membership is high: teaching, like other public sector occupations, has always had high unionisation. A particular incentive for teachers is the legal protection offered. In Northern Ireland it is estimated that 80% of teachers are union members. The figures for membership of the main teacher unions in England exceed the number of teachers in post; however, these unions also operate outside England and some have members in Further Education colleges or who are students or retired. Thus it is difficult to estimate the proportion of serving teachers who are members.
146. The School Teachers' Review Body (STRB) was established under the *School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act* 1991. Its remit is to examine, and report to the Secretary of State, matters relating to statutory conditions of employment of school teachers in England and Wales. Its recommendations cover the duties and working conditions of teachers as well as their remuneration. Unless there are compelling reasons to the contrary, the government has undertaken to implement the recommendations of the Review Body. The STRB works on an annual cycle reporting to the DfES each year in January in respect of the pay settlement due the following April. It may also be directed to report on specific issues such as teacher workload. It is required to take evidence from interested parties, including bodies representing teachers, the LEA employers' organisation (NEOST, §143), governors of community, foundation and voluntary aided schools and the Secretary of State and others the STRB deems appropriate. The chairman of the STRB is appointed by the Prime Minister, and members of the STRB are appointed by the Secretary of State.

Figure 2.2: Teacher associations and unions in the UK

	<i>Non UK (Eire)</i>	<i>Northern Ireland</i>	<i>England</i>	<i>Wales</i>	<i>Scotland</i>
Head Teachers		National Association of Head Teachers			Association of Headteachers in Scotland
		Secondary Heads Association (NI)	Secondary Heads Association		Headteachers' Association of Scotland
Head Teachers (Private schools)		Headmasters and Headmistresses Conference			
		Society of Headmasters and Headmistress of Independent Schools			
Teachers		Professional Association of Teachers			
		National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers			
		Association of Teachers and Lecturers			Educational Institute of Scotland
		Ulster Teachers' Association	National Union of Teachers		Scottish Secondary Teachers' Association
	Irish National Teachers' Organisation (based in Eire)			Undeb Cenedlaethol Athrawon Cymru	

3: ATTRACTING ABLE PEOPLE INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

3.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

147. The extent to which there are concerns about attracting people into the teaching profession varies by country and region, and across secondary subjects. England has suffered from phases of teacher shortage (concentrated in urban areas and in and around London) interspersed with longer periods when supply has been generally adequate; there have been ongoing concerns about recruiting sufficient teachers in some secondary subjects. Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales generally have no difficulties (though in each country there are concerns about recruitment in specific subjects). However, Wales has adopted some of the same policies as England because of its proximity (§11).
148. This chapter describes
- i. methods used to determine teacher shortages, and areas of teacher shortage;
 - ii. the inflow of teachers into the maintained sector;
 - iii. the main pathways by which people can become teachers (including trends in teacher training numbers, the extent to which those entering training go on to become teachers; reasons why people enter teaching ; and initiatives taken to attract more people into teaching)
 - iv. teachers' salaries in comparison to those of other graduate professions;
 - v. those returning to teaching after a career break;
 - vi. the recruitment of overseas teachers; and
 - vii. future policy developments.

3.2 Data, trends and factors

Methods used to determine teacher shortages, and areas of teacher shortage

149. The main measure used to determine teacher shortage is the vacancy rate. Teacher vacancies have long been among the data collected from schools in England and Wales, but have only recently been collected in Scotland and are not collected in Northern Ireland. In England and Wales the data about vacancies is collected from schools once a year in mid-January. A vacancy is defined by the DfES and the Welsh Assembly Government as a post that has been advertised for a full-time permanent appointment (or appointments of at least a term's duration) but has not been filled; the count includes vacancies that are being filled on a temporary basis of less than one term. This definition is precise, and allows comparisons to be made over time. However, it may underestimate the difficulties experienced by schools. Part-time posts and fixed-term posts that are unfilled are not categorised as vacancies. Moreover, many posts are filled on a temporary basis for one term or more (often by agency staff), and thus do not count as vacancies, yet the school may lack fully committed staff and may suffer lack of stability and continuity. The survey form used to collect data in 2002 was changed to include data on temporarily filled posts: these are defined as posts that are temporarily filled for up to three terms (unless the incumbent is on sick, maternity or other paid leave, training or secondment) and posts that have not been advertised, but the definition excludes those posts categorised as vacancies. This additional data allows a more detailed picture of school needs by providing more information about posts that are not permanently filled, and has also helped schools and local authorities to interpret the vacancy definition more accurately (DfES, 2002k).

150. It should be noted that when a vacancy is reported this does not necessarily indicate a shortage of teachers in the school. In England and Wales the number of teachers employed in a school is determined by the governing body (see §312). If the school receives additional funding, it may well create an additional teaching post, which, when advertised, becomes a vacancy. There is no fixed complement of staff for a school. Even when the number of vacancies reported and the number of jobs advertised has been very high, only a few schools have had to send pupils home because there are not enough teachers. This occurred in a handful of schools in England in September 2000 and September 2001.
151. Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that in England ‘the recruitment and retention of teachers pose considerable challenges to an increasing number of schools, not just in London and the South East’ (Ofsted, 2003: para. 416). Nationally, only two-thirds of posts were filled on the first round of advertisements (NEOST, 1999). Smithers and Robinson (2000), in their survey of a sample of schools across England and Wales, found that about 10% of posts fell vacant and of these about 4% remained unfilled by a full-time or part-time appointment. However schools reported that about half of the posts were ‘difficult to fill’ (that is, three or fewer applications), and a fifth ‘very difficult’. Although there were some regional variations, nearly the whole of England and Wales was affected with schools in some seemingly attractive and relatively low cost areas finding it hard to appoint. Further this difficulty was not only associated with shortage subjects, with most subjects (with the exceptions of history, physical education and art) being affected. Eighty-six percent of primary posts in inner London were regarded as ‘difficult to fill’ compared with 29% in Wales and only 13% in Merseyside (Smithers and Robinson, 2000). It also appears to be more difficult to successfully fill posts in schools in areas of economic deprivation (as measured by proportion of pupils receiving free school meals) (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000).
152. These problems affect some schools and some subjects more than others. Ofsted noted that these difficulties were having an adverse impact on some pupils’ achievement, for example where schools have had to use teachers without appropriate subject qualifications (Ofsted, 2003). The DfES is currently collecting data through the Secondary Schools Curriculum and Staffing Survey (reporting later in 2003) that will provide a basis for estimating the extent of this problem. In addition, the number of teachers who are not qualified and are not on routes to achieving qualifications in schools in England rose from around 2,500 in 1997 to over 8,000 in 2002 (§129).

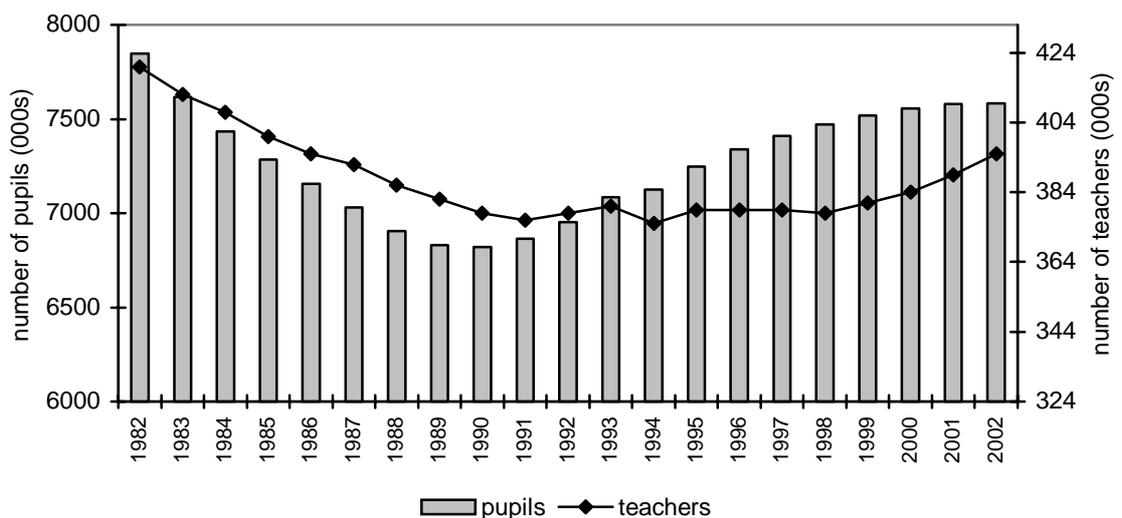


153. In England there were 4,540 vacancies in January 2002; this represents a vacancy rate (the number of vacancies as a proportion of all teachers in post) of 1.2% overall: 1.0% in nursery and primary schools, 1.4% in secondary schools, and 2.3% in special schools. A further proportion of posts were temporarily filled: 1.9% in nursery and primary schools, 1.4% in secondary schools and 2.3% in special schools (DfES, 2002k). Figure 3.1 shows the vacancy rate over time and suggests the cyclical

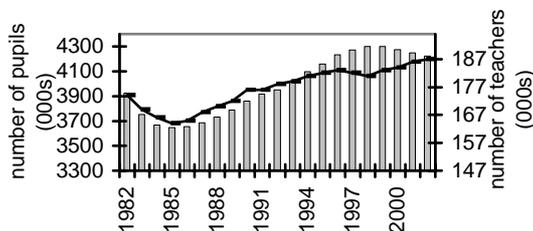
nature of teacher shortages; this has been linked to the economic cycle and the level of demand for graduates (§9).

- 154. In Wales there were 108 vacancies in January 2002, representing a vacancy rate of 0.4% (National Assembly for Wales, 2002b). There were concerns that the published data for vacancies did not necessarily represent an accurate picture, and the GTC Wales conducted teacher recruitment surveys in Welsh schools (secondary, 2001; all schools 2002). No recruitment problems were found in the primary sector. Secondary schools were finding recruitment more difficult than in previous years in certain subjects, with low numbers of applicants for posts; however, there was no widespread shortage of teachers.
- 155. In Scotland there were 635 vacancies (0.1%) in September 2001 (Scottish Executive 2002a). Scotland does not report a generalised teacher shortage, though the supply position is healthier in some subjects than others, and some local authorities (mainly rural) report greater difficulties attracting numbers. The implementation of the McCrone agreement, *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century* (Scottish Executive, 2000a) will result in extra demand for teachers, particularly in primary schools where it is anticipated that 2000 more teachers will be required than were projected before the agreement (§44).

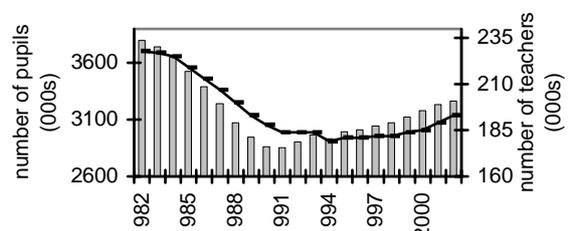
Figure 3.2: Pupil and teacher numbers in England, 1985-2002, primary, secondary and special schools



Primary pupil and teacher numbers



Secondary pupil and teacher numbers

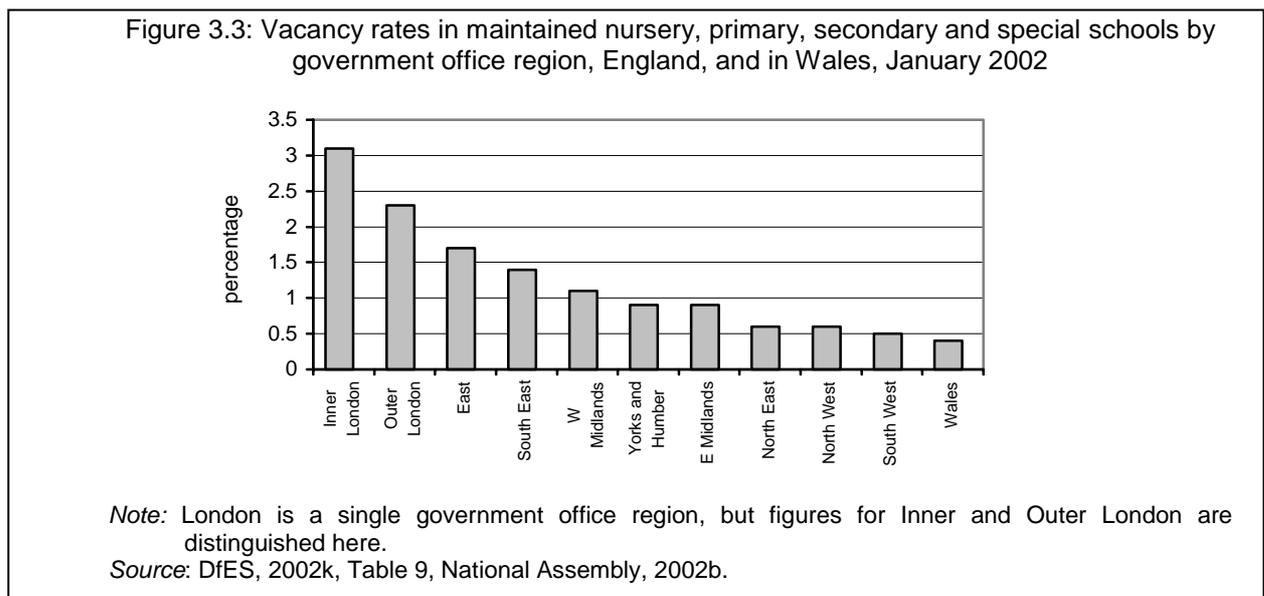


Source: DfES, 2002d, Tables 1a, 1b

- 156. Another way of considering teacher shortages is to examine the pupil teacher ratio and how this relates to the changing numbers of pupils and teachers over time. Figure 3.2 shows that changes in teacher and pupil numbers in England have followed very similar patterns, keeping the pupil teacher ratio at around the same level (1992, 17.4 teachers to one pupil; 1998, 18.9; 2003, 18.0). However, as

pupil numbers increased in the 1990s teacher numbers did not keep pace. But now pupil numbers in primary schools are once more falling, while teacher numbers continue to rise. Secondary school numbers are expected to peak in 2004, and the rising numbers of teachers should ensure an adequate supply. In addition, the further expansion of support staff suggests that adult: pupil ratios will improve in the future. Class size is also relevant here: from 1997 there has been a policy to reduce the number of 5-7 year-olds in classes with over 30 children. This has been effective, with less than 1% now in such classes. There has been a small decrease in primary average class size (from 27.8 in 1998 to 26.4 in 2002) (DfES 2002d). Class size in the primary sector is above the mean for OECD countries (22.1), coming 20th in a list of 23 industrialised countries (OECD, 2002). In the last five years the average secondary class size has remained around the same figure (22.0 pupils).

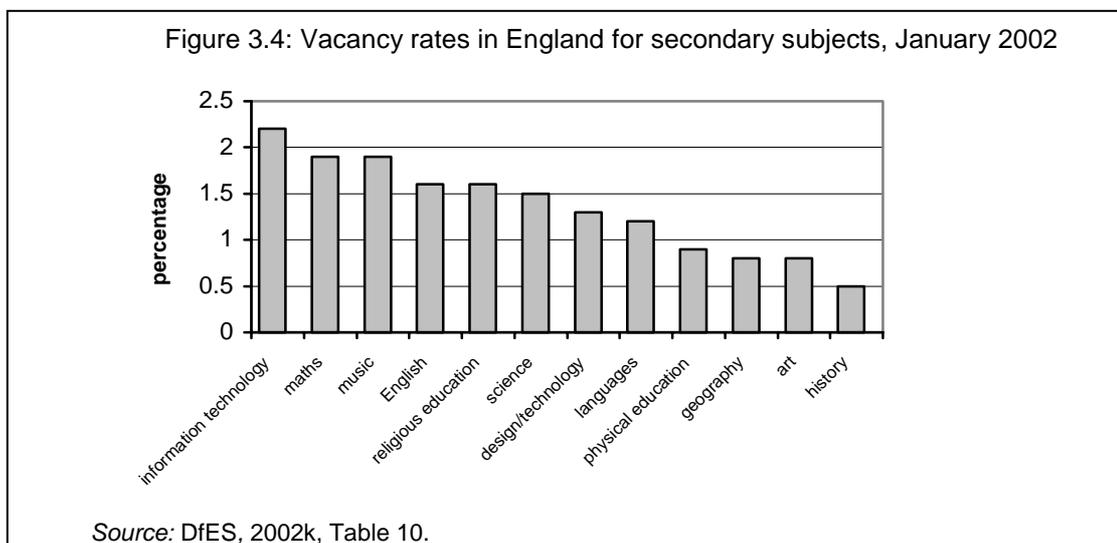
157. Teacher vacancy rates vary across England, as shown in Figure 3.3. The worst shortages have always been in Inner London, with the vacancy rate peaking at 4.3% in 2001 and falling to 3.1% in 2002. But this figure conceals considerable variation, with vacancy rates for individual Inner London LEAs varying from 1.3% to 9.7%. London also had high proportions of posts temporarily filled, particularly in primary (4.0%) and special (4.9%) schools, indicating the very substantial use of supply teachers; in London, 10% of teachers in primary and 7% in secondary schools are supply teachers (Ofsted, 2003). A study in London in 1999 suggested that 70% of primary school posts advertised attracted five or fewer applicants, and that 53% of secondary posts had five or fewer applications (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000). The employers' organisation survey suggested that nationally in England and Wales schools would attract 40% more applications than in London (NEOST, 1999).



158. The area of shortage extends to the areas around London, including parts of the East and South East regions. Other urban and inner city areas also generally have higher vacancy rates than the surrounding area. A survey in London indicated that the most difficult to fill were neither management posts nor those at the bottom of the scale, but posts with some added responsibility (head of year, head of department etc.) (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000). The vacancy rate has been consistently higher for deputy headteachers and lower for head teachers than for other members of staff. Smithers and Robinson (2000) found widespread problems in appointing deputy heads and co-ordinators to primary schools England and Wales. This may be a phenomenon specific to England and Wales: there is insufficient data from the other countries. Education Data Surveys found that between January and May 2002 an unprecedented number of head teacher posts were advertised, representing a 5% increase on the same period in 2001. Half of primary head teacher vacancies were found to attract five or fewer applications. Applications were down on the previous eight years. It concluded: 'The labour market for senior staff remains in a fragile state with many schools facing

little choice in whom they appoint’ (Education Data Surveys, 2002). London schools attracted half the level of applications found elsewhere, and were more likely to recruit internally. Ofsted (2003: para. 420) reported that ‘even after re-advertising, there have been so few applicants for senior and middle management posts in some schools that they report appointing candidates who are not thought ready for promotion, and who have required substantial support once in post’.

159. There is considerable variation in vacancy rates across secondary subjects; those for England are shown in Figure 3.4. Ofsted (2003) identified significant difficulties in recruitment of teachers in mathematics, modern foreign languages, science, design and technology, and information and communications technology. In Wales, advertised posts in maths, science, physics and Welsh as a second language attracted fewer applicants on average in 2002 than they had in the previous year. The greatest area of difficulty is the recruitment of Welsh medium teachers in secondary schools (averaging two applicants per post in secondary schools); the pool of Welsh-speaking teachers who are able to apply for such posts is smaller. Estyn, carrying out school inspections in Wales, reported that ‘there is still concern about the shortage of secondary school teachers ... there are problems recruiting teachers of Welsh and those who can teach other subjects in Welsh. In some schools teachers have to teach a few classes in a subject where they have limited knowledge’ (Estyn, 2003: 91). In Northern Ireland some difficulties have been reported in recruiting teachers for physics, chemistry, mathematics and technology, and there are concerns about numbers training in home economics. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers Northern Ireland draw particular attention to the difficulty in filling training places in technology and design. Numbers of newly qualified teachers of technology fall short of those needed to maintain the system. The current priority subjects for recruitment to teacher training in Scotland derived from previous suggestions from local authorities are, computing, English, mathematics, modern languages, music, physics, religious education, technological education and Gaelic medium in history and geography.

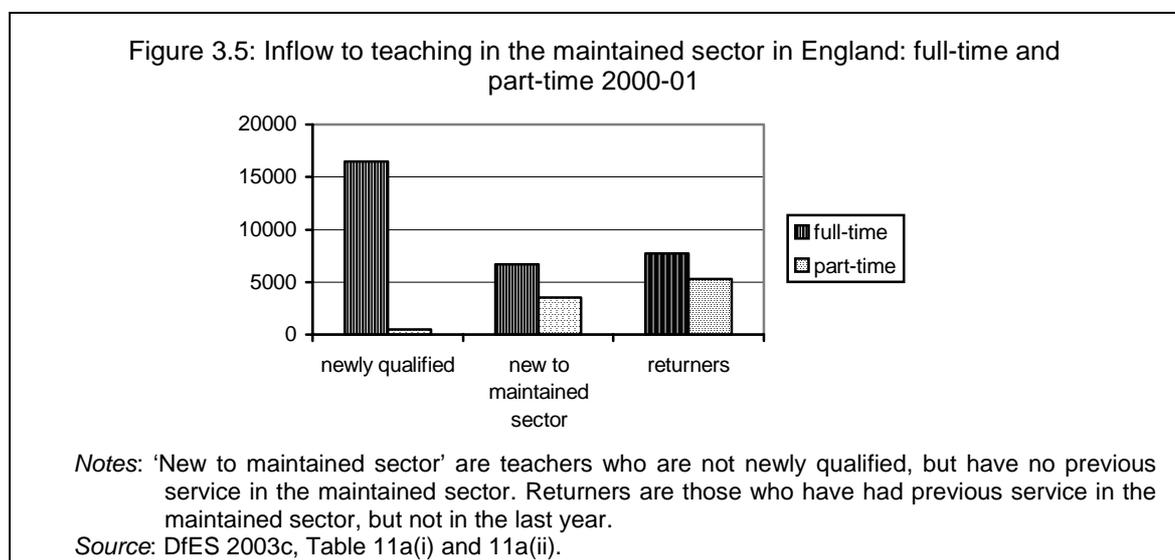


160. Specific concerns for the future relate to those subjects where the targets for teacher recruitment are high in relation to total numbers graduating. The targets in England for Modern Foreign Languages and mathematics are equal to approximately 40% of all graduates in those subjects, and the target for religious education almost 50% of RE graduates. While it may be possible to recruit foreign nationals to teach Modern Foreign Languages the prospects for mathematics are a particular concern in that it is a core subject, and targets have not been achieved for a number of years. This has prompted the setting up of a UK-wide independent inquiry into post-14 mathematics, which will report later in 2003. There are also concerns about shortages of chemistry and physics teachers. PGCE courses and jobs are often for general science, and tend to recruit far more biologists than physicists and chemists. Yet these specialisms are also needed.

161. Pressures on schools may require teachers to be asked to take on subjects other than those for which they were originally trained or employed: biologists may take on the teaching of physics and chemistry, for example. This pressure may be more acute in areas where teacher recruitment is particularly difficult. One survey in London suggested that about 10 – 15% of teachers were not trained for the phase they were currently teaching (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000).
162. A study for the GTC Wales in 2002 found that 78% of secondary teachers were teaching a subject without a degree in that subject, and that the problem was particularly acute in the teaching of religious education (69%), physics (71%) and mathematics (72%) (GTC Wales, 2002a, Table 2). On the other hand, the same study reported that, of secondary teachers of 16-18 year olds in Wales, 91.7% on average had degrees or equivalent qualifications in the relevant subject or in closely related subjects (GTC Wales 2002a: Table 3: this figure excludes teachers without degrees but with possible significant teaching experience in the relevant subjects).
163. Concern about overall numbers of teachers has been linked to the age profile of the profession, and the need to attract in sufficient young people to replace the large numbers expected to retire in the next few years. Figure 2.1 (p.24) shows the age structure of the profession and points out the high proportion that will retire and will need replacing over the next ten to fifteen years, an issue that is most acute in Scotland (see also §125).

Inflow of teachers into the maintained sector

164. The inflow to teaching in the maintained sector is made up of different groups: newly qualified teachers, those who qualified longer ago but have not previously taught in the maintained sector; those returning to teaching after a career break, and teachers recruited overseas. Figure 3.5 shows the numbers and relative sizes of each of the first three groups in England in 2000-01. Figures for teachers recruited from overseas are not easily available; the majority work on a temporary basis through supply agencies. The next sections focus on issues around attracting newcomers into the teaching profession; following this, the recruitment of returners (§201-2) and of overseas-trained teachers (§203-8) is discussed.



The main pathways by which people can become teachers

165. To become a teacher a person must gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), normally achieved by following an undergraduate or postgraduate training course (England and Wales) or must gain a recognised teaching qualification (Scotland and Northern Ireland). The requirements for QTS and training routes are discussed more fully in Chapter 4. Table 3.1 shows the proportions entering undergraduate, postgraduate and Fast Track courses in England in 2001-2. The undergraduate route has decreased as a proportion both for primary courses (1991-2: 66%; 1996-7: 61%; 2002-3: 45%)

and secondary courses (1991-2: 24%; 1996-7: 15%; 2002-3: 8%) (STRB reports, DfES 2003c). Fast Track entrants, a very small proportion of the total, are described in §244. A small, but rapidly increasing proportion of trainees in England and Wales enter teaching through employment-based routes, described in §246-50. About 3,500 people are on these routes in 2002-3.

Table 3.1: Recruitment to initial teacher training courses in England 2002-3, excluding employment-based routes

	undergraduate	postgraduate	Fast Track	total
Primary	6,490 44.8%	7,960 55.0%	30 0.2%	14,480 100%
Secondary	1,300 7.8%	14,510 91.0%	90 0.5%	16750 100%

Source: DfES, 2003c, Table 1.

Trends in teacher training numbers

166. The total numbers enrolled in courses to enter teaching are shown in Table 3.2.

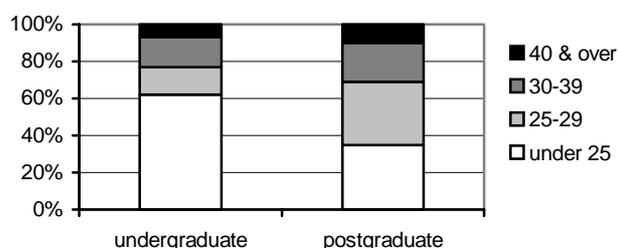
Table 3.2: Numbers entering teacher training in the UK 1990 - 2001

	England	N Ireland	Scotland	Wales
1990	22,070			
1995	26,980	759	5,278	
1996	28,430	712	5,055	
1997	27,720	688	4,849	2,280
1998	26,210	715	4,683	2,200
1999	25,970	767	4,811	2,180
2000	27,720	807	4,877	2,250
2001	29,090	845		2,370

Source: Data Annex to OECD UK Country Background Report

167. The majority of those on undergraduate teaching courses in England complete their training before they are 25 years old (Figure 3.6). Those completing postgraduate training tend to be older, as many students do not move directly from their first degree to the postgraduate teaching course. Over 30% of those on postgraduate courses are over 30 years old when they complete the course. There have been no notable changes in the age distribution over the last ten years.

Figure 3.6: Age distribution of those completing teacher training in England, 1999



Source: DfES, 2001a, Tables 7(i) and 7(ii)

168. In all four countries, far more women enter teaching courses than men. Exact proportions vary across the four countries: in 2001-2, 26% of those entering teaching courses in Wales were male, 24% in England, 21% in Scotland and 20% in Northern Ireland. Where data exist over a period of years, it is evident that the proportion of men is decreasing. In England, there have been concerns about the low proportion of men entering primary teaching courses (12.4% in 2000-01). The Teacher Training Agency (TTA), in its *Corporate Plan 2001-2004*, set a target to increase to 15% the proportion of male entrants to primary initial teacher training by 2002-3. This has not been achieved; the proportion has remained the same, though as more students were recruited altogether in 2002-3, the number of men on primary courses rose from 1582 (2001-2) to 1722 (2002-3). The proportion of men on primary courses in Scotland is even lower, around 8-9% in each of the last seven years.
169. The proportion of entrants from minority ethnic groups is low in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In England, with its far larger minority ethnic population (see §53-5), there have been ongoing concerns about the low proportion of people from minority ethnic groups entering teacher training; in 1999-2000, the first year of collection of this data, this was 6.3%. The TTA target in its *Corporate Plan 2001-2004* was to increase the proportion of entrants to 7.5% by 2001-2 and 9% by 2005-6. The first of these targets was achieved, and each training provider has agreed a target for minority ethnic recruitment, reviewed annually with the TTA. These figures can be compared with those for all first year higher education students; in 2000-01, 14.1% of undergraduates of known ethnicity was from a minority ethnic group, and 12.0% of postgraduates (HESA, 2002).
170. The low proportion of disabled entrants to teacher training is also a concern in England (1.9% in 1999-2000). The TTA target was to increase this to 3% by 2002-3. In that year, 3.5% of entrants declared a disability, an increase from 497 to 996 people in the last four years. In Wales 3.8% declared a disability in 2000-01. These figures compare with an average across all undergraduate courses of 4.4% with a disability, and across postgraduate courses, 3.1% (HESA, 2002). In this context it should be noted that in England and Wales there are health and fitness standards that teachers (and therefore those entering training) have to meet. These should not prevent disabled people from training as teachers and are intended to address child protection and safety issues. Training providers are under a duty to make reasonable adjustments to assist disabled students.
171. In England and Wales, the level of academic achievement of those completing postgraduate courses has risen during the last decade. In 1992, 83.6% of those completing postgraduate teacher training had a first or second class honours degree, while in 2001, 89.4% (provisional data) did so (DfES, 2002h). The proportion with first class degrees rose from 3.0% to 5.2%. In order to raise standards, the TTA has set targets (*TTA Operating Plan 2001-2004*) relating to the academic achievement level of the intake to teacher training. By 2003, 95% of those entering postgraduate courses should have at least a second class degree. The target for undergraduate courses is that for those entering teaching courses, the average point score for achievement at A level (examinations taken at age 18) should exceed the average point score for all undergraduate courses by 2003. TTA data shows that the average score has not increased since the target was set. In Northern Ireland the academic level of entrants to teaching courses is high, exceeding the level of the highest scoring courses in England (Northern Ireland submission for OECD report, 2002).
172. The TTA produces annual performance profiles for all initial teacher training courses in England. Among other data, these show the percentage of minority ethnic, disabled and male students, and the level of academic achievement of entrants to the courses. These can be compared with national data and with data from other providers. Similar performance data for initial teacher training courses in Wales are published by the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales.

The extent to which those entering training go on to become teachers

173. The most recent figures for withdrawal during teacher training in England show that 82% of entrants complete their courses. Studies of withdrawal indicate that students are most likely to withdraw during or immediately after teaching practice, and that the main reasons given by the students were a mismatch between expectations and reality, especially in relation to workload; perceived lack of support; financial problems; and perceptions of low teacher morale. Tutors felt that students'

inability to cope with teaching lay at the heart of most withdrawals, especially lack of confidence, an unwillingness to discipline a class, and an inability to prepare lessons (Chambers and Roper, 2000, 2002; Chambers *et al.*, 2001, 2002). The Council for Racial Equality points out that informal evidence suggests that there are particular issues round the retention of trainees from minority ethnic groups on teacher training courses, in that they are more likely to drop out of courses, particularly during placements. There is evidence that some students from minority ethnic groups encounter racism from some teachers and pupils (Carrington *et al.*, 2000).

174. DfES figures show that of those qualifying in England and Wales, 74% are teaching in any sector in England and Wales one year after qualifying, 74% after three years, 70% after five years, and 65% after ten years (based on teachers in service in 2000 having qualified one, three, five and ten years ago). These figures show teachers in service in a particular year, and do not indicate whether a teacher has been in service since qualifying. Those teaching outside England and Wales are excluded, as are those who are not members of the Teachers' Pension Scheme. While these figures show the same proportion in service one and five years after qualification, there is evidence that during this period some of those who had not entered teaching immediately after qualification do so, while others leave the profession. Some newly qualified teachers (NQTs) do not consider applying for a job until they have completed their course. Some may work through supply agencies for the first terms of teaching; one reason for this is that they want to experience a wider range of schools before settling in one (Hutchings, 2000, 2002b). Other NQTs may be teaching in the private sector or abroad. Mature entrants to teaching, who are often less mobile than younger teachers, have a much smaller pool of jobs available to apply to, and so may take longer to find an appropriate job (Bird, 2002). DfES statistics show that in England in 2001, 17.1 thousand NQTs entered full-time teaching, but in addition, 7.2 thousand entered who had not qualified the previous year and had not previously taught in the maintained sector. There is also evidence that other teachers leave the profession within five years of qualification (Smithers and Robinson, 2001).
175. The combined effects of withdrawal during training and withdrawal after qualification are shown on Table 3.3, which tracks the figures for the cohort that qualified as teachers in England and Wales in 1998, having entered teacher training in 1994 (undergraduate) or 1997 (postgraduate). Overall 16% did not qualify. A further 24% qualified but had not entered teaching jobs by March 1999. Thus 40% of those who entered training were not teaching in maintained schools in England and Wales the year after their training ended. Obviously there are limitations to this approach: it does not take account of those who enter teaching at a later date, for example. Nor does it cover those teaching outside the maintained sector, outside England and Wales, or those (such as supply teachers) outside the Teachers' Pension Scheme.

Table 3.3: Proportion of those entering teacher training who a) qualify and b) enter teaching, England and Wales (those qualifying in 1998)

	4 year undergraduate	1 year postgraduate	total
entry to teacher training (1994/1997)	12,430	19,480	31,910
Completed teacher training in 1998	9,640	17,090	26,730
<i>percentage of entrants to teacher training who qualify</i>	77.5%	87.7%	83.8%
entered teaching September 1998	7,000	12,120	19,120
<i>percentage of those qualifying in 1998 who had entered teaching by March 1999</i>	72.6%	71.0%	71.5%
<i>percentage of those entering teacher training who entered teaching on completion of training</i>	56.3%	62.2%	59.9%

Source: DfES, 2000a: Table 1, Table 7a(i), 7a(ii) (after Johnson, 2002)

176. In Scotland there is some evidence that the creation of a probationary scheme (see §276-8), through which all those graduating with a teaching qualification are allocated to a post, has reduced drop out

between completion of the teaching course and joining the profession. However, it is too soon to say whether any reduction is permanent or merely postponed to later years.

Reasons why people enter teaching

177. Many investigations of motivations for entering teaching have been commissioned by the TTA (e.g. Bridge, 1999; Carrington *et al.*, 2000; Cockburn *et al.*, 2000; Hutchings *et al.*, 2000; MORI, 2000, 2001; Taylor and Whitehead, 2002). A systematic literature review of research about recruitment to initial teacher training has recently been published by the National Foundation for Educational Research (Edmonds *et al.*, 2002). Bringing together findings from a wide range of research studies, it concluded that trainee teachers choose teaching largely for intrinsic reasons: working with children; intellectual fulfilment; making a contribution to society (e.g. Johnston *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Kyriacou and Coulthard 2000; Reid and Thornton, 2000). Career changers strongly emphasised making a difference, and the job satisfaction of seeing pupils achieve (Hunt, 2002). There is a positive association between previous experience with children and desire to teach. Teaching is believed to offer job security and intellectual challenge, both considered by appropriately qualified young people to be important factors in making career choices. However, teaching is considered less likely to offer other factors that undergraduates regard as important in career choice: long-term career prospects and friendly colleagues (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000). The aspects of teaching that deter young people from considering it as a career are low pay, paperwork and dealing with disruptive pupils (Haydn *et al.*, 2001).
178. Some minority ethnic trainees feel that they have a particular contribution to make because of their understanding of minority ethnic pupils (Wolverhampton Race Equality Consortium, 1999). Among people from minority ethnic groups teaching is perceived to be a 'female friendly' profession, and females are believed to make better teachers. However, racial stereotyping and racist attitudes in schools may deter them, and in some minority group communities, teaching is not seen as a high status job (Carrington *et al.*, 2000). Male trainees tend to place more emphasis on extrinsic factors such as salary, holidays, promotion prospects and the opinion of others (Reid and Caudwell, 1997). Some men are discouraged from entering primary teacher training by negative perceptions of working with children (Thornton, 1999; Hutchings, 2002a; Lewis, 2002).

Initiatives taken to attract more people into teaching

179. Initiatives have taken place in England to improve the attractiveness of teaching as a potential career, and to some extent Wales has adopted the same measures (see §11). Scotland and Northern Ireland, as has been shown, do not currently have major concerns about the quality or quantity of supply, though Scotland has periodically run recruitment campaigns, despite the lack of generalised shortage. There is no single explanation of these differences. Contributing factors probably include economic differences: there are more opportunities available for graduates in England. The areas with the greatest teacher shortages are those with the most buoyant economies. This is not simply a question of the availability of alternative career options; the high cost of living in such areas also makes teaching a less attractive option. However, some of those in deprived areas have a high regard for education, seeing it as a means to better themselves, and many teachers in such areas are motivated by a strong sense of vocation. Possibly there is also a cultural factor: teaching appears to be more highly esteemed as a career in the three devolved countries than it is in England.
180. In England and Wales, a variety of teacher training routes have been devised to attract people who might not otherwise have trained as teachers, including employment-based routes and shortened routes for those with relevant experience. These are described in §242-50. The TTA has mounted a series of advertising campaigns, including television and cinema advertisements, use of advertising hoardings and postcards distributed free to students in universities. These have used some memorable slogans: 'Those who can, teach', 'No-one forgets a good teacher'.
181. The TTA website offers information about teaching for potential applicants in a comprehensible and accessible way. In the light of findings that previous experience in school is an important aspect of motivation to teach, and that those with greater school experience before starting teacher training are

less likely to drop out, the TTA has set up a variety of schemes to offer potential applicants appropriate experience. These include taster courses, run throughout the country, and the Open Schools Programme through which structured day visits to schools, including discussion with teachers of careers in teaching, are arranged. Individual taster courses have been evaluated, showing a good conversion rate.

182. Financial incentives have been used for many years to attract graduates into teaching, and in particular, to attract them into secondary shortage subjects. The first bursary was offered in 1986 to those training to teach certain secondary subjects. It was abolished in 1996 when teacher supply was buoyant, and was replaced by the Priority Subject Recruitment Initiative, which in England was in turn replaced by the Shortage Subject Support Scheme in 1998. Both these schemes involved providers bidding for money which could be used for both recruitment activities and student support, so potential students did not know what financial benefit they might receive. In November 1998 'Golden Hellos' for maths and science postgraduate trainees were announced, and from September 2,000 training bursaries were introduced for all those entering postgraduate training.
183. The incentives currently available fall into two main categories: those payable to students while they are on training courses, which are primarily aimed at persuading them to enter teacher training in the first place; and those payable to students once they enter teaching, which aim to ensure that students completing courses do take up teaching posts.
184. The main incentive payable to students in training is the Training Bursary. Postgraduate trainee teachers in England and Wales, who are ordinarily resident in the UK or European Union and are on an eligible course, receive a £6,000 training bursary, and do not have to pay tuition fees. The bursary is not taxable in most circumstances, and there is nothing to pay back. Those on flexible postgraduate routes are able to claim £3,000 after the first module and the remaining £3,000 when they are recommended for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). This scheme does not apply to those on undergraduate courses, who do not receive this financial support, and have to pay means-tested tuition fees. The omission of undergraduate students from this particular incentive may have speeded up the on-going decline in the intake to undergraduate training courses noted in §165 as it is now more financially beneficial to take a first degree followed by a postgraduate training. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET, 2000) argue that the bursary should be extended to those in the final year of undergraduate courses as an issue of equity, and a way of increasing the status of teacher training by whatever route.
185. A second incentive is payable to some trainees in England through the Secondary Shortage Subject Scheme. This is an additional hardship fund for eligible trainees in specified secondary subjects (see below) where there is a national shortage of teachers. Payments are based on a needs assessment carried out by the training provider. For trainees under 25 years old, the maximum payment in any one year is £5,000. This is one of a range of payments targeted at those training for or entering teaching in shortage subjects, set out in Table 3.4.
186. The main scheme to encourage successful trainees in England into teaching, known as the Golden Hello, makes an additional £4,000 available for eligible postgraduates teaching specified subjects (see Table 3.4). This can be claimed by those who successfully complete induction within five years of the start of the first academic year after gaining QTS and, within 12 months of completing induction, are working in a relevant post in the maintained sector. This money is not a loan, and is normally counted as taxable income.
187. The most recent financial incentive to encourage those who have qualified in shortage secondary subjects to enter teaching is the commitment to pay off student loans of newly qualified teachers working in a shortage subject in England and Wales. The scheme applies to teachers who spend at least half of their teaching time in a normal week teaching the specified subjects, including any in primary schools who meet this criterion in that they have a specialist role teaching a subject across classes. In that undergraduate students may borrow up to £4,000 per year from the Student Loans Company, the debt accrued can be large, and this is therefore a very attractive incentive.

Table 3.4 : Financial incentives specific to shortage secondary subjects, England and Wales

	Secondary shortage subject scheme (England)	Loan write-off (England and Wales)	Golden Hello (England)	Teaching grant (Wales)
Mathematics	✓	✓	✓	✓
Design and technology	✓	✓	✓	✓
Modern foreign languages	✓	✓	✓	✓
Science	✓	✓	✓	✓
ICT	✓	✓	✓	✓
English (inc. drama)		✓	✓	✓
Geography	✓			
Music	✓			
religious education	✓			
Welsh (in Wales only)		✓		✓

Source: TTA website (www.canteach.gov.uk)

Note: In addition to these incentives, all those on postgraduate courses will receive a training bursary. In Wales, all those on secondary undergraduate courses receive a placement grant; this is at a higher level for those in shortage subjects (see §189)

188. Trainees on the Fast Track programme, which offers accelerated career progression for those graduates who have at least an upper second class degree or equivalent and operates only in England, will also receive a Fast Track bursary of £5,000 (if they are ordinarily resident in the UK or European Union). They receive £3,000 at the start of the PGCE and £2,000 when they take up their first Fast Track teaching post (which must be within 15 months of gaining QTS).
189. In Wales the financial arrangements for higher education differ from those in England and this impacts on students in initial teacher training. The Assembly Learning Grant is available to all Welsh-domiciled students on undergraduate courses. This is a means-tested grant, up to a maximum of £1,500 per year. The main financial incentive to encourage students into teacher training is the Training Bursary of £6,000, which, as in England, is available to postgraduate trainee teachers. Additionally, in Wales a placement grant is provided to all secondary undergraduate students to support the period of school experience required of each trainee: £1,000 per year for those on shortage subject courses and £600 on non-shortage subject courses. An additional incentive payment worth £1,200 is available to some students who undertake secondary initial teacher training through the medium of Welsh, and who need additional assistance to raise their confidence and competence in the Welsh language.
190. To encourage successful trainees in Wales to enter teaching, those in specified secondary subjects receive a £4,000 teaching grant (similar to the Golden Hello in England) on successful completion of the first year of teaching, provided that the same subject continues to be taught, and arrangements for repayment of student loans are the same as in England.
191. The announcement of a new financial incentive generally has an immediate impact on both the number of enquiries to the TTA about teacher training, and the number of applications (Howson, 2000). The overall level of both applications and entry to initial teacher training has risen in the last few years; undoubtedly financial incentives have played a role, but it would be difficult to attribute the increased recruitment to any single initiative. Stakeholders including the GTC England and teacher associations have evidence of the negative impact on the morale of those who missed out on a financial incentive that was introduced after they had completed their training.
192. While there is no teacher shortage in Northern Ireland, members of the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers in Northern Ireland have campaigned for the adoption of financial incentives for students there. They have noticed a reduction in applications, which they attribute to the incentives offered in England.

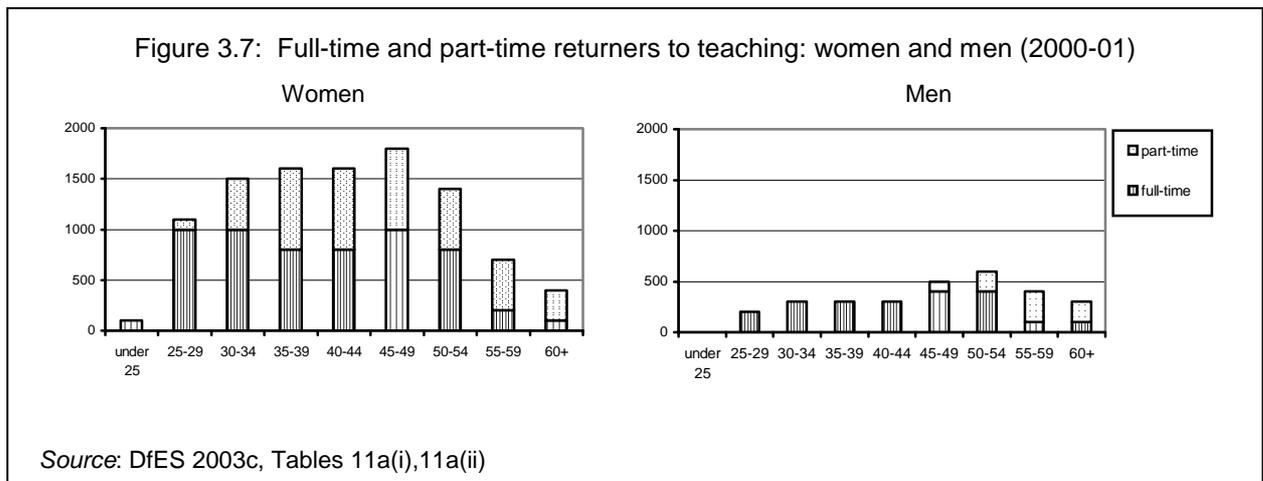
Teachers' salaries in comparison to those of other graduate professions

193. The starting salary for teachers in England and Wales is £17,595 (2002-3). Those in London have additional allowances to compensate for the cost of living (see §197). Figures put forward for the average graduate salary vary: Income Data Services show that the average graduate starting salary for 2002 was £19,714, while the Association of Graduate Recruiters give a figure of £19,600 in July 2002. A more appropriate comparison is perhaps with other public sector graduate jobs: the starting salary for teachers is similar to that of social workers and physiotherapists, but police officers have a higher starting salary (£19,842). The union joint submission to the STRB (ATL *et al.*, September 2002) argues that in 1994 teacher starting salaries were worth 96% of the median graduate starting salary, and this has now fallen to 89%. However, the DfES, in their 2002 submission to the STRB, argues that teachers' pay has increased at a faster rate than that of other graduates over the last few years.
194. After five years of employment the average salary for all graduates has risen by 70% (Income Data Services 2001 figures). Teachers' salaries increase at a slightly slower rate. The DfES submission to the STRB (DfES, 2002h) shows that the salary of a teacher who qualified in 1997 has increased by 52% in real terms by 2002, through pay awards and progression up the salary scale. The most recent pay scales for teachers indicate that after five years in teaching, pay will have risen by 46-55% (depending on management allowances included). These figures indicate that teachers' pay after five years has increased more slowly than that of other graduates. In cash terms, the average graduate could expect to be earning £33,514 after 5 years, while teachers would be earning £25,713 by progressing up the main scale, and could in addition receive allowances worth over £2,000 (as well as the London allowance for those eligible). Table 5.2 and 5.3 (pp. 70-71) set out current salary scales for England and Wales and for Scotland.
195. The DfES bases its salary comparisons on Labour Force Survey data, comparing teachers' salaries and those of graduates in the same age groups. This shows that teachers under 25 earn just below the average for graduates; those aged 25-29 earn about 86% of the average for all graduates, and those aged 30-39 earn about 80% of the average for all graduates. Thus this comparison indicates that teachers do fall behind other graduates, but less quickly than the sources in the previous paragraph suggest.
196. The teachers' pay settlement for England and Wales, in 2002, and that in Northern Ireland, reduced the length of the pay scale such that teachers now reach the top of the main scale after five years (after which they can apply to cross the pay threshold and move onto a higher scale - see §342-4) (DfES 2002f). This is favourable in comparison with other public sector jobs, which do not increase so rapidly in the first five years.
197. In common with most graduates, teachers in working in and around London receive an additional allowance to contribute to the extra cost of living in London (DfES 2002f). This is currently £3,105 per annum (Inner London); £2,043 Outer London; and £792 (Fringe Area). This allowance does not fully cover the additional costs of living in the capital. It equals or exceeds the London allowance in some other public sector jobs, but is well below the allowance paid to the police (£6,111). The Greater London Authority Weighting Advisory Panel has shown that the differentials paid in Inner London in the private sector are generally of the order of 36% of the salary, whereas in the public sector they are only 24%. The latest recommendations of the STRB (2003) recognise the particular recruitment and retention problems faced in London by proposing an Inner London pay scale designed to increase retention of teachers with five or more years experience who have crossed the pay threshold (see §342-4). The DfES encourages schools to use recruitment and retention allowances as an incentive to encourage experienced staff to stay in London. These range from £975 to £5,262. However, Ofsted (2003) point out that many schools are reluctant to use them as they regard them as divisive or unfair. Only 18% of teachers in London are paid these allowances (STRB, 2003).
198. The Teachers' Pension Scheme can be seen as a valuable part of their remuneration, but is perhaps an incentive for retention rather than recruitment, and is described in §359.

- 199. In Scotland teachers on the induction scheme are paid £17,400, rising to £18,000 in August 2003. On completion of induction (full qualification) their salary rises to £21,500, and if in full-time employment, to £28,700 after a further four years.
- 200. Low pay has been shown to deter young people from entering teaching. Haydn *et al.* (2001) found that it was the most commonly selected single deterrent factor by both sixth-formers and undergraduates. Coulthard and Kyriacou (2002) found that low pay was a particular disincentive for science students who could expect to earn much more in other professions.

Those returning to teaching after a career break

- 201. As Figure 3.5 showed, those returning from career breaks make up a substantial part of the inflow into teaching, and are the main source of part-time teachers. The total number of returners in 2000-01 (full-time and part-time) was 13,000. The number of those returning to full-time teaching declined from 8,500 in 1989-90 to 5,400 in 1998-9. However, numbers increased to 7,700 in 2000-01. Numbers of returners are consistently lower than numbers of teachers going out of service before retirement: in 2000-01, 19,200 full-time teachers went out of service, but only 7,700 returned to full-time service. Numbers of part-time returners also fell from 9,700 in 1989-90 to 4,500 ten years later, but the most recent figures show a rise to 5,300 (DfES, 2003c, Table 11c).
- 202. The numbers of women taking career breaks and returning is higher than the number of men doing so (Figure 3.7), presumably relating to child-care. However, it is noticeable that people return to full-time teaching right across the age range. Of those on returners' courses, 29% said they were returning to teaching because they enjoy it; 25% because teaching suits family needs. Only 7% claimed that teaching was their only option (Penlington, 2002).



The recruitment of overseas teachers

- 203. For many years a number of young teachers from Australia and New Zealand have found work as supply teachers in London in the course of travelling around the world. However, overseas recruitment increased dramatically in the teacher shortages of the late 1980s, when recruitment took place in the Caribbean as well as Australia. The first private supply agencies were set up in the late 1980s and early 1990s. From the start, some of these focused on overseas recruitment. There are now around one hundred agencies, and the larger ones tend to have recruitment offices in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada. These countries have been targeted because young people (under 28 years) in Commonwealth countries are eligible for working holiday visas which enable them to live and work in the UK for two years. The work must be incidental to travel: thus it is acceptable to work through an agency but not to take a permanent job. Additionally those with a British parent or grandparent may work for normally four years. Teachers in the new Commonwealth generally have high quality teacher training, and they speak English.

204. Overseas recruitment in England increased dramatically in the late 1990s when a number of local authorities joined with supply agencies in overseas recruiting trips to try to solve the shortages they were facing. It is reported that in 2000 one agency alone recruited over 2,000 teachers from Australia, and in total about 10,000 overseas teachers were recruited to teach in the UK (Barlin and Hallgarten, 2002). The scale of this recruitment is apparent when it is noted that the number who completed teacher training in 2000 and entered teaching posts was 15,830 (DfES, 2003c). More recently overseas recruitment has targeted other Commonwealth countries such as India; however, there are concerns about taking qualified teachers from countries that have a shortage of educated and trained workers (Barlin and Hallgarten, 2002), though the majority of overseas teachers in England do not come from developing countries.
205. The government has enabled this movement in several ways. It has altered the regulations to make it possible for those on working holiday visas to stay longer than two years in the UK, and it has improved the procedures for applying for work permits with which overseas teachers can take on permanent jobs. It has also simplified the routes to achieving QTS for such teachers. Teaching qualifications from Commonwealth countries are not automatically considered adequate for the award of QTS, and so such teachers are paid as unqualified teachers (though in practice, since the majority work through supply agencies, they receive a flat rate equal to the pay of other supply teachers: see §376). It is now possible for overseas trained teachers to apply for immediate assessment for QTS, or to take a shortened employment based training to enable them to achieve the necessary level (see §249).
206. European Union citizens who are trained teachers are able to work in the UK through reciprocal arrangements. However, the language differences have acted as a barrier to large scale recruitment from Europe, except in the case of modern foreign languages where around a third of trainees are foreign nationals, rising to over half on some postgraduate courses (Adams, 2002; Whitehead and Taylor, 1999).
207. The impact of recruitment of Commonwealth teachers has largely been in London, and to a lesser extent in other large cities in England; Ofsted (2003) report that one third of the LEAs surveyed during the year had been actively pursuing the recruitment of overseas trained teachers, and in one LEA, approximately one primary teacher in every six had trained overseas. While this recruitment has staved off a much worse teacher supply crisis, the recruitment of overseas teachers is at best a temporary measure, as the vast majority return to their countries of origin (in line with the restrictions imposed by the working holiday visa regulations). Large-scale use of such teachers tends to mask the underlying problems. Some schools in shortage areas are staffed largely by young and relatively inexperienced teachers and there is a shortage of teachers with some experience who will later take on leadership roles (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000). Ofsted (2003: para. 423) comment that the recruitment of overseas teachers has brought problems as well as solutions: 'such teachers are not usually familiar with the National Curriculum or the national strategies, and some have significant problems with classroom management and control'.
208. The Council for Racial Equality (CRE) (2002) has received complaints from non-EU overseas teachers from countries such as Zimbabwe, who are concerned about the differential treatment they are receiving compared to EU trained teachers. While there are now procedures to enable them to obtain Qualified Teacher Status very quickly, in practice this depends on the support given by their school and LEA. The complaints received by CRE suggest that the support given to these teachers varies widely, and is often poor.

3.3 Future policy developments

209. Future policy is increasingly focused on addressing the factors that seem to deter people from entering the profession: pay, workload and low status.
210. The pay structures have been revised to provide better long-term prospects, but there remain concerns in areas where the cost of living is high. In 2002 teachers in London held a one-day strike in support of their claim for an increased London allowance. It is acknowledged that the cost of housing in London is prohibitive for teachers (despite the additional London allowance) and that this is a

major barrier to recruitment and retention of teachers in the capital. Current initiatives to provide low cost housing are one attempt to address this, and have been welcomed, but may have a limited impact in relation to the scale of the problem. The most recent STRB report (2003) proposes an Inner London pay scale which, by offering substantially more pay to experienced teachers, addresses these issues.

211. The workload issue is being addressed in a number of ways (for details see §43-453). It will be vital to demonstrate to potential recruits that teaching can offer a satisfactory work-life balance. The Equal Opportunities Commission (2002) argues that while in the past teaching attracted entrants who saw it as 'family friendly' because of the shorter contact hours and long holidays, this is no longer the case. Professions in the private sector are now recognising the benefits for recruitment of providing a good work-life balance and greater opportunities for flexible working. If greater flexibility could be built into teaching, it might appeal to a wider range of people. In particular the low availability of part-time work is a deterrent that prevents some mothers returning to teaching after career breaks. Nationally, 70% of women returning to work in teaching after maternity leave choose part-time work if it is available. Currently 18.7% of teachers work part-time, (meaning that around 10% of teaching work is currently done by part-time teachers); increasing the availability of part-time work is, in the EOC's view, the most important single step that could be taken to encourage rates of return to teaching.
212. Many stakeholders view the level of teacher morale as the most important factor influencing recruitment. Reports suggest that some teachers have actually discouraged pupils from entering teaching, but more often, the pupils have noted the heavy workload and low morale of the staff that teach them. Thus policies that address teacher morale and retention are likely to have a positive impact on recruitment. This is more strongly the case than in other professions, as pupils in schools are in daily contact with teachers, and have ample opportunity to observe them. A discussion of policies related to retention can be found in Chapter 6.
213. As indicated above, the Teacher Training Agency is continuing to work with training providers to attract more men into primary teaching. In September 2002, they initiated a new marketing campaign; early indications of impact are positive, with applications from men for primary teacher training up 36% on the same time last year. In England the majority of LEAs surveyed by Ofsted had, or were developing, a recruitment and retention strategy; this has included adopting a 'more customer-focused approach to presenting their authorities as good places to live and work' (Ofsted, 2003, para. 422). About half the LEAs were offering their own recruitment and retention incentives, especially in relation to transport and housing. The role of LEA Recruitment Strategy Managers is central; they receive TTA funding to develop strategies to address teacher supply issues in their particular areas, taking into account data on local need. They advise on all aspects of teacher recruitment and retention policies, and develop initiatives such as organising placements for those returning to teaching after a career break, and organising 'taster' days for those considering teaching as a career, in conjunction with their local initial teacher training providers.

4: EDUCATING, DEVELOPING AND CERTIFYING TEACHERS

4.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

214. The concerns behind current policy developments in educating, developing and certifying teachers have been to raise standards, and, particularly in England, to recruit and retain sufficient teachers. All four countries have identified standards or competences that have to be achieved in order to qualify as a teacher (paralleled in England by the introduction of a teacher training curriculum). Each country is also involved in the development of wider and more coherent professional development policies and programmes. In England (the country experiencing the greatest shortages), and to a lesser extent in Wales, new routes into teaching have been created to widen the pool of potential teachers.
215. This chapter describes:
- i. the requirements to qualify for employment as a teacher;
 - ii. initial teacher education;
 - iii. provision for those changing careers or re-entering teaching after a break;
 - iv. induction and early professional development arrangements;
 - v. continuing professional development for teachers;
 - vi. future policy developments.

4.2 Data, trends and factors

Requirements to qualify for employment as a teacher

216. In all four constituent countries the requirements to qualify for employment as a teacher in the maintained sector are broadly similar, involving:
- achievement of a qualification to teach, normally through undergraduate or postgraduate training; this involves achieving the standards or competences for a newly qualified teacher set out by each country during the last decade;
 - registration with the appropriate General Teaching Council (GTC);
 - clearance in checks against criminal records (described fully in §324-6).
217. England has also introduced skills tests in literacy, numeracy and ICT (information and communications technology) that have to be passed in addition to the teaching degree or postgraduate certificate.

England

218. In 1998, the government set out standards that must be achieved in order to be awarded Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (DfEE 1998b). In 2001 the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) consulted on proposed changes, involving a wide range of stakeholders, including all providers of initial teacher training, local education authorities, major teaching unions and numerous organisations with an interest in initial teacher training. A revised set of standards came into force in September 2002. The revision provided a welcome streamlining and simplification of the previous requirements (which had included over 700 separate standards that had to be achieved by those training to teach in primary schools) (TTA, 2002).

219. The Standards are outcome statements that set out what a person must know, understand and be able to do in order to be awarded QTS. They are organised in three inter-related sections:
- professional values and practice (outlining the attitudes and commitment to be expected of anyone qualifying to be a teacher; these are derived from the Professional Code of the GTC England)
 - knowledge and understanding (standards that require newly qualified teachers to be confident and authoritative in the subjects they teach, and to have a clear understanding of how all pupils should progress and what teachers should expect them to achieve); and
 - teaching (standards relating to skills of planning, monitoring and assessment, and teaching and classroom management).
- These Standards apply to all teachers, whatever route they take to QTS, and set out the minimum requirement.
220. All trainees must also pass skills tests in numeracy, literacy and ICT in order to attain QTS. These tests were introduced following concern that the numeracy and literacy standards for a significant number of teachers were inadequate, and are designed to ensure that newly qualified teachers have the skills needed to carry out their professional roles effectively. The numeracy test was introduced in June 2000, the literacy test in 2002 and the ICT test in 2002. These tests represent a higher standard than the GCSE level required on entry to teacher training (see §231). The tests are computerised. Trainees have unlimited opportunities to pass the tests before being awarded QTS. Those who have successfully completed teacher training but have not passed the skills test may be employed as unqualified teachers for up to five years.
221. While QTS is normally awarded on completion of an initial teacher training course, it can also be awarded to others who can demonstrate that they meet the standards: eligible graduates with teaching experience may apply to be assessed without further training, and flexible routes into teaching provide for an assessment of needs and a shortened training to achieve QTS.
222. There is no requirement to have QTS for teachers in the private sector.
223. All teachers in maintained and non-maintained special schools are required to register with the GTC England. It is planned that in the future the GTC England will be responsible for awarding QTS.
224. While the vast majority of teachers in employment in state schools have QTS, it is possible to gain employment without this. Details of unqualified teachers are in §127-9.

Wales

225. The system in Wales is similar to that in England. Standards to achieve QTS are set out in Welsh Office Circular 13/98 (1998) under four broad headings: knowledge and understanding; planning teaching and class management; monitoring, assessment, recording and accountability standards; and other professional requirements. Following a consultation by the Welsh Assembly Government, they will be revised in 2003. The requirement to pass skills tests in numeracy, literacy and ICT does not apply in Wales. During 2003 the GTC Wales will take on certain aspects of the award and administration of QTS.

Scotland

226. The system in Scotland differs in that those completing teacher training are provisionally registered with the GTC Scotland, and full registration is achieved only after successful completion of the probationary period. Teachers have to have full registration before they can apply for permanent posts in Scottish education authority nursery, primary, secondary or special schools. Those trained outside Scotland can apply for exceptional registration.
227. A Teaching Qualification is needed to qualify for employment as a teacher in Scotland. This differs from QTS in England in that it is specific to an age phase (primary or secondary), and at secondary level, the teacher is only qualified to teach the specific subject or subjects that were covered in training. Unqualified teachers are not found in Scottish schools.

228. The Teaching Qualification involves demonstrating specified competences, but these are assessed only within recognised teacher training courses. These relate to subject and content of teaching; the classroom (including approaches to teaching, organisation and management and assessment); the school and education system; and the values, attributes and abilities integral to the profession.

Northern Ireland

229. Teachers employed in grant-aided schools must have qualifications approved by the Department of Education. These include recognised teaching degrees and postgraduate certificates awarded on completion of a teacher education course at a higher education institution in the UK. The qualifications awarded in Northern Ireland are equivalent to those awarded in other UK higher education institutions.
230. A review of teacher education (1994-6) gave a central place to the acquisition of teaching competences, and identified a common profile of competences to underpin training courses, induction and early professional development. These are grouped under five headings: understanding the curriculum; subject knowledge and subject application; teaching strategies and classroom management; assessment and recording of pupils' progress; and foundation for further professional development.

Initial teacher education

England

231. To enter any initial teacher training programme candidates must have achieved at least a grade 'C' in GCSE English and mathematics, or have reached the equivalent standard. (GCSE is the main public examination taken at age 16). Those born after 1 September 1979 who wish to teach in primary schools must also have a GCSE Grade 'C' or equivalent qualification in a science subject.
232. Those entering postgraduate training courses must have a first degree from a UK higher education institution or equivalent level. The government does not now require that the applicants' first degree be in a National Curriculum subject, but they stipulate that the content of the degree must provide the necessary foundation for teaching their chosen age range and subject. The Standards specify that those teaching in secondary schools should have knowledge and understanding of the subject that they are going to teach at a standard equivalent to degree level. To address the difficulties of recruiting graduates in some subjects (see §159-163) study materials and subject support are now being made available to enable initial teacher training students to widen their subject knowledge, where necessary.
233. All candidates for teacher training must take part successfully in an individual or group interview designed to explore their commitment to and aptitude for teaching.
234. Initial teacher training has traditionally been provided by higher education institutions (universities and colleges of higher education). Since 1983 all newly qualified teachers have been graduates. In recent years the initial training of teachers has been reformed:
- to provide a variety of high quality routes to qualified teacher status;
 - so that schools play a larger and more influential part in initial teacher training;
 - to focus on the competences of teaching (subject knowledge and skills).
235. The trend towards placing students in schools for greater proportions of their training has resulted in a sharing of responsibility between higher education institutions and schools. Higher education institutions work in partnership with schools, and schools are financially rewarded for their contributions to training. Some teachers are trained to act as mentors to student teachers, playing a key role in their development and assessment. Some schools take a lead in provision of training through School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITTs), and in employment-based routes into teaching (see below). Schools that have already shown good practice in teacher training can apply to become Training Schools; successful schools then receive additional funding to develop and disseminate more innovative approaches to initial teacher training such as the creation of teaching

laboratories, or using new technology to enhance teaching and learning. There are currently 82 schools in the programme. According to the DfES, early evidence suggests that their enhanced focus on initial teacher training has a positive effect on training across the whole school, especially in continuing professional development where teachers are becoming more reflective practitioners.

236. Unlike other higher education courses (funded by the Higher Education Funding Council), all teacher training in England is funded through the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), which allocates both student numbers and funds to providers on the basis of quality of provision as judged in Ofsted reports. When deciding between providers in the same quality categories, the TTA has prioritised bids that: recognise local teacher shortages; reflect a need for teachers from minority ethnic groups; result in economic cohort sizes; or offer the TTA a balanced portfolio across the country. The system has been criticised for its limited recognition of regional factors; it has been shown that teachers are a relatively immobile labour force, and many continue to work near where they trained (Smithers and Robinson, 1998). Providers are penalised financially for both under-recruitment and over-recruitment. This places them under considerable heavy pressure to meet their targets exactly, and it has been suggested that this may result in the acceptance of some weaker candidates who may later withdraw. However, providers are also under pressure to maintain their quality category (as a lower grade results in a cut in numbers); this militates against taking on weak students (Chambers and Roper, 2002).
237. The requirements for initial teacher training set out minimum amounts of time for training in schools:
- undergraduate four year programmes: 32 weeks
 - undergraduate two and three year programmes: 24 weeks
 - postgraduate secondary and upper primary / lower secondary programmes: 24 weeks
 - postgraduate primary: 18 weeks.
- There is some flexibility in postgraduate requirements depending on previous experience. Each trainee teacher must have experience in at least two schools, and in the age ranges they are training to teach.
238. In September 1999 a new national curriculum for initial teacher training was introduced, which specified what trainees must learn in core subjects of English, mathematics, science and in the use of information and communications technology. This curriculum was revised and simplified in conjunction with the changes to the QTS standards; the new version applied from September 2002 (TTA, 2002).
239. As Table 3.1 showed, the largest initial teacher training route is postgraduate, with around 22,000 current students (66%). Of these 1,500 are on flexible modular postgraduate courses. There are over 8,000 (23.5%) on undergraduate routes, and around 3,500 on employment based routes (almost 10%).
240. Undergraduate teacher training is through either a Bachelor of Education degree or another degree that leads to QTS, normally lasting either three or four academic years. Undergraduate courses generally provide training to teach in primary schools or early years settings. This route has decreased in numbers over the last few years.
241. Postgraduate teacher training is a one year (38 week) course leading to the award of a Postgraduate Certificate in Education. Courses are based either in higher education institutions (the majority) or in schools. The majority of courses are full-time, but part-time courses are also available.
242. School Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) is full-time school-based postgraduate training, first introduced in 1994. Groups of schools take the lead in designing the training programme, though they may work in partnership with an LEA or higher education institution. There are 1,420 trainees in SCITTs (2002-3), comprising 6.1% of all those undertaking postgraduate training (DfES 2003c).
243. Flexible routes into teaching are designed for graduates with some teaching experience. At the start of the course their previous experience and learning is assessed and a programme to meet their individual needs is devised.

244. The Fast Track programme, launched in 2000, is designed for those with the potential to become outstanding teachers and future leaders of schools. It involves a year of augmented postgraduate training (offered only by those providers who have achieved high grades in inspections). This augmented training is the start of an accelerated career path. (It is also possible for qualified teachers to move onto this career path: see §346). In 2002-3 there are 118 Fast Track trainees.
245. The Teacher Associate Scheme and the Undergraduate Credit Scheme allow undergraduates on non-education degree programmes to receive training towards the standards for QTS, with the aim of encouraging them to consider teaching as a career and helping them to make informed decisions. The Teacher Associate Scheme was piloted from 2000-02 in Education Action Zones (§91); students spend time in school supporting teachers in preparing and delivering lessons. The Undergraduate Credit Scheme offers elements of teacher training either as part of the undergraduate degree course, or in addition to it. The students are then awarded credit, which enables them to follow shortened postgraduate courses. Feedback from students on both schemes indicates that they have found the experience valuable and enjoyable. In 2002-3, up to 2,000 places are available across the two schemes.
246. Employment-based routes into teaching were first introduced in 1990. Currently the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) and Registered Teacher Programme (RTP) offer ways to qualify as a teacher while in employment, and operate in both England and Wales. They are designed for mature (over 24 years), well-qualified people who can quickly take on responsibilities and who need to earn a living while they train. These routes are not automatically recognised by the GTC Scotland.
247. Through the GTP, schools apply for grants towards the cost of employing a graduate trainee, training costs and final assessment for QTS. Entry is competitive with places allocated to the best schools and trainees, and to those from under-represented groups or teaching shortage subjects. This represents a positive development of the scheme, as in its earlier formulation, trainees had to find their own places in schools. At the start of the programme the applicant's training needs are assessed by the Recommending Body, and an individual programme lasting from one term to a year is designed. Recommending Bodies include higher education institutions, SCITTs, LEAs, teacher employment agencies, charitable institutions and consortia of these organisations. Since its first year in 1998, the GTP has expanded rapidly in response to demand. Fewer than 100 trainees were enrolled in 1998-9, compared with more than 3,400 in 2002-3. This represents approximately 10% of all those training to become teachers.
248. Trainees on the RTP must have had two years of higher education, and they spend up to two years working as teachers while they complete their degrees and achieve QTS. The school pays salary costs, but training and assessment are funded through the TTA.
249. The Overseas Trained Teacher Programme gives overseas-trained teachers the opportunity to gain QTS while they work in school. There is a special assessment route that allows them to present themselves for QTS assessment without further training. However, if further training is needed, the TTA will pay a training grant to the school.
250. A new venture to start in 2003, designed specifically to address teacher shortages in London, is Teach First, a two-year programme of employment-based teacher training for high-flying graduates who expect to enter business careers. The programme will offer intensive training during the summer after graduation, and support and training during the first year of teaching, resulting in the attainment of QTS. During the second year the teacher will be offered business-led mentoring and opportunities to do management training. The programme has attracted considerable business sponsorship. Teach First is a recognition of the value of attracting people into the teaching profession for a limited period rather than as a life-long career.
251. Teacher training is inspected by Ofsted. Reports indicate a continued rise in the quality of established courses and the standards reached by trainees, though there are still concerns about the subject knowledge of primary trainees in English and mathematics. More recently established courses and newer routes into teaching have been judged to have more shortcomings (Ofsted, 2002b). A report based on visits to 72 GTP trainees in 2001 generally approved selection procedures, but commented

that the programme was not adequately achieving the target of focusing on under-represented groups and shortage subjects. Standards were achieved at a moderate level, but Ofsted concluded that too many candidates were failing to achieve the high standards of which they were capable, and highlighted the need for greater consistency in the quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation of training programmes (Ofsted 2002e). These issues are being addressed through the creation of a network of designated Recommending Bodies.

Wales

252. Many of the arrangements for initial teacher training in Wales parallel those in England. Teacher training is funded through the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales, which is also responsible for the accreditation of providers of initial teacher training in Wales. The main teacher training routes are undergraduate and postgraduate, and there are small numbers on the GTP and RTP. Those wishing to follow the GTP have to find a job at a school. SCITTs are not organised in Wales, though some English SCITTs may include Welsh schools. The Fast Track, Overseas Trained Teacher Programme, flexible routes into teaching, and the undergraduate credit and teacher associate schemes do not operate in Wales.
253. Initial teacher training in Wales is inspected by Estyn. Estyn's annual report for 2000-01 concluded that trainees' teaching in schools was satisfactory or better in 90-95% of cases (Estyn, 2002). The quality of education and training, and of staffing, on initial teacher training courses was judged to be good, as was the design of courses and support offered. The annual report for 2001-2 identified two areas for development: support for trainees who are nervous about teaching in Welsh, and guidance for people from minority ethnic groups who may want to train as teachers (Estyn, 2003).

Scotland

254. Initial teacher training takes place in higher education institutions (universities and colleges of higher education), and is funded through the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (which funds all higher education). Teacher training numbers are allocated to providers (as they are in England) following advice from the Scottish Executive. A Teaching Qualification is awarded to those who successfully complete a course at a Scottish teacher education institution.
255. To enter a primary teacher education course, the applicant must have a qualification in English at Level 6 (Higher - usually taken at age 18) and in mathematics at Level 5 (usually taken at age 16) (or equivalents). For an undergraduate course a further subject at Level 5 is required; for a postgraduate course, a degree is necessary. To enter a secondary course applicants must have a qualification in English at Level 6, and, for a postgraduate course, a degree which includes passes in credit points equivalent to one third of the degree which are relevant to the Teaching Qualification in question. Specific requirements in relation to this are set out for some subjects.
256. Postgraduate courses are 36 weeks long, of which at least 18 weeks must be devoted to school experience; undergraduate courses are four years, with at least 30 weeks of school experience. The course must enable the student to acquire specified competences. The ways in which the competences are to be developed or assessed are not prescribed; they are matters for teacher education institutions and schools involved.
257. There is no common required structure for initial teacher education programmes in Scotland, and many of the working practices have been based upon informal agreements based on a general desire of all parties to help student teachers. However, with the changes brought about by the McCrone agreement, it is recognised that there is a need to consolidate existing good practice into a framework of accountability and professionalism. A 'First Stage' Review of Initial Teacher Education, carried out by Deloitte and Touche (June 2001), made recommendations on a variety of issues including partnerships, placements, ICT (information and communications technology) and behaviour management.

Northern Ireland

258. Initial teacher education takes place in five higher education institutions, financed through the Department for Employment and Learning. These institutions are non-denominational, and they attract students from differing religious backgrounds. The requirements on entry are similar to those in England, but there is intense competition for courses; generally high points scores at A level (examination taken at age 18) or upper second class degrees are needed. Those who do not obtain admission often go to train in England, and then return to take up employment in Northern Ireland. Reforms to initial teacher education in the mid-1990s extended the proportion of time students spend in schools during their training to similar levels to those required in England.
259. The content of initial teacher education courses is kept under regular review and each higher education institution has liaison groups composed of stakeholder groups from the education service. The recently established GTC Northern Ireland will play a key role in this area in the future.

Stakeholder concerns about initial teacher education

260. Current arrangements have given rise to some stakeholder concerns. The Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) argues that there has been an overemphasis on government control, and that the contribution which universities can make has been under-valued. They also express concern about the specification by government of the competences which teachers should be expected to demonstrate. While these provide a clear focus for programmes and their development, UCET considers that there is not enough emphasis on the theoretical underpinnings of teaching. They argue: 'The government appears committed to the training of teachers. We are firmly committed to the education of teachers' (UCET, 2002a).
261. Providers claim that in recent years the level of funding for initial teacher training has been inadequate (UCET, 2003). Some higher education institutions are subsidising teacher education with funds from other sources, and this has led to some threatening to withdraw from teacher training (though only one has done so, and demand for the allocation of additional places is strong). In response to the claims of under-funding, the DfES has initiated a review of the initial teacher training unit of funding (the amount provided per trainee) which will examine and assess the cost pressures faced by providers and the extent of subsidies if they exist. UCET (2002b) also expresses serious and growing concern about the recruitment and retention of staff to run initial teacher education programmes in higher education institutions. Suitably qualified teachers now earn very much more in school, and would have to take a substantial pay drop to move into teacher education.
262. The Commission for Racial Equality, the Equal Opportunities Commission and the Disability Rights Commission argue that the curricula at all levels (from initial teacher training to leadership courses) should more explicitly address equality issues, including disability, racism and gender issues.

Provision for those changing careers or re-entering teaching after a break

England and Wales

263. Research suggests that there are many different reasons why mature people choose to change careers to enter teaching. These include becoming interested in teaching as a parent or while working as a nursery nurse or teaching assistant; and a desire to move into a career that is seen as more worthwhile, satisfying and people-centred, and as offering a high degree of stability and security (Priyadharsini and Robinson-Pant, 2001).
264. The Graduate and Registered Teacher Programmes (§246-8) are employment-based routes designed to attract mature people who would like to become teachers. In England, flexible routes into teaching allow those with experience of teaching to be assessed against the standards for QTS with very limited or no further training. Routes are starting to emerge for teaching assistants who want to go on to achieve QTS, and this is likely to take place in a more structured fashion following the development of higher level teaching assistants (§448-9). One university runs a four-year work-based undergraduate programme leading to QTS specifically designed for classroom assistants.

265. Returners' courses lasting 6-12 weeks are offered to those qualified teachers who feel that they need up-dating. Participants receive training bursaries of £150 a week (to a maximum of £1,500), and are also eligible for support with child-care of up to £150 a week. The TTA sponsors approximately 80 returner courses around the country. Approximately 20% of those returning to teaching attend such courses; others simply apply for jobs (Penlington, 2002). The TTA reports that the majority of returners attending courses go on to make a return to teaching; only 2.4% of attendees stated that they would definitely not return to teaching (source: TTA).
266. The TTA's 'Keeping in Touch' programme is designed for those taking career breaks who wish to keep in touch with educational developments. It offers a dedicated help line; a magazine updating them on current issues in education; support in identifying returner courses; and links to LEA recruitment staff. The service currently has over 14,000 active members.

Scotland and Northern Ireland

267. There are currently no special education / training provisions made for established professionals from other occupations who would like to become teachers, or for former teachers who would like to re-enter the profession. In Scotland some conversion courses are offered for those who have a Teaching Qualification but wish to change from primary to secondary or vice versa.

Induction and early professional development arrangements

268. There are probationary or induction arrangements in all four countries. These have in all cases been substantially revised and developed in recent years (Northern Ireland 1996, England 1999, Scotland 2002, and Wales 2003) in response to various pressures: it has been argued that securing an early foundation for continuing professional development is a necessary element of successful career development; that newly qualified teachers need particular attention and support that will build on their initial training; that induction support will help teacher retention in the first year; and that a probationary period acts as a further check on teacher competence. In all cases the revisions relate to a general move to see professional development as a continuous process throughout the teaching career. The competences or standards identified for induction build on those for initial teacher training. In Northern Ireland this is part of a continuous process of development extending into the second and third years of teaching. Similarly in Scotland three levels have been identified: the Standard for Provisional Registration, the Standard for Full Registration (achieved at the end of the induction period) and the Standard for Chartered Teacher (described in the next section).

England

269. Before 1992 teachers served a one-year probationary period, but between 1992 and 1999 there were no national regulations for induction in England. The DfES introduced a statutory induction period (one year) for newly qualified teachers (NQTs) from September 1999. The induction period must be undertaken by those qualified teachers who wish to work in maintained schools and non-maintained special schools. Induction may also be completed while working in foundation schools, independent schools and sixth form colleges. During the induction period new teachers have to demonstrate they have continued to meet the standards required for qualified teacher status, and meet all the induction standards.
270. The induction policy has two main principles: an entitlement to support and professional development for NQTs, and assessment against defined national standards. NQTs have an individualised programme of support during their induction year from a designated induction tutor. This takes account of the NQT's strengths and areas for development as set out in the Career Entry Profile that each NQT brings from initial teacher training to the first teaching post. The programme includes observation of their teaching, watching more experienced teachers in different settings (for example, in beacon schools), and a professional review of progress at least every half term. The head teacher of their school should plan that the NQT does not teach more than 90% of a normal timetable during the induction period.

271. The head teacher is responsible with Appropriate Bodies (for maintained schools and non-maintained special schools this is the LEA, and for independent schools, it is either any LEA in England or the Independent Schools Council Teacher Induction Panel) to make a final recommendation as to whether the new teacher has passed or failed. The Appropriate Body makes the final decision, and there is a right of appeal to the GTC England. Those who do not successfully complete their induction can no longer teach in maintained schools and cease to be registered with the GTC England. In July 2000, 0.2% of those undergoing induction failed to reach the required standards, and in July 2001 the failure rate was lower. Both schools and LEAs receive funding for induction provision and assessment (£5 million to LEAs and £59.4 million to schools in 2001-2). This provided schools with £1,000 per term for each NQT undergoing induction.
272. There is evidence that for many NQTs the induction period is a supportive and positive experience, and acts as an incentive to stay in the profession; however, implementation is not uniformly good, and a minority of NQTs experience lack of support leading to stress and disaffection. There was overwhelming agreement among headteachers and induction tutors that statutory induction is helping NQTs to be more effective teachers (Totterdell *et al.*, 2002a, 2002b). Ofsted comment that arrangements are at least satisfactory in most schools but good practice is not yet sufficiently common (Ofsted, 2002b)
273. Overseas-trained teachers with at least two years' teaching experience may be eligible for assessment against Induction Standards and QTS standards at the same time, and if successful, will not need to serve an induction period.
274. The DfES has recently set up a scheme for Early Professional Development in the second and third years of teaching. This has been piloted in 12 LEAs to assess potential for introducing this nationally.

Wales

275. Arrangements for induction for newly qualified teachers are to be introduced from September 2003. The process, and the support offered, will be similar to those in England, involving a Career Entry Profile, support and funding, and a 90% timetable. This will be followed by a programme of Early Professional Development in the second and third years of teaching, which will be piloted from September 2003. It is intended to provide a bridge between induction and continuing professional development; teachers will be supported by mentors and offered funding

Scotland

276. In Scotland, a new probationary system has been introduced from September 2002 (Scottish Executive, 2002c). All NQTs are allocated to a training post for their first full year of employment, during which time they have a 70% timetable with 30% for professional development. Students list their choice of five Local Authorities in which they would be prepared to work, in order (with consideration for denominational preferences, Gaelic-speakers and disabled students). After the year they can apply for Standard Full Registration with the GTC Scotland, if they can meet the requirements. The probationary period can be undertaken in independent schools by applying for advertised posts.
277. This system replaces the previous probationary arrangements, which involved a two-year probationary period. This caused some difficulties for NQTs who did not immediately take up employment, or who had broken service earlier in their career, and on average it took three and a half years to complete induction.
278. The new system has yet to be evaluated. Early anecdotal evidence suggests that the system of placement has presented schools with some problems in planning their staffing, as probationers occasionally displace staff on temporary contracts. There may also be difficulties around the assignment of mature new teachers who have family commitments.

Northern Ireland

279. In 1996 the then Northern Ireland Teacher Education Committee (NITEC) placed induction as a one year middle stage in a three-phase model of teacher education, between initial education and early professional development (the second and third years of teaching). This is based on a professional model of teacher competences. The aim of this integrated partnership-based approach is to encourage beginning professionals to develop their critical, reflective practice in order to improve their teaching and the quality of pupils learning. 'Arrangements for Initial Teacher Education in Northern Ireland from 1 September 1996' laid out five areas of competence as the foundation for the three stages of teacher education. NITEC has subsequently been subsumed within the GTC Northern Ireland.
280. These competences (§230) are developed as a basis for an integrated programme for teacher education through a professional partnership between the schools, the Curriculum Advisory and Support Service (CASS) of the education and library boards (ELBs), the higher education institutions, and, where appropriate, the Council for Catholic Maintained Schools. While all partners are involved at each of the three stages, the higher education institutions are in the lead at the initial stage, the ELBs and CASS are in the lead at the induction stage, and the beginning teacher and the school are in the lead at the stage of early professional development.
281. As in England and Wales, a Career Entry Profile is provided for each newly qualified teacher by their initial training institution. This personal profile of the strengths and developmental needs sets targets and goals, both to encourage beginning teachers to develop a reflective attitude to their own professional development and to act as a vehicle of communication from the initial stage, to induction, and through to the early professional development stage. During the induction year action plans are agreed. School-based support and a range of courses are available, and the teacher assembles a portfolio of evidence of professional development. Lessons are observed and constructive feedback offered. A summative report indicates the outcomes of professional development during the induction period, and possible foci for future professional development. The Inspectorate surveyed the induction support programme in 1995-6 and concluded that it is effective in enhancing practical teaching skills, and that the support structures are effective. A further evaluation is currently in progress. Early Professional Development in the second and third year of teaching focuses specifically on the needs of the individual teacher within the context of his/her school. This involves the completion of two professional development activities representing approximately 40 hours work over two years. These are carefully monitored and evaluated, and may be submitted to gain accreditation towards a postgraduate qualification. A quality audit of these professional development activities, carried out in 2000-01, found that teachers are benefiting from the experiences provided. However, there was considerable variation in the standard of professional development activities that were considered to be satisfactory.
282. At the end of the initial stage of teacher education the successful teacher is qualified to teach. There is no probationary period before full recognition applies, and schools are not required to submit regular reports to the Department of Education on the teacher in his/her first year of teaching.

Continuing professional development for teachers

283. Professional development of teachers has gained a very much higher profile over the last decade, and is seen as central both to raising standards and to making teaching a more attractive profession that can recruit and retain high quality teachers. There are a number of different kinds of professional development:
- national training initiatives, such as training in support of the National Numeracy and Literacy Strategies, and National Opportunities Fund ICT training in England;
 - professional development relating to career stage; each country is in the process of developing more coherent policies that build on initial teacher training and enables the teacher to pursue pathways to either leadership roles, or to achieving excellence in the classroom. While the end vision appears to be similar in all parts of the United Kingdom, the current position and the strategies for raising the profile of professional development have some differences, described below.

- school-based professional development relating to identified school needs. In England and Wales five working days are set aside for such development;
 - individual professional development, meeting the individuals' particular needs and interests; this includes many of the courses run by higher education institutions and education authorities which teachers may choose to attend.
284. Some concerns have been expressed about the balance of opportunities within this spectrum; for example, the GTC England argues that national initiatives should not dominate, and that they should support informed professional judgement rather than being prescriptive.
285. A wider concern is about the time available for professional development activity; the heavy workload of most teachers can make professional development seem an additional burden rather than an opportunity. The scheduling of professional development activities is problematic. Holding sessions in the working day indicates the importance of such activity; however, issues around the provision of cover may make schools reluctant to release teachers, and teachers may be reluctant to attend courses, in that they are not confident that their classes will be satisfactorily covered. It is essential that there are enough teachers and other adults in schools to enable professional development to take place without disruption to pupils' learning. Holding sessions in the evenings or at weekends may result in teachers working even longer hours. In some cases, LEAs are making payments to teachers involved in particular training activities held at weekends or in the evening.
286. The professional development and support of supply teachers is another crucial issue. In that much professional development activity is school-based, they are likely to miss out. Ofsted (2002f) found that a significant minority of supply teachers in primary schools in England have received insufficient training in the National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies.
287. Traditionally there have been no links between professional development activities and maintenance of certification to teach, salary or career pathways (though those making appointments would obviously take into consideration the professional development that applicants had undergone). However, recent developments will create such links. In Scotland, the Chartered Teacher grade (described below) will be achieved by qualification, having followed an assessed programme of professional development over a number of years. In England the government proposes to make professional development activity a condition of service. Professional development activity will also be linked to promotion opportunities in England, Scotland and Wales in that headship qualifications are to become mandatory for those being appointed to headships.

England

288. The government's commitment to professional development is evidenced by the national strategy for professional development, published in March 2001, and by sharply increased funding available to support such activities. The DfES has appointed nine regional advisers, seconded from schools and LEAs, to promote the national strategy across the nine government office regions.
289. Much of the professional development available relates to the career stage of the teacher. Schemes have been developed for those in the early years of teaching, building on the induction year. The pilot scheme for development in the second and third years of teaching was mentioned in the previous section. Linked to this is a Professional Bursary Scheme for teachers in their fourth and fifth years of teaching (open across England in April 2002 following a successful pilot scheme). It is a grant of £500 that teachers can claim to help them achieve their performance management objectives. These measures can be seen as important parts of the strategy to retain teachers.
290. Since 1995 there has been a rapid development in the leadership programmes.
- HEADLAMP – the leadership and management programme for new headteachers - started in 1995 as induction training for new headteachers; funding is provided to support their leadership and management development in the context of their school.
 - The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), a preparation for headship, was introduced in 1997 and re-launched in autumn 2000 following wide-ranging consultation. It is delivered through activities in school, training sessions, tutorials and e-learning; 6,600 teachers

have attained the qualification so far. From April 2004, all those taking up first headships in maintained schools should hold the NPQH or be working towards it.

- The Leadership Programme for Serving Heads established in 1998 is designed for serving heads to reflect on and develop their leadership skills.

291. These courses are administered by the National College for School Leadership, launched in November 2000, with the aim of helping current and future school leaders develop the necessary skills, capability and capacity. It has published a comprehensive Leadership Development Framework identifying five key stages in a school leaders' career around which it will plan its programmes. This includes proposals for Leading from the Middle, a programme for subject and specialist leaders in the 'emergent leadership' stage, currently being piloted with 130 teachers. The college was asked in its remit to consider how to encourage more people from under-represented groups to apply to leadership positions, and it is developing a new programme to support women in leadership, and offers an Equal Access to Promotion programme aimed at minority ethnic teachers, as well as sponsoring SHINE, a course developed by the London Leadership Centre for minority ethnic teachers aspiring to headship. These initiatives are particularly important in view of the imbalances of gender and ethnicity in leadership posts, which are an on-going concern for stakeholders such as the Commission for Racial Equality, the Equal Opportunities Commission and the Disability Rights Commission.

292. Ofsted (2002c) concluded that leadership and management have improved in schools, and that the programmes provided are generally effective, though they do not always meet the diverse needs of all participants. A survey of the current state of school leadership in England designed to inform the development and evaluate the impact of the National College for School Leadership (Earley *et al.*, 2002) shows that 17% of head teachers thought they were 'very prepared' for leadership, rising to 21% among NPQH candidates. Leaders in schools are demotivated by 'over-bearing bureaucracy and excessive paperwork' and by constant change in the education system', and the report recommended that future school leadership programmes should include strategies for managing workload, work-life balance and disseminating good practice. The report noted positive signs of progress in that 65% of NPQH candidates are female, but commented that further work is needed to encourage those from under-represented groups to take up leadership roles in schools, including equal opportunities training for governors involved in selection panels.

293. In addition to the opportunities related to career stage, a whole range of opportunities for individual professional development have been introduced in the last few years:

- Best Practice Research Scholarships: grants up to £2,500 to research into teaching and learning (offered to 1,000 teachers in 2001-2);
- Teachers' International Professional Development programme: short study visits and exchanges abroad to learn best practice;
- Sabbaticals scheme: 6 week sabbaticals for experienced teachers in challenging schools (defined in this context as those with over 35% of pupils eligible for free school meals: see §56) to enhance the teacher's development and provide significant benefits for the school (from September 2001);
- Professional Development Placements: short placements in business or other organisations intended to promote effective links between schools and work; add an effective work-related dimension to the curriculum; offer experience of management in different contexts. These placements rename the teacher placement programme of the early 1990s. Around 7% of teachers go on placements each year.

In addition to these developments, many teachers pursue in-service training courses leading to recognised postgraduate professional or academic qualification. Such courses are funded through the Teacher Training Agency, and inspected by Ofsted.

294. Schools have a central role in professional development, through performance management (see §382-3) and through sessions organised within and between schools. In a new initiative, Networked Learning Communities, launched in 2002, groups of schools form networks to share knowledge and innovation. Another strategy for sharing good practice across schools is the requirement that

Advanced Skills Teachers (described fully in §345) should spend 20% of their time working with teachers in other schools or with initial teacher training providers, offering professional development to others. The introduction of Beacon schools is also designed to facilitate the sharing of good practice. Professional development activity within schools will increasingly bring together teachers and support staff: for example, class teachers and teaching assistants who work alongside them.

295. The importance of training and development opportunities for support staff has been recognised. An induction programme for teaching assistants already exists, and it is proposed to develop similar programmes for other support staff. Some LEAs are introducing a framework of training and qualifications. The DfES *Time for Standards* (2002b) proposes three career progression routes: pedagogical (for groups providing classroom support); behaviour and guidance (for learning mentors working with individual children) and administration and organisation (for school administrators, bursars or premises managers). The new training opportunities will be key to supporting the development of support staff who aspire to higher level roles.
296. Many of these schemes are very new and it is not yet possible to evaluate their success. A major programme of research and evaluation is under way. Ofsted (2002d) found that most teachers and support staff are constructively engaged in professional development activities. However, they were rarely able to identify specific effects on pupils of their activity, and few schools evaluated whether their professional development activities were achieving value for money in terms of pupil achievement. Ofsted (2001c) inspection of postgraduate in-service training for teachers reported that four out of five courses were either good or very good. However, many participants reported that their headteachers showed little interest in their work on the courses, even when they were carrying out projects that had direct implications for the school.
297. Professional development is also a priority in the independent sector. The Girls' Schools Association and the Headmasters and Headmistresses Conference, representing private secondary schools, provide a range of courses. They are currently trying to link with an HE institution to arrange accreditation for these courses for the NPQH and /or a Masters degree.

Wales

298. The GTCW has carried out a consultation with the profession about professional development, aiming for a programme of training and development bursaries that meet the needs of the individual teacher. This would build on the one-year induction and two years of early professional development already planned for introduction in 2003. The pilot scheme awarded teachers bursaries of £500 to help them spend time in other schools studying best practice and innovation, or £3000 to undertake longer term and more in-depth studies. Pilot schemes are being funded to enable teachers from particular subject areas, school clusters or LEAs to work together on a regular basis as a professional network, and to develop whole school initiatives. These pilot schemes are currently being evaluated. Initial findings indicate that they have had a positive effect on teachers' professional effectiveness.
299. The Welsh Assembly has introduced a National Headship Development Programme to provide on-going support to enhance the professional development of head teachers in Wales. This programme provides training for aspiring head teachers through the NPQH, as well as guidance for newly appointed heads and additional development opportunities for experienced head teachers. It is proposed that the NPQH will become mandatory from September 2005. The Professional Headship Induction Programme in Wales is intended to guide and support the professional development of head teachers during their first two years of headship. This distinctive programme was launched in September 2001 and has four key elements: a professional headship profile, mentor support, peer network support, and a national training and development directory. It is a flexible programme that enables participants to access a national programme set within a local context, providing them with a framework in which they can build an individual development programme.

Scotland

300. *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century* (the McCrone settlement: Scottish Executive, 2001) agreed an additional contractual 35 hour continuing professional development per annum for all

teachers. Continuing professional development includes all personal professional development, attendance at nationally accredited courses and small school-based activities based on local need and on school, local and national priorities. A National Framework for continuing professional development is being developed.

301. A new Chartered Teacher grade has been created as an alternative career path for those wishing to advance their careers without leaving the classroom. While this has some similarities to the English Advanced Skills Teacher, the Chartered Teacher is essentially different in that teachers work towards this grade by following an assessed programme over a number of years. The Standard for Chartered Teacher defines the level of accomplishment which teachers seek to achieve after completing the Standard for Full Registration at the end of their probation. The Chartered Teacher Programme will become available from August 2003. The programme has a strong classroom focus, and the equivalent of 50% of any programme must allow the teacher to address and enhance their professional actions.
302. Achievement of the Standard for Headship is to be mandatory for first time appointment to headship from August 2005. The associated development programme, the Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH), began as a pilot in 1998 and became fully operational in 2000. Approximately 220 candidates have already successfully completed, and 400 are currently undertaking the programme, which is currently being evaluated.

Northern Ireland

303. New proposals have recently been made for continuing professional development. The aim is to provide a continuum of professional development through to the Professional Qualification for Headship in Northern Ireland. This was introduced in September 1999 through a limited pilot programme. The pilot and the first cohort were inspected by the Education and Training Inspectorate; they report that the majority of candidates found the tasks undertaken in school to be the most useful aspect of the programme, and emphasised the importance of the support and involvement of the candidates' head teachers.

4.3 Future policy developments

304. As this chapter has shown, the last decade, and the last five years in particular, have been characterised by continual changes in the arrangements to educate, develop and certify teachers. Where individual initiatives have been evaluated this has been recorded.
305. A main area of on-going development across all four countries is the continuing professional development of teachers, including induction, early professional development, school-based initiatives and leadership training.
306. Proposals for the reform of the school workforce in England provide both challenges and opportunities. The challenges arise from the need to address the new landscape in initial teacher training and continuing professional development so that teachers are able to work effectively with support staff to raise standards in schools. The opportunities arise from action to reduce teacher workload and promote progressive reduction in teachers' overall hours so that teachers have the time to focus on core teaching and learning activities and on their own professional development.

5: TEACHER CAREERS: RECRUITMENT, EMPLOYMENT AND SALARY STRUCTURES

5.1 Introduction

307. This chapter describes in detail the context of teachers' employment across the UK. The arrangements set out here provide an important background for understanding issues of teacher retention, which are addressed in Chapter 6. The chapter describes:

- i. responsibility for employment and deployment of teaching staff;
- ii. the recruitment and selection of teachers (including the appointment process, requirements for appointments, first appointments and the recruitment through private supply agencies);
- iii. promotion and career patterns;
- iv. salary structures;
- v. movement of teachers between posts, schools and different areas;
- vi. terms and conditions of teachers' employment;
- vii. arrangements for teacher evaluation
- viii. disciplinary procedures; and
- ix. future policy developments.

5.2 Data, trends and factors

308. It should be noted that most teaching appointments in the UK are not filled by assignment, but by a competitive recruitment and appointments process that is organised by each school individually. There are some exceptions to this, but apart from in Scotland, the general responsibility for recruiting and selecting staff and for making appointments lies at the level of the school's governing body, although the employment position may be different, as described in the following paragraphs.

Responsibility for employment and deployment of teaching staff

309. In English and Wales, for community schools and voluntary controlled schools the Local Education Authority (LEA) is the employer of teaching staff, but the governing body and head have separate and particular responsibilities for selecting and managing staff. The governing body of a school with a delegated budget has extensive powers over staffing, and has responsibilities under employment law. In foundation schools and voluntary aided schools, the governing body is generally the employer, rather than the LEA. Decisions about recruiting and selecting teachers are thus the concern of the governing body, in certain cases after considering the advice of the LEA. The governing body decides the number of staff needed for the school. When a member of staff leaves, the governing body will decide whether to replace him or her, within the constraints of their budget. In practice, however, it should be recognised that governors often prefer to delegate much of their responsibilities to the head teacher.

310. In Northern Ireland controlled schools, the Education and Library Board (ELB) is the employing authority of teaching staff. In Catholic maintained schools the Council for Catholic Maintained Schools is the employing authority while in other maintained schools, the board of governors is the employer. As in England and Wales, decisions about appointments and staffing complements are the responsibility of the governing body.

311. In Scotland only one school has recently had self-governing status, and this is about to revert to local authority control. With this current exception, teachers in all schools are employed by the Local

Authority but, under the devolved management of schools, significant influence is devolved to local management and school boards.

The recruitment and selection of teachers

The appointment process

312. Generally, in England, Wales and Northern Ireland the number of teachers a school employs is determined by the governing body of the school on the advice of the head teacher who will have considered all the relevant issues at national and local level in the context of the school's overall policy and aims. When a teacher leaves, the governing body, or its sub-committee, or the head teacher if the governors have delegated this power, will consider whether or not to replace the teacher, and in what manner, given the overall pattern of teachers in the school. They may decide not to replace a teacher directly, or to seek a teacher on a different form of contract from before (temporary, permanent, full-time, part-time). Other options that might be considered include an enhanced salary for additional management responsibilities, or, in England and Wales, the recruitment of an Advanced Skills (§345) or Fast Track (§346) teacher or the offer of a recruitment and retention allowance (see salary scales, Table 5.2, p.70) if a post is particularly difficult to fill.
313. In Scotland, the staffing complement for each school is set by the local authority, but there is discretion at school level as to how this overall complement is distributed across the school and between subjects.
314. In most cases the governing body will inform the LEA (or Local Authority or ELB) and then advertise the post, generally in the press, and sometimes in an LEA vacancy bulletin (alternatively or additionally) or on the internet (additionally). Head teacher, deputy and assistant head teacher posts must be advertised nationally (i.e. within England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland respectively). Other teacher posts need not be advertised nationally, and practice varies between areas: in the large majority of cases, posts are advertised nationally. There are specific educational weekly newspapers covering England and Wales (together) and Scotland, and some national daily newspapers offer specialist teaching advertisements on a particular day in the week. Catholic schools often also advertise in the *Catholic Herald*; Anglican schools sometimes advertise in the *Church Times*; other faith-based maintained schools may also advertise in the minority ethnic press. In Northern Ireland, the majority of teaching jobs are advertised in the *Belfast Telegraph*, the *Irish News* and the local press.
315. Those seeking employment as teachers apply in response to the advertisement, normally filling in a form that will require specific categories of information, and often also making a specific letter of application. They are also normally expected to supply references from their current employer (if teaching), or their training institution (if newly qualified). Additional references may also be asked for, particularly in the case of denominational schools. Catholic schools may ask for applications from those with the Catholic Teachers' Certificate.
316. The governing body (or its sub-committee) will if necessary construct a shortlist of applicants to be invited for interview. In many schools the head teacher would lead on this process although it is common for at least one governor to be involved throughout. In many schools the governing body has delegated the appointment of teaching staff to the head teacher who will lead senior colleagues and, often a representative of the governing body, through the process. They will normally also seek references about the short-listed applicants. In some cases, the head teacher of the appointing school will observe the teaching of those short-listed applicants who are already in post, but this is not always possible. Short-listed applicants may be asked to visit the school before the interview. The governing body will always interview before making an appointment, even if they only shortlist a single applicant.
317. The position of head teacher must be advertised nationally. The full governing body establishes a selection panel, and (whatever the status of the school) the LEA's Chief Education Officer (CEO) (or a representative, usually an education adviser) may attend this to offer professional advice, but only governors on the selection panel can vote. The selection panel give the LEA details of all the

applicants selected for interview, and the LEA can advise them if they consider any of these unsuitable: if this happens, the selection panel may nevertheless recommend appointment, but must consider the LEA's points, respond in writing, and show the correspondence to the governing body. The selection panel's recommendation must be endorsed by the full governing body. The governors must consider the CEO's advice before making a decision. The LEA must appoint a candidate approved by the governing body unless they do not meet the staff qualification requirements.

318. The procedure for appointing deputy heads is the same, except that LEAs do not comment on the suitability of applicants. The governing body decides how many, if any, deputy heads the school should have. Vacancies must be advertised nationally. The head teacher has the right to attend meetings of the governing body to discuss the appointment of a deputy head, and to offer advice. The CEO of the LEA also has this right. The LEA has to appoint the candidate recommended by the governing body unless he or she fails to meet legal requirements or qualifications requirements.
319. For other teaching staff, the governing body prepares a specification for the post, and copies this to the LEA. The CEO and the head teacher have the right to attend selection meetings and offer advice. Again, the LEA has to appoint the teacher selected by the governing body, unless the candidate fails to meet the staff qualification requirements. The LEA/LA/ELB cannot insist on moving in a teacher from one of their other schools, but can put forward qualified candidates for the governing body to consider alongside other applicants. The governing body must advertise the vacancy unless they decide to accept someone put forward by the LEA or to appoint someone already working at the school.

Requirements for appointment

320. As indicated in Chapter 4, in all four countries the requirements to qualify for employment as a teacher in the maintained sector are broadly similar, involving:
- achievement of a qualification to teach;
 - registration with the appropriate General Teaching Council;
 - clearance against criminal records which may prevent the candidate from working with children or young people.
321. In England and Wales, teachers employed at LEA-maintained and non-maintained special schools are normally required to have Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (see §218-225) Head teachers, deputy head teachers and assistant head teachers must have QTS. Teachers with relevant professional recognition from Scotland, Northern Ireland or other member states within the European Economic Area may be eligible for QTS. Governors can also employ, with the consent of the LEA, unqualified teachers as instructors if they have special qualifications or experience and where no suitable qualified teacher is available. Trainee teachers who have successfully completed their training in England but not passed the skills tests may be employed as unqualified teachers for up to 5 years. Schools can also employ teachers without QTS but with a teaching qualification recognised by an overseas authority for up to two years in Wales, or up to four years in England.
322. In Scotland, teachers in maintained schools must have completed their Teaching Qualification before commencing their probationary year, and teachers achieve full GTC registration only after successful completion of probation. Unqualified teachers cannot be appointed.
323. In England, applicants for head teacher positions in the maintained sector (including nursery schools) from 2004 will be expected to have obtained the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), or to be working towards it (see §290). In Wales, there is currently a consultation exercise on proposals to implement a mandatory NPQH qualification from September 2005. In Scotland, achievement of the Standard for Headship will be mandatory from 2005 (§302).
324. In England and Wales all those employing teachers (LEAs or Governing bodies) are required to obtain clearance from the Criminal Records Bureau, a government agency established in 1997 (and operating from 2002) to ensure that those working in positions of trust with children and vulnerable adults did not harm them. This includes checking against criminal records information, Department for Education and Skills List 99 (of people barred from teaching or work with children in the

education service) and the Department of Health *Protection of Children Act* (1999) List (of people considered unsuitable to work with children). The same checks are required for support staff and volunteers working with children.

325. The Scottish Criminal Record Office provides a broadly equivalent service, called Disclosure Scotland, which also started in 2002. The check is made as part of the registration process with the General Teaching Council Scotland: the council carries out a Scottish Criminal Records Office check. Local authorities run similar checks on support staff in schools. The Scottish Executive is proposing to establish a list equivalent to List 99.
326. Since 1990 the Department of Education for Northern Ireland has required a criminal record check on anyone before they are appointed to a position giving 'substantial access to children'. This applies to employees and volunteers, whether full-time or part-time. The list of posts includes all staff in state and independent schools. In addition the department records cases of misconduct by teachers, which takes account of court convictions, dismissals and press reports, and considers 'withdrawing recognition' from the teacher concerned.

Particular arrangements for first appointments

327. First appointment procedures may differ from the normal process of appointment. In England and Wales, some LEAs operate a 'pool' system for appointment of primary teachers. Under this system the LEA estimates the overall number of vacancies it expects to have in the following September and plans to recruit an equal number of teachers. Applicants are interviewed by the LEA (often using head teachers). However school governors may decide to advertise vacancies individually or use the Pool system as an initial 'screening' device (such as the Criminal Record Check, and obtaining references) with the names of successful candidates circulated to schools when vacancies arise. Only after the second interview at the school will a contract of employment be offered. Other LEAs operate a system of General Applications, where they accept completed application forms and hold them for consideration against suitable vacancies as and when they arise. Interviews will usually be held at the school in which the vacancy occurs. In some authorities, head teachers access these applications through a centrally organised computer registration or matching systems.
328. A survey by Smithers and Robinson (2000) suggested that about half primary school full-time first appointments were to temporary contracts in England, and about a quarter of all secondary appointments, and three-quarters of all part-time appointments. Many schools appoint newly-qualified teachers to temporary contracts (sometimes of only 11 months, possibly to avoid employment protection liabilities), and then make the appointment permanent if they feel the quality of the teacher is sufficient to merit this.
329. In Scotland, first appointment now takes place through the Teacher Probationary scheme (see below).
330. In Northern Ireland, a high percentage of beginning teachers are in temporary employment in their initial year - especially in the primary sector - but the vast majority of these teachers are in permanent posts by their third year in teaching (RTUNI, 2000; DE Northern Ireland, 2001c). There appears to be a pattern of Boards of Governors taking beginning teachers "on trial" before offering them permanent contracts (Sutherland, 2001, 2002).
331. The Catholic Education Service operates a registration scheme and circulates applicants' forms to dioceses to be considered for vacancies in Catholic Schools in England and Wales (Ross, 2000a).

Supply agencies and the recruitment of supply teachers

332. There has been a considerable increase over the last decade in the role of private supply agencies in recruiting teachers to cover absences and vacancies in schools in England, and to a lesser extent in Wales and Northern Ireland. Such agencies have had a very limited impact in Scotland. The extent of this trend is not easy to chart because the definitions used in government statistics in England and Wales do not identify all those employed through agencies. 'Occasional teachers' are defined as those on placements up to a month, and for this group, the statistics distinguish between agency and LEA-employed teachers. However, a large number of agency teachers are covering vacancies of a term or

longer, and this group are not visible in the statistics collected. Estimates of the proportion of the teacher workforce in England that is employed through agencies range from a minimum of 7-8% in London (Hutchings (2002b) to 10% nationally (Barlin and Hallgarten 2002).

333. The first private supply agency was set up in 1989, and throughout the 1990s the number of agencies and the numbers of teachers supplied through these agencies increased greatly. This was partly because the supply pools run by LEAs had been relatively inefficient, while supply agencies offered a better service, getting well-trained teachers into schools promptly. They achieved this by recruiting teachers from abroad, using computerised databases, and keeping their offices open for long hours.
334. Supply agency work appears to be an increasingly popular way of working for some teachers. Supply work offers fewer responsibilities, particularly in terms of administration and record-keeping. Some teachers move from regular employment to supply work to achieve a better work-life balance (Hutchings, 2002b).
335. Agencies have largely been controlled by employment agencies regulations (*Employment Agencies Act, 1973*). They have had to comply with employment legislation, and are responsible for ensuring that the teachers they supply are qualified and have passed police checks. Applicants are normally interviewed face-to-face. Ofsted made a number of observations about the relatively poorer quality of the work of supply teachers in England in their *Annual Report* for 2000-01 (Ofsted, 2002b); the percentage of lessons in secondary schools judged unsatisfactory or poor was four times the level of permanent teachers. Some concerns about their work, together with some high profile incidents, have led to the introduction of firstly voluntary codes of practice, and more recently to the introduction of a DfES Quality Mark for supply agencies in England and Wales in the White Paper *Schools Achieving Success* (DfES, 2001c). Ofsted suggests that some schools need to offer greater levels of support to temporary teachers (Ofsted, 2002f). The DfES has published a set of self-study materials for supply teachers to specifically address the training needs of this group.
336. A report by Capital Strategies (May 2000) estimated the total market for temporary teacher placement in England at £300 million, and concluded that private agencies had more than two-thirds of this market. However, very recent evidence suggests that the private agencies are currently suffering some decrease in business. A number of factors have contributed to this. When the teacher shortage was most acute, the agencies themselves were unable to fulfil all the demands made. Thus schools found themselves having to telephone several different agencies, repeating the pattern of the 1980s when schools had to telephone individual supply teachers. A second factor is that there were considerable concerns about the standard of vetting the agencies applied. A number of cases in the media suggested that police and child protection checks were not being carried out adequately, and in the resulting press coverage, concerns about the level of agency profits featured strongly. These factors have led to some revival in LEAs establishing their own supply pools, and an increasing use of internal cover where possible. In addition, there have been some increases in teacher supply. However, while these factors have impacted on agencies, there is still a very large use of agency teachers, particularly in London and other large urban areas.
337. Supply teachers in Scotland are normally registered with an education authority. The application process varies. Some authorities interview and observe teaching; others accept all that apply provided they have GTC Scotland registration. Deployment is carried out either by the education authority, or schools contact supply teachers on the authority's list (Spratt, 2000). There are concerns about the shortage of supply teachers in Scotland, and in 2002, the Scottish Executive commissioned research in this area.

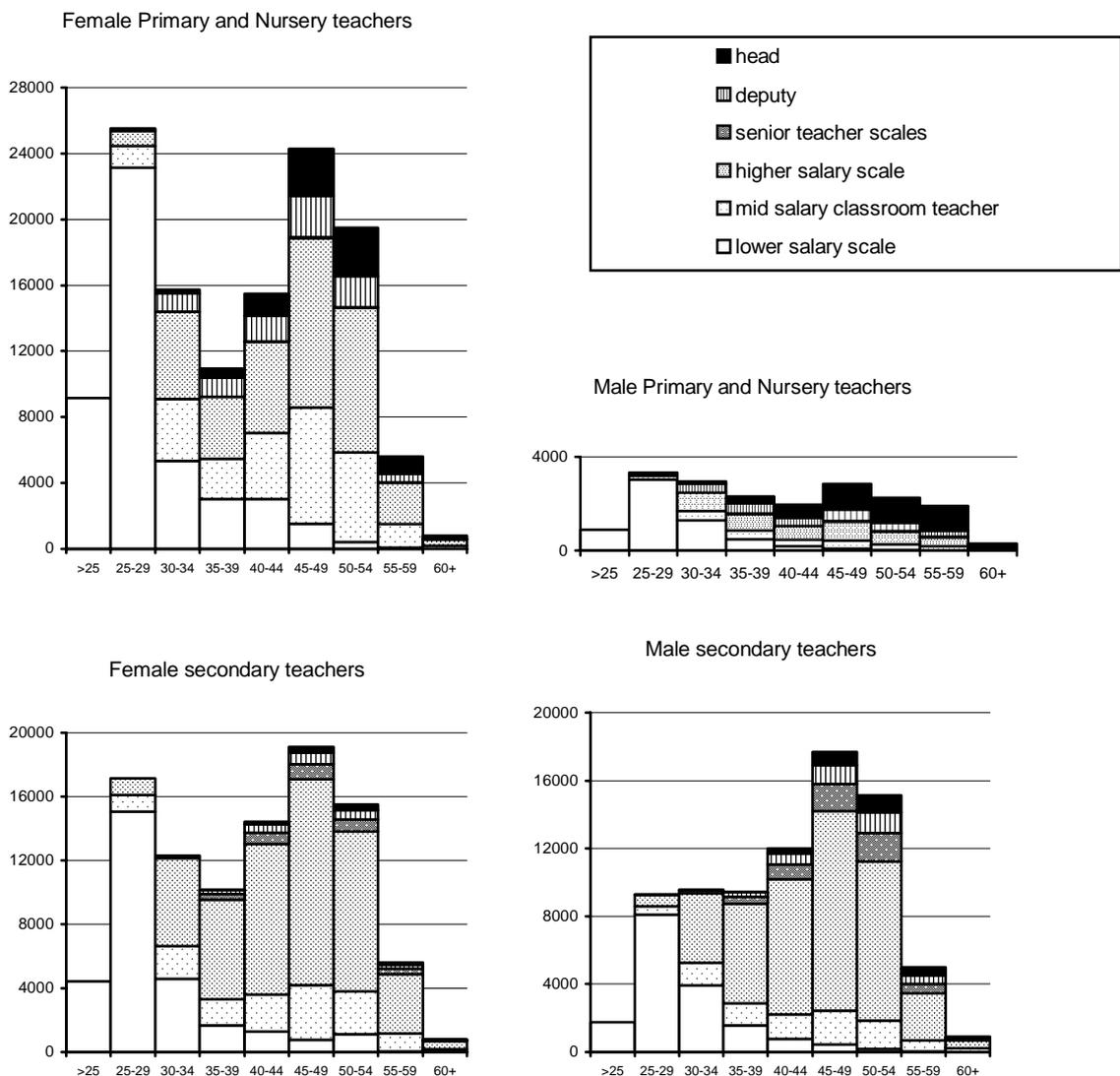
Promotion and career patterns

338. The development of a clear career structure for teachers has been identified as a major element in the strategies to retain teachers in the profession. Major restructuring of the teaching profession is taking place in all four constituent countries. There has been a diversification of career opportunities, often with the intention of providing alternative opportunities to remain in classroom teaching rather than in educational/school management. In general, it should be noted that the initiative and responsibility

for promotion in the UK lies with the individual teacher. Individuals apply for specific teaching positions, and once appointed remain in that position until they choose to apply for a different position, or to pass through a threshold assessment point. Most positions are on a particular salary scale, and the individual will be assigned to a particular point on that scale on appointment (bearing in mind their previous salary), and normally move up that scale annually until they reach the top of the scale attached to that post. This progress has until now been nominally based on satisfactory performance, but it has been extremely rare for a teacher not to be given any due annual increment (see §357).

England

Figure 5:1 Promotion level of teachers in England, 2000, by gender, age and phase



Source: DfES, (2002m) Table 32

339. Since the Green Paper of 1998, there have been a series of changes in the structure of the career pattern. Figure 5.1 sets out the promotion and career structure in 2000, before these changes came into effect. This shows:

- the gender balance in primary and secondary education: primary schools are predominantly female (83%), while in secondary education 55% of teachers are women;
 - the age structure: there are fewer teachers in their thirties and early forties, and most male teachers, primary and secondary, are over 40;
 - the distribution of upper level positions for classroom teachers: secondary schools have a far greater proportion of higher paid posts;
 - the gender distribution by grade and phase: there are higher proportions of men in senior positions, in both primary and secondary sectors, at almost every age.
340. The Teacher Training Agency is working to increase the proportion of men in primary schools (see §168). The Equal Opportunities Commission has expressed concern about the gender imbalances in promoted posts. Numbers of women in leadership and management posts have increased over the past decade. However, this reflects the increasing proportion of women in the teaching profession. The imbalance between the proportion of women in the profession and the proportion of women managers remains a constant feature (Hutchings, 2002a). Only 11.8% of primary classroom teachers in England are men, but 41.5% of primary school headships are filled by men (DfES, 2002m). Of those primary teachers who have twenty or more years teaching experience, one man in two is a head teacher, while only one woman in five is a head (Hutchings, 2002a).
341. There is also evidence (Hutchings *et al.*, 2000, Ross 2002a, Collarbone and Beecham, 2002) that teachers from the minority ethnic groups are considerably less likely to be appointed to more senior posts in schools. The Commission for Racial Equality argue that LEAs should properly monitor staff career development of teachers from minority ethnic groups. The National College for School Leadership is providing courses targeted at these groups (see §291), and the DfES have commissioned research to identify barriers to career development, looking particularly at issues of gender, ethnic origin and disability.
342. The 1998 Green Paper in England, *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* (DfEE, 1998a), set out the Government's case to extend the salary scale for experienced teachers who would agree to be evaluated to pass a threshold point. Since 1999, a new range of salary scales has been devised for classroom teachers who pass a performance threshold; a 'fast track' has been developed for accelerated promotion, and the career grade of Advanced Skills Teacher devised. In addition, a series of continuing professional development initiatives have been linked to teachers' promotion and career patterns, both to enhance performance and to maintain teacher retention (§283-303).
343. Since 2000, teachers on the top of the main salary have been able to apply to be assessed against threshold national standards of experience and effectiveness. Threshold Assessment is a single assessment made at a fixed point in a teacher's career, which gives them access to the upper pay scale. The arrangements for threshold assessment apply in Wales as well as in England, as the legislation covering this relates to teachers' pay, which is not devolved to Wales. Head teachers have been trained to make initial assessments, and these are then confirmed (in all but 0.2% of cases) by external assessors. Two rounds of assessment have been held so far, and a third is in progress. Despite some considerable resistance to the process by teachers and their professional associations, in 2000 some 201,000 teachers - 80% of those eligible to apply - did so. Of these applications, 97% were successful. In 2001 a further 31,000 teachers applied. This initiative has given more experienced teachers an opportunity to move on to a new and substantially enhanced salary scale. The salary structures introduced in 2002 mean that most teachers will be able to apply for threshold assessment when they have five or more years' experience.
344. Evaluations of the initial implementation of the threshold assessment scheme have been critical. The process was seen by many of its participants as stressful, and the first round of appraisals were particularly time-consuming, both for head teachers who had large numbers of teachers to assess, and for the teachers, who justified their applications with long written statements. There was a degree of cynicism about the process, with a number of teachers feeling that it has not led to either improvements in teaching or achievement by pupils (Mahony *et al.*, 2002; Chamberlin *et al.*, 2001, Wragg *et al.*, 2002, Haynes *et al.*, 2002). The DfES is concerned to streamline and simplify the threshold assessment process, and will be consulting on new proposals later in 2003 with a view to

introducing new arrangements in 2005-6.

345. The new career grade of Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) was introduced in 1998. This grade is designed to allow teachers who wish to stay in the classroom an alternative route for career development. Their role is to provide pedagogic leadership within their own and other schools: typically, they will spend 20% of their time in an 'outreach' role supporting professional development of their colleagues, and teach in class for the remaining time. Teachers can take up an AST post at any point in their career but in order to do so must pass AST assessment: they prepare a portfolio that shows how they meet the prescribed standards for the grade, which is evaluated by an external assessor. The assessor also interviews the applicant and observes their professional practice. In January 2003 some 2,800 teachers had passed AST assessment. The intention is that the grade will ultimately form between 3% and 5% of the workforce. Schools apply to create an AST post. Teachers on this grade are paid on a separate salary spine, and each post is graded to have five incremental points. It is possible for an AST to be paid 43% more than the upper point for a teacher who has passed the performance threshold described in the preceding paragraph.
346. The first cohort of 110 Fast Track Teachers took up their first teaching posts in 2002. Of these, 88 had newly qualified through the Fast Track initial training route (§244), and 22 were qualified teachers who had moved to the Fast Track route. They start at least one point higher on the teachers' salary spine, and after the first year will be given an additional Recruitment and Retention allowance. It is not yet clear whether or how the career paths of this grade will demonstrate a 'fast track'.

Scotland

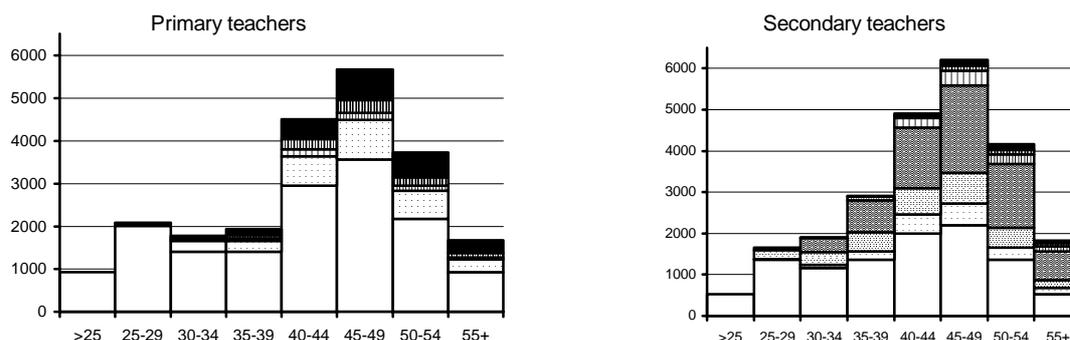
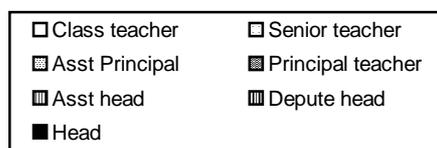
347. The McCrone Report (Scottish Executive, 2000a) introduced a rather different scheme of reorganisation in Scotland. Continuing professional development is being increasingly linked, as in England, to career development and progression. The existing grades of Assistant Principal Teacher and Senior Teacher are to be combined into a new grade of Chartered Teacher. Classroom Teachers may become Chartered Teachers (and access a higher pay structure) by qualification, rather than by threshold assessment (§301). Nine forms of professional action have been identified, relating to improving learning conditions and professional performance.
348. Statistics for 1998 show that the proportion of primary teachers who were men was much lower than in England (7%), but that these were disproportionately in the higher grades (23% of all primary heads were men). In secondary schools, although 53% of teachers were women, less than 10% of head teachers were women (see Table 5.1). Of all the men in primary teaching, 41% are at head, deputy or assistant head grade. Of all the women in primary teaching, just 21% are at those three grades. Separate figures are available for grades by age (but not also by gender): these are shown in Figure 5.2. These show the particular age imbalance in the Scottish teaching force, and also the tendency, as in England, for secondary schools to have a greater proportion of more senior posts.

Table 5.1 Teachers in Scotland, 2000, by grade and phase (number and percentage of each grade by gender)

	Primary					Secondary				
	male		Female		total n	male		female		total n
	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%	
Head teacher	515	22.7	1,746	77.3	2,261	351	90.2	38	9.8	389
Depute head	87	9.0	885	91.0	972	306	78.7	83	21.3	389
Assistant head	56	9.3	544	90.7	600	710	68.0	334	32.0	1,044
Principal teacher	grades not applicable to primary schools					4,225	60.0	2,819	40.0	7,044
Asst Principal teacher						1,312	43.4	1,712	56.4	3,024
Senior teacher	207	6.5	2,968	93.5	3,175	680	39.5	1,041	60.5	1,721
Unpromoted teacher	739	4.8	14,761	95.2	15,500	3,679	35.1	6,801	64.9	10,480
All grades	1,604	7.1	20,904	92.9	22,508	11,263	46.8	12,828	53.2	24,091

Source: Scottish Executive, (2000b) Table 4

Figure 5.2 Promotion level of teachers in Scotland, 2000, by age and phase



Source: Scottish Executive, (2000b) Table 5

Wales

349. At a broad level, the teacher workforce in Wales exhibits similar career patterns to that of England. The age profile of the workforce is a close match, for example. In terms of gender balance, again similar patterns are noted: primary schools are predominantly female (82%), while in secondary education 57% of teachers are women. There are significantly higher numbers of men in senior positions in the secondary sector, but in the primary sector women fill 60% of the senior posts, despite occupying 82% of posts overall. Numbers of women in senior posts have increased over the past decade. The new range of salary scales for classroom teachers who pass a performance threshold applies in Wales as well as England, with similar levels of application and success. The career grade of Advanced Skills Teacher also applies in Wales, although with little use at present.

Northern Ireland

350. In Northern Ireland, it has been suggested that opportunities for career progression in selective secondary schools are slower than in the non-selective schools, because of the greater stability/inertia of the teaching staff in such schools. Northern Ireland also report that there are many small primary schools where opportunities for paid promotion are limited because of school budgets. In Northern Ireland professional career development support is provided by the Leadership development programmes of the Regional Training Unit (RTUNI, 2000).

351. The Northern Ireland Teacher Education Committee, before being replaced by the GTC Northern Ireland, made proposals for the later stages of professional development. These integrate with the three initial stages of early professional development, providing a coordinated, coherent and challenging career-long process of professional development. This encourages and assists teachers to take charge of their own professional development and to prepare for a range of leadership roles, thereby improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools (DE Northern Ireland, 2001b). The CPD working group proposed a number of development options for teachers: Advanced Skills Teacher, Teacher Leader and Senior Teacher.

352. Professional development as an Advanced Skills Teacher in Northern Ireland should assist the teacher whose ambition it is to devote all or most of her/his professional life to classroom teaching,

but with sufficient flexibility to facilitate the development of leadership roles at any stage. Knowledge and skills are developed to support development as a reflective practitioner, but also to make a contribution to the wider learning community.

353. The Teacher Leader pathway is for the teacher who wishes to develop an understanding of whole school issues to prepare for a range of leadership roles. Teacher leaders will play a role in initiating and maintaining development within schools, through a variety of roles. The process focuses on communication, managing relationships, positive assertiveness, and other skills for middle management responsibilities.
354. The Senior Teacher Leader pathway is for teachers preparing for senior management. To take this option, teachers must demonstrate success in Advanced Skills Teacher and Teacher Leader activities, or comparable professional development experience. On successful completion of this option, teachers who aspire to headship should be well placed to undertake a training programme for headship, for example, Professional Qualification for Headship (Northern Ireland).

Salary structures

355. The remuneration of teachers has always been seen, by teacher associations and employers alike, as one of the critical factors affecting the retention of teachers in the profession. Teachers' pay and conditions in England and Wales are the same in structure and level and are negotiated and determined together. Those for Scotland and Northern Ireland are rather different, and are described here separately.

England and Wales

356. In England and Wales, the School Teachers' Review Body (STRB) makes annual independent recommendations that are passed to the DfES (see §146). These recommendations are normally implemented unless there are clear and compelling reasons not to do so.
357. There are a series of salary spines. Teachers and head teachers are appointed on specific scales that allow progress along all or a specified part of the relevant salary spine. Annual progress up the main salary scale to the maximum is nominally dependent on satisfactory performance, but is only very exceptionally not given. The DfES (2002h) has asked the STRB to consider making progress up the main scale performance related. In response, the STRB stated that it intends to take further evidence before making recommendations in 2004 (STRB, 2003). Progress up the upper scale is dependent on substantial and sustained performance and contribution to the school; it is accepted that the rate of progression will vary between individuals (*ibid.*). The figures given in Table 5.2 relate to salary scales from September 2002, and also show the principal additional other payments for which teachers may be eligible.
358. In addition, from 2002 new teachers in shortage subjects (see Table 3.4, p. 41) have the student loans that they accumulated during their initial training reduced, so that teachers who stay in teaching for ten years make no repayments. This is equivalent to an additional payment of about 5%.
359. Full-time teachers are automatically covered by the Teachers' Pension Scheme unless they have opted out. Part-time teachers can elect to be in the scheme. The pension is based on final salary and is index-linked.
360. The distribution of salaries in England in 2000 is shown in Figure 5.3 (p.71). The revised pay scales will significantly vary these levels in future. Salary scales in primary and secondary schools are the same, but teachers in secondary schools tend to have more opportunity to receive management allowances, which raises the average salary for secondary teachers. As head teachers' salaries are based primarily on school size, this means that head teachers and other members of the leadership group in secondary schools tend to receive higher salaries than head teachers in primary schools. As more women teach in and are heads of primary schools, this has an inevitable impact on the difference in pay between male and female teachers. Research on the barriers to career progression, including gender, ethnic origin and disability, is currently being undertaken (DfES, 2002h).

Table 5.2 Salaries for teachers in England and Wales, September 2002

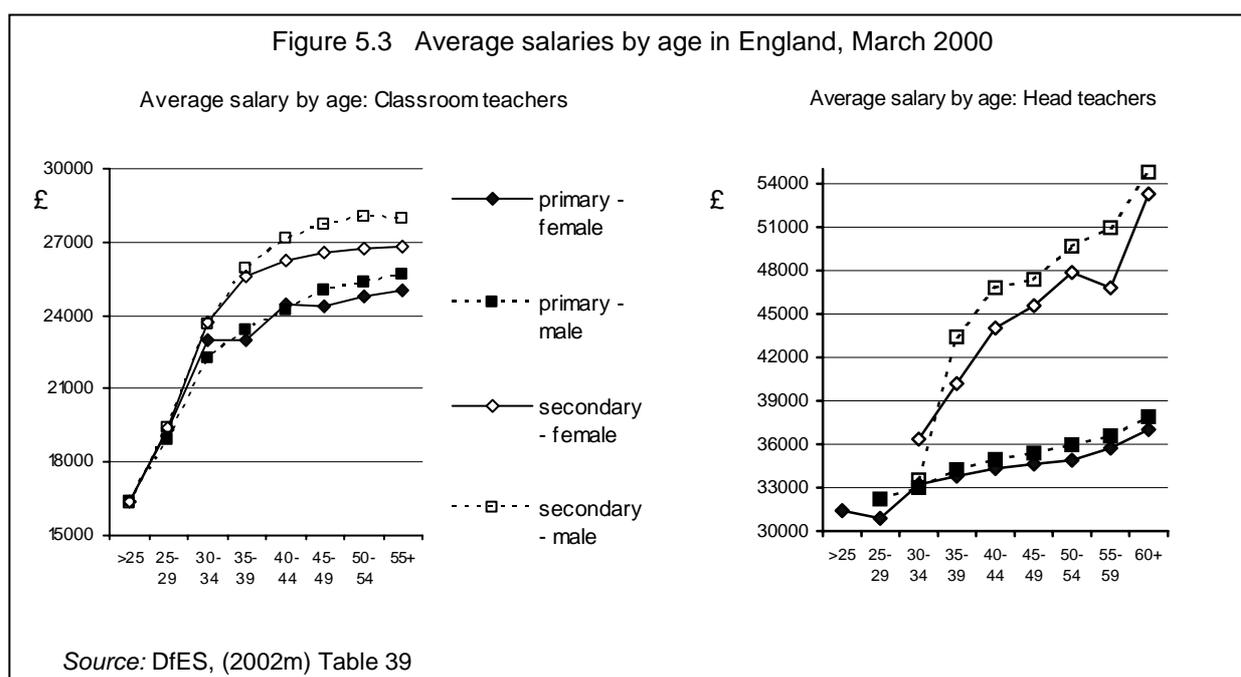
Main Salary Scales		
Main (M) scale	For all classroom teachers, of six points (collapsed from the 9 points available before September 2001), on which teachers are placed according to qualification and previous relevant experience	£17,595, rising by stages of approximately 7.8%, to £25,713
Upper (U) scale	For those teachers who have reached the top of the M scale and passed the threshold assessment, of five points, on which teachers begin on the first point. Further progression along the scale is subject to evaluation of performance against agreed annual objectives	£27,861, rising by stages of approximately 3.7%, to £32,217
Advanced Skills Teachers pay spine	27 points: teachers appointed to this grade are appointed to a scale of 5 consecutive points based on the nature of the particular post and particular competencies and challenges. Progression along the scale is subject to evaluation of performance against agreed annual objectives	£28,917 rising to £46,131
Leadership Group pay spine (L spine)	43 points, for head teachers, deputy head teachers and assistant head teachers. A range of 7 consecutive points is fixed for an individual's pay scale, based on the group size* of the school and the particular responsibilities of the post, the social and economic background of the pupils, and the difficulty in filling the post. Progression up the individual scale is subject to evaluation of performance against agreed annual objectives. (*There are 8 group sizes of schools, using a formula including the number of pupils and their age. A group 8 school typically has over 1700 pupils; a Group 1 school less than 125 pupils.)	Head teachers of the smallest schools (Group 1) get between £34,542 and £46,442, and of the largest schools (Group 8) get between £59,301 and £85,671.
Unqualified	Paid on a 10 point salary scale	£12,891 rising by ten stages to £20,388
Additional Allowances		
Management Allowance	For teachers who take on significant specified management responsibilities. There are 5 levels of award for specific levels of responsibility. In a primary school, for example, allowances at level 1 or 2 (in a large school perhaps 3) would be given to teachers taking responsibility for coordinating a curriculum area or a particular key stage; in secondary schools allowance at levels 1 to 5 would be given for heading departments, being head of year, and so on	1:£1,593 2:£3,219 3: £5,529 4: £7,611 5:£10,275
Recruitment & Retention Allowance	Made on appointment or subsequently, for an indeterminate or a fixed period of time, on one of a five point scale	1: £975 4: £4,041 2: £1,914 5: £5,262 3: £2,901
Special Educational Needs Allowance	Paid at one of two levels to teachers in special schools, or in ordinary schools where the teacher is working wholly or largely with pupils who have statements of special educational needs, or are hearing or visually impaired	1:£1,262 2:£3,219
London Area allowance	set at one of three levels for specific LEAs	Inner London: £3,105 Outer London: £2,043 Fringe Area: £792

Source: DfES, (2002f)

Northern Ireland

361. In Northern Ireland the Teachers' Pay and Conditions of Service Committee includes representatives of the Education and Library Boards, the integrated and voluntary schools sectors, the Department and the five accredited teacher unions. An independent inquiry has been established to consider how teachers' pay, promotion structures and conditions of service should be changed, taking into account a number of principles, including parity and comparability with pay levels for teachers in England and Wales. Teachers have historically enjoyed parity with teachers in England and Wales: the Northern Ireland Negotiating Committee has generally adapted the arrangements in England and Wales to the local context and maintained the same salary scales. With the establishment of the Northern Ireland Assembly and the long-term settlement agreed in Scotland following the McCrone Inquiry, there has been a view among some of the unions that a locally negotiated settlement might have advantages.

Figure 5.3 Average salaries by age in England, March 2000



Scotland

- 362. Salaries are now agreed by a Scottish Negotiating Committee for Teachers, comprising representatives of local authorities, of the Scottish Executive, and of the organisations representing teachers. Agreement on pay and conditions must be reached by all three sides.
- 363. A two-year salary agreement was reached in the wake of the McCrone settlement in early 2001. The details in Table 5.3 are of the salary structure currently being paid (November 2002), for the basis of comparison with the English and Welsh scales. However, there will be a salary increase on these scales of 3.5% in January 2003, and a further 4% in August 2003.
- 364. A 'winding down scheme' has been introduced as a retirement option, allowing teachers with 25 or more years service to work on a fractional basis (50% or more) for five years, while maintaining the pension expectations.
- 365. Details on the distribution of existing salary payments to staff by gender, age or sector are not readily available.

Table 5.3: Salaries for Teachers in Scotland, September 2002

Main Salary Scales only			
Classroom Teachers	Paid on a 7 point scale, the first of which is a probationary point. Teachers progress up the scale as in England and Wales	£16,743 (probationary), then £20,055 followed by six stages of approximately 5.7% to £27,603	
Assistant Principal and Senior Teachers	All paid £29,073, which will in due course be assimilated as the third point on the new Chartered Teachers Scale	£29,073	
Principal Teachers	Currently paid on a seven point scale. This will be replaced by a new salary range by August 2003 with an eight point scale, from £31,299 rising by increments of approximately per year £1,300 to £40,401	1: £31,340 2: £31,554 3: £32,172 4: £33,219	5: £34,242 6: £35,295 7: £36,272
Head teachers and Depute head teachers	Currently placed on a 20 point pay spine This will be replaced by a new 19 point pay spine by August 2003, ranging from £35,500 to £69,300	£34,197 to £64,854	

Source: Scottish Executive, A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century: Agreement reached following recommendations made in the McCrone Report (2001)

Movement of teachers between posts, schools and different areas

366. The nature of teachers' employment - in which conditions of employment and the nature of the work is generally defined nationally, but employment is devolved to the local authority or school and appointment is, except in Scotland, devolved to the school - means that there is limited central knowledge and no central control over the deployment of teachers.
367. In England and Wales, teachers trained for one particular phase or subject may move to work in another phase or subject, either with or without additional training. The extent of this is difficult to determine. The nature of any training to switch subject or phase is not likely to be extensive.
368. In Scotland, teachers may not teach in a phase other than the one for which they trained, without formal retraining. Also, secondary teachers may not normally teach a subject other than the one for which they trained without further qualification.
369. There is some limited movement of teachers between regions, and rather more between local areas and schools, which tends to even out imbalances in distribution. In England around 6-7% of the total workforce each year move between schools; this represents a contribution to ensuring a distribution of teachers to match needs (NEOST, 2002). The rate of this movement is higher in London (8-9%), and lower in Wales (about 4%). Hutchings *et al.* (2000) reported widespread variations in the level of school 'turbulence' in staffing (the ratio of vacancies to teacher complement), even between adjacent schools: such movement represents teachers trying to further their careers, or moving away from poor management situations, rather than an evening-out of imbalances of need.
370. There are some indicators showing the extent of net teacher movement between regions, though not whether this represents teachers responding to particular shortages or needs by subject or phase. Indeed, the fact that there was a total net outflow of 310 full-time teachers from London between 1998 and 1999 suggests the reverse, given that the vacancy rate for the London region is the highest in England. The South West (+210) and the South East (+100) were the English regions showing the largest net gain. (DfES, 2001a, Table 13).

Terms and conditions of teachers' employment

371. Teachers may be appointed either on a permanent contract – an indefinite appointment that is subject to termination at retirement or after specific termination or redundancy procedures have been applied – or on a temporary contract. There are three forms of temporary contract: fixed term (with a specified termination date), for a specific task (identifying the work to be done, but with no specified termination date), or based on some future event (specifying the post will end at a point in the future, for example triggered by the non-availability of specific funding). Most temporary posts in teaching are fixed term. But fixed term contacts still require the teacher to be dismissed at the end of the period, and if the fixed term is for more than a year, then the teacher will qualify for the same employment protection rights as a permanent teacher. The employer (LEA or governors) must try to offer suitable alternative work. After two years, there is a statutory right to redundancy pay, whatever the form of contract. In Scotland all those on temporary contracts are paid a daily rate of 1/195 of the annual salary.
372. The DfES report that in England, 6.7% of full-time teachers are on fixed-term contracts – 3.3% on contracts of less than a year, and 3.4% on contracts for more than a year. Of part-time teachers, 31.4% are on fixed-term contracts, of which 15% are for more than a year (DfES, 2002h, Table 12).
373. Some appointments involve secondment from a substantive post. These normally offer teachers the contractual right to return to the previous post at the same point on the salary scale, with updated pay increases.
374. Some teacher associations have indicated concern that certain government initiatives offer funding to schools for fixed terms. This means that posts are either offered on a temporary basis, which may limit both quality and quantity of applications, or on a permanent basis, in which case the appointee may be made redundant when the funding for the initiative terminates. Many of these funds are now being transferred to schools on a more permanent basis, which should make this less of a problem.

375. The employer of agency supply teachers is not the school (Grimshaw *et al.* 2003) (see §332-6). This means both that schools may find it difficult to monitor and enforce quality standards, and that supply teachers may experience problems in the degree of support provided by the school. However, it is not clear legally whether the agency is in the position of employer, or whether agency workers are self-employed, in that they do not have obligations to work (*ibid.*). Thus they may choose which schools to accept work in, leave situations they are not happy in, and take time off when they choose (Hutchings, 2002b). These are factors that are attractive to many agency teachers, but are clearly unsatisfactory for schools. In particular, those schools in areas of deprivation, which often have large numbers of teacher vacancies, have found it difficult to find and retain supply teachers. Newly qualified teachers have used supply work as a way to find out about schools before accepting employment, and conversely, some schools take the opportunity to see newly qualified teachers in action as supply teachers before offering them contracts.
376. Agency supply teachers do not work under the same terms and conditions of employment as permanent teachers or LEA supply teachers because, since they are not employed by the LEA or the school governors, they are not entitled to join the Teachers' Pension Scheme. They are generally paid a flat daily rate rather than on the basis of experience, and they are not entitled to sick pay or holiday pay (which is notionally included in their daily rates).
377. The employment position of supply teachers registered with an LEA (some in England and Wales, and the vast majority in Scotland) is rather different. They are paid on a daily rate of 1/195 of the annual salary that they are entitled to by their experience. Thus holiday pay is included in this rate, but there is no provision for sick pay. They are also eligible to join the Teachers' Pension Scheme.
378. 'Tenure', in the sense of guaranteed employment to retirement, does not exist in the UK teaching force; neither does the idea of a truly 'permanent' appointment. Any contract of employment may be terminated by the employer, for misconduct or through redundancy.
379. In England and Wales, teachers' contracts provide for both a maximum number of hours of 'directed time' in a year and for a number of days in a year which they may be expected to teach and follow professional development. Currently, a teacher (other than a head, deputy or assistant head, or AST) is required to be available for work for 195 days a year (of which 190 may be days on which pupils are present), and within these days perform duties for 1,265 hours as directed by the head teacher ('reasonably distributed' across the 190/195 days), and in addition work for 'such additional hours as may be necessary to discharge effectively their professional duties' – which may include preparation, marking, report-writing, etc. The head teacher cannot specify how much time this is, or where it is undertaken. 195 days is equivalent to 39 weeks of the year; 1,265 hours is equivalent to an average of 6.5 hours a day. However, recent studies of teachers' workloads (see §439-41) suggest an actual average weekly workload of 52 hours a week during term time: in other words, the 'additional hours' necessary for professional effectiveness amount to about 19.5 hours a week. Head teachers, deputy heads, assistant heads and Advanced Skills Teachers have no contractually specified hours of work. There are currently proposals to limit the extent of the additional hours, progressively reducing teachers' overall hours over the next four years (see §443-452).
380. In Scotland, following the McCrone Agreement (Scottish Executive, 2001) there is now a 35-hour week within which teachers' duties should normally be deliverable, with a maximum class contact time of 22½ hours to be achieved by 2006. In the meanwhile, the 35 hours consists of a mix of class contact time and personal time for preparation and correction, in which the personal time is not less than one third of the teacher's actual class contact commitment. This means in practice that the maximum class contact time is now 26¼ hours. All tasks that do not require the teacher to be on the school premises can be carried out at a time and place of the teacher's choosing. In practice there is little evidence that teachers in Scotland are completing their work at the end of the 35 hour week. Most choose to work reasonably beyond these hours, to improve the quality of education they offer.
381. In Northern Ireland, Schedule 3 of the *Teachers' (Terms and Conditions of Employment) Regulations (Northern Ireland)* (1987) sets out teachers' contractual obligations in respect of time in very similar

terms to those used in England and Wales. Principals and vice-principals do not have specified hours or days of work.

Arrangements for teacher evaluation

England

382. Appraisal Regulations were introduced in 2000 that form part of the performance management system for all teachers in schools in England. Individual teachers agree objectives and priorities with their head teacher or team leader on an annual basis. Head teachers' objectives must include leadership and management and pupil progress. Teachers' objectives must include developing and improving professional practice and pupil progress. Performance against these objectives is reviewed a year later (including observations of teaching performance and feedback), and the outcomes can be used to inform pay decisions to award 'performance points' to a teacher's salary. Head teachers agree overall school objectives with their governing bodies. This policy was extended to other teachers (in nursery schools, working with more than one school, and teachers on fixed-term contracts) in 2001. These procedures are separate from any decisions about the extension of employment for teachers on fixed-term contracts, and from provisions to identify ineffective teachers (Wragg *et al.*, 1999).
383. Ofsted (2003) reported that 'head teachers, other senior managers, teachers and governors largely welcomed the introduction of the performance management initiative; in the main, they were positive about the contribution that it could make to school improvement', but said that objective-setting in a minority of schools needed improvement, particularly in objectives relating to pupil progress.
384. Threshold assessment, a form of appraisal relating directly to pay scales, is described in §342-4.

Wales

385. While arrangements for threshold assessment apply in Wales as in England, arrangements for teacher appraisal are devolved to the National Assembly for Wales. The Assembly has introduced a performance management system in Wales for most teachers; it is likely to be extended to cover teachers outside the present arrangements within the next couple of years.
386. The Welsh Assembly Government has emphasised that performance management should provide a clearer procedure for assessing teachers' performance in relation to agreed priorities and objectives, which should help teachers improve their effectiveness; it helps to ensure that training and professional development needs are identified, and steps taken to meet them, on a consistent and regular basis. Relevant information from performance management review statements can be considered in decisions about the promotion, dismissal or discipline or the use of any discretion in relation to pay. But the Welsh Assembly Government emphasises that the performance management system is to help teachers and schools improve, and should not be used as a mechanism to affect teachers' pay one way or the other.

Scotland

387. Annual appraisal was introduced on a voluntary basis in 1998. It is largely confined to identification of continuing professional development needs of the individual teacher, rather than the achievement and evaluation of performance objectives. The Devolved Management of Schools system differs from local management schemes in England and Wales (where schools pay salaries from delegated budgets), in that Scottish provision is based on national salaries determined nationally.

Northern Ireland

388. A non-statutory teacher appraisal scheme, Staff Development and Performance Management (SDPM), is being developed in Northern Ireland. It is based on the English scheme. This provides a 2-year review cycle of structured interviews of teachers by their line managers, about classroom practice, professional issues (including performance), professional development and careers progression. It gives teachers and principals the opportunity to reflect regularly on their work. SDPM

should link to school development planning, to teaching and learning, and to the identification of continuing professional development needs. Boards of Governors of schools are responsible for teacher evaluation. Processes vary between schools: some use the non-statutory Staff Development and Appraisal system (based on a model previously used in England), while others use locally-devised schemes. Threshold payments are made when associated criteria are met.

Disciplinary procedures

389. Ineffective teachers are identified by the school's management, and the school has the duty to provide a structured programme of support, agreed with the teacher. This might include working with a more experienced colleague, in the same or perhaps in another school. Support from the LEA/Regional Council/ELB may be sought through their advisory team. In cases where such programmes of support are judged not to have succeeded, further measures may include a formal inspection of the teacher's work. Responsibility for terminating the contract of an ineffective teacher who has not successfully responded to support lies with the school.
390. The GTC Scotland has responsibility for considering Relevant Misconduct and Conviction of a Relevant Offence in respect of teachers in Scotland. These powers are being extended to Competence and Ill Health. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland the respective GTCs are in the process of assuming responsibility for discipline. The GTC Wales has had such responsibility from June 2001, the GTC England assumed these powers in 2002, and the GTC Northern Ireland started work in 2002, and will assume these responsibilities by 2004.
391. The Councils have, or will have, a legal duty to investigate and hear cases against a registered teacher who is accused of unacceptable professional conduct or serious professional incompetence, and cases where a teacher is convicted of a relevant offence, or has resigned in circumstances where he or she would have been dismissed or considered for dismissal. The disciplinary committee of each Council considers whether cases referred to it constitute serious professional incompetence or unacceptable professional conduct and, if so, whether any action should be taken in relation to that teacher's registration. The Council's disciplinary responsibilities, therefore, relate to a teacher's 'registrability' rather than to a teacher's 'employability'.

Future policy developments

392. A number of policy proposals in England are likely to have a significant impact on the way in which schools appoint and deploy their staff in future. Plans for more specialist schools and other types of school are likely to increase the extent of cross-school collaboration. Advanced Skills Teachers already operate across a number of schools. Greater flexibility in the deployment of teachers and support staff across schools is likely to continue.
393. There are also plans in England for more vocational options for the 14-19 curriculum. Schools will need to consider how they deliver more vocational options to young people and what sort of workforce is best able to do this. This may have the effect of prompting closer working between schools and further education colleges, employers and other providers of vocational training.
394. Also in England there is a growing focus on developing school partnerships that extend beyond the classroom. By 2006 all schools will provide some study support, and a number will also act as 'community hubs' offering a range of other services. These extended roles will place new demands on the management of schools and their workforces.
395. Future decisions about the deployment of teachers in England and Wales will be taken against the background of the National Agreement (see §445-6) and reflect the changes proposed to teachers' contracts and increased scope to deploy support staff as their numbers expand and their roles are developed. Plans to reduce teachers' workloads include readjusting the balance of work between teachers and other staff, guaranteeing teachers non-contact time for planning, preparation and assessment, and reducing the burden of providing cover for absent colleagues. The McCrone reforms (Scottish Executive, 2001) will accentuate the trend already evident towards a shorter working week (§452), in which a much higher proportion of time is spent in teaching, preparation and reporting.

6: RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS

6.1 Identification of the main policy concerns

396. There are various levels of concern about teacher retention in different parts of the United Kingdom. In England there are regional differences, where parts of England (particularly London and the South East, and parts of the East of England) have more acute difficulties in retaining teachers, particularly because of living costs in these regions. Teacher retention in Wales does not present the difficulties seen in England. There have been more widespread concerns across England and Wales about teachers' perceptions of the career structure and about the level of teacher stress (Wilson, 2002). In Northern Ireland there have been far fewer concerns about the retention of teachers. In Scotland retention has not been identified as a specific issue, but there is nevertheless a major restructuring of the profession in hand, with agreements on enhanced pay and conditions, which will have an effect on the retention rate.
397. The numbers of teachers leaving the profession, for reasons other than retirement, is rising (STRB, 2002a, Table 19), and there is widespread concern among many stakeholders that the perceived status of the profession has fallen, and that many teachers claim that they are stressed, over-worked and have a low self-image (NUT, 2001; DfES, 2003a). There are concerns that the demographic structure of the profession is changing because of a combination of recruitment and retention issues: there are too few teachers in their thirties because of teachers leaving early in their career, and this is causing a potential problem for the recruitment of experienced teachers to management posts.
398. This chapter describes:
- i. teachers leaving the profession for reasons other than retirement;
 - ii. retirement policies;
 - iii. teacher absences (including leave of absence, sabbaticals and secondments, and sickness absence);
 - iv. pupil behaviour and safety of teachers;
 - v. policies to retain effective teachers;
 - vi. tackling workload; and
 - vii. future policy developments.

6.2 Data, trends and factors

Teachers leaving the profession for reasons other than retirement

399. Data on the number of teachers who have left the profession is in most cases published at the national level, and is categorised by age, phase and gender, and by region. Exit surveys of leavers are not conducted on a comprehensive or regular basis, although there is an annual survey of head teachers' perceptions of why staff have left (made by the employer's organisation, NEOST: see §406 below). Classifications vary by country: teachers in England who are 'out of service' (that is, who have left a teaching post in a maintained school and are not drawing a teacher's pension) may be teaching in a private school or further or higher education in England, or may be teaching in a maintained school elsewhere in the UK. The data for Scotland, however, indicates teachers who have left maintained schools in Scotland and are teaching outside Scotland (see §410 and Table 6.3 below). It cannot be

assumed that those going out of service are lost to the profession. There is movement in and out of teaching (see §174), with some teachers taking career breaks and then returning to teaching. However, there are ongoing concerns that more teachers leave than return. Thus retention is a major issue.

England

400. Figure 6.1a shows the outflow from teaching in the maintained sector in 2000-01. It shows that teachers in all age groups go ‘out of service’, and that the total number going out of service without accessing their pensions is almost three times the number that retire. Figure 6.1b shows the number of returners (discussed in §201-2), and allows a comparison between numbers leaving and returning in 2000-01. Among part-timers, slightly more left than returned to teaching in the same year (6,600 out of service, 5,300 returners), but among full-time teachers many more left in 2000-01 than returned (19,200 leavers, 7,700 returners). Inevitably these figures apply to different groups: it is not possible to say how many of those going out of service in 2000-01 will return at some point (see Ross, 2002b).

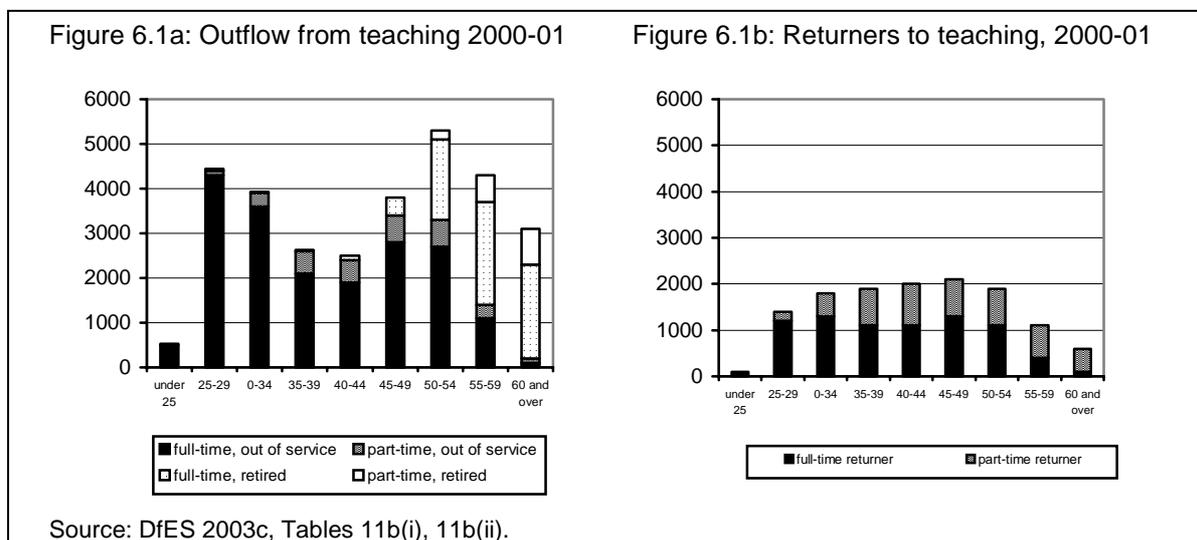


Table 6.1: Percentage of teaching workforce leaving service (other than retirement) in each age group, England 1999-2000, by phase and gender

Age	Nursery and Primary		Secondary	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
<25	-	2.2	5.3	4.7
25-29	6.5	8.6	8.0	8.9
30-34	6.1	9.3	6.7	8.9
35-39	6.7	7.8	5.3	6.0
40-44	5.1	4.0	3.8	3.9
45-49	3.0	3.9	3.0	3.6
50-54	3.8	5.0	3.4	3.8
55-59	6.7	6.7	2.3	4.3
60+	-	9.1	-	-

Source: DfES, (2002m) Table 11b(i) and DfES (2002a) 26

401. Table 6.1 shows the percentages of teachers (full-time, qualified, working in maintained schools) in each age group who were teaching in 1998-9 but were no longer in service in 1999-2000, and not drawing their teaching pension. [This shows, for example, that, of Nursery and Primary teachers, 6.5% of all men aged 25-29, and 8.6% of all women, left the teaching force in 1999-2000.] This shows a higher level of teachers leaving service before the age of 35, and a somewhat higher level of women leaving at these ages. Nursery and primary education are losing teachers at a marginally

higher rate than secondary education. The proportion of teachers aged under 50 who have left the profession has risen from 6.0% in 1994 to 8.0% in 2000 (STRB, 2002a, Table 19: figures for England and Wales). To these figures should be added those teachers who are leaving the profession to draw their pensions early, as shown in Figure 6.1. Significant numbers of teachers are electing to access their teaching pensions in their late 50s; in 2000-01, 69% of retirements were of teachers under 60 years of age. The pattern of wastage (teachers leaving the profession in any year, including both those retiring and those going 'out of service') varies across the country. A rate of 8.9% was reported for full-time teachers in England in 1999-2000, with significant regional variations (Inner London 12.0%, North East England 6.7%) (DfES 2003c, Table 12).

402. There are, then, a considerable number of people who have qualified as teachers but are not currently teaching in the maintained sector. The DfES (2003c) record that in March 2001 there were 290,000 qualified teachers who had worked in the maintained sector but were no longer in service. Of these, almost half last taught in the maintained sector before 1986 (and are probably the least likely to return to teaching), while just over a quarter last taught between 1996 and 2001. In addition there were 83,000 qualified teachers who had never taught in the maintained sector, including almost 20,000 who had qualified in the last five years. There were thus in total over 97,000 teachers who qualified in the last five years and were not recorded as teaching in the maintained sector in England (DfES 2003c, Tables 49a, 49b). (These figures may in each case be exaggerated in that some teachers may be shown as not in service because they have opted out of the Teachers' Scheme - see §359). This group of qualified teachers, sometimes referred to as the 'pool of inactive teachers', has been identified as a potential source of teachers in times of shortage. However, it should be noted that some members of this group are teaching: they may be working in the maintained sector as part-time teachers or through supply agencies; or teaching in independent schools, in further and higher education, or overseas. Others are working in a wide range of jobs in education (for local authorities or a variety of agencies or private companies concerned with education).
403. An annual survey conducted by the employers' organisation (NEOST) samples head teachers' reports of teacher turnover and resignations. This shows a rising level of turnover among full-time teachers. In 2001, 48,000 teachers resigned from their posts, either to move to other teaching posts, or to leave teaching by retiring or going 'out of service'; this represents 13.3% of all teachers, a rise from 8.6% in 1998. Numbers changing teaching jobs have risen sharply, from 10,000 teachers in 1996 to 25,000 in 2001. There was also an increase in numbers moving to teach in independent schools (from 480 in 1996 to 1,210 in 2001). Numbers moving to employment outside education rose from 680 in 1994 to 2,130 in 2001 (NEOST, 2002, p 22, Table 9).
404. There is a range of research evidence that suggests why teachers may decide to leave the profession. Various surveys have shown that a substantial number of younger and mid-career teachers are leaving for other occupations. Hutchings *et al.* (2000) and Smithers and Robinson (2001) both raised particular issues about the wastage rates in the early years of teachers' careers that affect the general age profile of the profession in England, and particularly the maintenance of an adequate cohort of experienced teachers from whom leadership grades can be recruited. Much of their research evidence suggests that teachers are leaving the profession (rather than leaving a post) because of frustrations about their professional autonomy and their ability to be creative in their work (*ibid.*). Although there is a particular concern about the high numbers of teachers leaving relatively early in their career, it should be noted that there is a steady stream of teachers in their 30s, 40s and 50s leaving the profession for alternative employment. Some research suggests that the majority of those who leave the profession do so for occupations that are (at least initially) less well remunerated (McCreith *et al.*, 2001). About half of those leaving the profession to work elsewhere move into education-related posts, and the General Teaching Council for England has suggested that the number of such posts, which often require teaching experience, has increased in recent years.
405. A review undertaken for the Teacher Training Agency in 2000 (Spear *et al.*, 2000) suggested that teachers were attracted to the profession because they enjoyed working with children and good relations with colleagues, and valued the professional autonomy and the intellectual challenge of teaching. Those leaving the profession did so as a result of a high workload, poor pay, and low status

and morale. Primary teachers were less satisfied than their secondary colleagues with their work-life balance, but secondary teachers felt that they had less influence on school policy.

406. A survey of experienced teachers (Wilkins and Head, 2002) identified working with pupils as one of the strongest elements of job satisfaction. Dissatisfaction amongst these teachers included workload, status and remuneration, and also in some cases recent policy changes in education and poor working relationships with managers in schools. The quality of teachers' working lives was surveyed by the National Foundation for Educational Research in 2002: this found that while teachers' job satisfaction was higher than those in other comparable professions, they were dissatisfied with their salaries and with work-related stress. Many teachers wanted greater responsibility and involvement in the control of their work (Sturman, 2002).
407. The DfES has recently commissioned further research to investigate teacher retention. Interim findings from this confirm that about half of those resigning from a school were leaving the maintained sector for reasons other than maternity or normal age retirement. While almost half of those leaving the profession had ten or less years teaching experience, there was a steady rate of leaving the profession after this. Destinations included supply work (primary 23%, secondary 9%), jobs in education that did not involve teaching in schools (primary 12%, secondary 15%), and jobs outside education (primary 13%, secondary 16%). Primary teachers also left to look after their families (11%), and secondary teachers for travel breaks (8%) and other career breaks (8%). The reasons given for leaving were complex: the factors most commonly cited as of great importance are the workload of teachers (primary 44%, secondary 40%) and stress (primary 36%, secondary 30%). Primary teachers also give personal circumstances (36%), government initiatives (31%) and feeling undervalued (25%), while secondary teachers leaving the profession also gave as reasons the attractions of another job (34%) and pupil behaviour (31%) (DfES, 2003a).
408. A survey of teachers by the General Teaching Council for England in late 2002 (GTC England, 2003) suggests that 35% of the 70,000 teachers who responded are likely to leave the profession in the next 5 years. Asked to give the likelihood that they would still be teaching in five years time, 15% of respondents said they would definitely not be teaching and 20% said that they would probably not be teaching then. However, half of these think or know they will retire, which leaves only about 17% who think they might leave for other reasons, although responses to hypothetical questions of this nature may not result in action. Twenty-one per cent said that they definitely *would* choose teaching again as a career and 29% said they probably would; although 21% said they would probably not choose teaching as a career again and 11% said that they would definitely not. Motivating factors included working with children (cited by 48%), the job satisfaction of teaching (32%) and the creativity and stimulation that it brings (25%). However workload was seen as a demotivating factor (cited by 56% of respondents), followed by perceived overload of initiatives (39%) and the perception that teaching has a target driven culture (35%). Teachers felt that they were not well-respected by the public, as shown on Table 6.2. Their views contrast with those identified in surveys of the public, set out in §69-74.

Table 6.2 Teachers' identification of the level of respect given to the teaching profession by various sectors of the population

	a great deal of respect	a fair amount of respect	not very much respect	no respect
The public	1	29	65	4
Government	1	20	60	18
The Media	0	12	65	21
Parents	2	48	47	2
Students/pupils	3	51	42	2
Teachers' employers	8	53	30	4

Source: GTC England, 2003

409. Concern has been expressed by the Equal Opportunities Commission that many women who leave the profession for maternity leave fail to return because of the relative lack of suitable part-time

positions, job-sharing, or of other ‘child-friendly’ employment practices (see §211). Opportunities for two part-time teachers to ‘job-share’ the responsibilities for a single post are beginning to develop, and an agency, Flexecutive has developed a web-based database that allows teachers seeking part-time work in job-shares to meet and make applications for teaching posts that are suitable for this way of working. There is also some evidence to support the Commission for Racial Equality’s concern that teachers from minority ethnic groups are more likely to leave the profession than those from white groups (Ross, 2002a; Rawlinson and Soni, 2002; Townsend, 2002). Both these tendencies make it more difficult to achieve the policy intention to develop a workforce that better reflects the gender and ethnic distribution of the wider population. The Disability Rights Commission is concerned that the perceived stressful nature of teaching discourages disabled teachers from staying in the profession.

Scotland

410. Data has always been collected on a different basis in Scotland. In 1997-8, 3.6% of the teaching force left teaching. Most teachers in Scotland left because of retirement (29% primary, 35% secondary) or for maternity leave (33% primary, 24% secondary) (Table 6.3). Retirements taken early or on grounds of ill-health were more common in secondary schools than in primary schools. The higher percentage of primary teachers leaving due to pregnancy reflects the higher proportion of women working in the sector. A much higher proportion of women teachers leave because of pregnancy than leave in the same age-group in England (compare Table 6.1, p.77).

Table 6.3: Percentage of total teachers leaving the profession in Scotland in each age group, 1996-97

Age	Primary (n=1,035)					Total
	Retirement	Maternity	Domestic	Teaching outwith Scotland	Other/Unknown	
<25	0.0	1.0	1.2	0.7	1.9	5.0
25-29	0.0	13.0	3.8	0.6	2.9	19.8
30-34	0.0	13.7	2.9	0.5	2.4	19.8
35-39	0.3	5.0	2.2	0.7	1.9	10.0
40-44	0.9	0.7	2.4	0.4	2.5	7.0
45-49	2.6	0.0	2.6	0.1	2.2	7.9
50-54	5.5	0.0	1.4	0.1	1.7	8.9
55+	19.8	0.0	0.7	0.2	1.5	21.7
Total	29.1	33.4	17.2	3.3	17.0	100.0

Age	Secondary (n=859)					Total
	Retirement	Maternity	Domestic	Teaching outwith Scotland	Other/Unknown	
<25	0.0	0.5	1.5	0.3	1.3	4.0
25-29	0.0	5.6	3.0	1.0	2.9	12.9
30-34	0.3	10.2	2.5	0.1	2.9	15.8
35-39	0.0	6.6	1.6	1.2	2.9	11.9
40-44	1.4	1.2	2.2	0.7	4.3	9.9
45-49	4.5	0.0	2.2	0.2	4.7	11.9
50-54	9.0	0.0	1.2	0.1	2.5	12.9
55+	19.4	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.9	20.6
Total	34.6	24.1	14.8	3.6	22.4	100.0

Source: Scottish Executive (2000b), *Teachers in Scotland: September 1988*, Table 22 (recalculated)

Wales

411. The wastage rate in Wales for 1997-98 was 9.8%. This is the highest rate reported since this statistical run began in 1991-92 although the rate has risen and fallen over these years (8.9% in 1994-95, 7.3% in 1995-96, 7.5% in 1996-7). (National Assembly for Wales, 2001b, Table 6.10).

Northern Ireland

412. Teacher retention is not seen as a pressing problem in Northern Ireland. However, a survey in 2001 showed that 43.3% of teachers had considered leaving the teaching profession for alternative employment (communication from DE Northern Ireland). Some 46.5% expect to leave teaching within the next five years, and about 23% of these anticipate retiring in this period. Detailed analysis by age and gender is not obtainable, but slightly more teachers leave schools in the Catholic maintained sector than in the controlled sector, and at secondary level more teachers leave non-selective schools than leave the grammar schools, where the numbers leaving are very low.

Retirement policies

413. Teachers across all four countries may normally access their pensions at the age of 60, but may work and contribute to their pensions up to the age of 70. Teachers may retire for reasons of ill-health at any age, provided that the national authorities agree that the teacher is unlikely to be able to work as a teacher before reaching the age of 60. Teachers aged between 55 and 60 can apply to retire with an actuarially reduced pension. Early retirement after 50 is permitted when a teacher is made redundant or discharged in the cause of efficiency and their employer is prepared to meet the additional costs of the early retirement. This latter provision was changed in 1997 from a more generous scheme because of the cost of many teachers electing to retire in their 50s: the change resulted in a surge of teachers retiring before the new provisions came into effect. In England and Wales between 1989 and 1996 premature retirements were running at between 6,500 and 8,000 per year: the change of regulations precipitated rates of 10,000 and 11,500 in 1996/7 and 1997/8. The premature retirement has now stabilised at about 2,500-3,000 per year.
414. In England there were 9,680 retirements in 2000-01, of which 2,610 were for reasons of ill-health, 3,190 were premature retirements (i.e. by teachers aged 50-59), and 3,880 were age retirements (at or after 60). There were some 1,080 premature retirements between 50 and 54, and 2,130 early retirements at 55 or older (550 of which were to actuarially reduced pensions). Ninety-six per cent of all age retirements took place between the ages of 60 and 64. Retirements from ill-health occurred at all ages, though 46% of them occurred in the 50-54 age range, 25% in the 55-59 age range, and 21% in the 45-49 age range (DfES, 2002m).
415. In Wales, there were 410 retirements in 2000-01, of which 210 were for reasons of ill-health and 200 age retirements (at or after 60). Due to changes in the Teachers' Scheme, for 2000-01, premature retirements are now counted as leaving full-time service. In the last year they were recorded separately (1999-2000), there were 550 retirements, of which 200 were for reasons of ill-health, 150 were premature retirements (i.e. 50-59), and 190 age retirements. Retirement ages of teachers in Scotland and Northern Ireland are not accessible.

Teacher absences

Leave of absence, sabbaticals and secondments

416. Career development through sabbatical leave and secondments for career enhancement may play a role in teacher retention. Paid leave has been available for many years for study purposes and for professional development, although the amount available had varied by LEA and had been, until recently, in decline. Unpaid leave for study purposes – from a few days up to a year – has been possible by individual agreement with school governors or head teachers.
417. In England, the Government's Green Paper *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* (DfEE, 1998a) indicated that a review of teachers' opportunities to take sabbatical leave was to be undertaken: this was followed by a consultative document *Professional Development – Support for Teaching and Learning* (DfEE, 2000b). The General Teaching Council for England proposed sabbatical leave of a few weeks to a term to spend time in industry, universities or other schools (BBC, 31 May 2000). The School Teachers' Review Body (Tenth Report, 2001) proposed schemes for sabbatical leave be explored.

418. A three-year experimental scheme was introduced by the DfES in England with effect from September 2001. This allowed sabbaticals of up to six weeks (which may be taken flexibly) to teachers with five or more years' service in schools that have 50% or more pupils eligible for free school meals (the standard proxy to identify areas of social deprivation and need). There is sufficient funding to allow one sabbatical to each qualifying school in the three-year period, at a rate of £6000 per school. The criteria have recently been relaxed to include schools with over 35% of pupils eligible for free school meals.
419. In Wales, the GTC is piloting a sabbatical scheme on behalf of the Welsh Assembly. This is open to all teachers who have taught (either full- or part-time) for ten continuous years in a maintained school, or for seven years in a school in a 'Community First' area. Funding and length of sabbatical (up to half a term) is as in England.
420. In Scotland, the McCrone Report *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century* recommended that all teachers be eligible for one term's sabbatical for each ten years of service (Scottish Executive 2000a, para. 3.19). The Scottish Executive referred this recommendation to the Scottish Negotiating Committee for Teachers, who have established a sub-committee to explore it (Scottish Executive, 2001).
421. In Northern Ireland, sabbaticals have not been considered. Boards of Governors have in the past agreed unpaid leave and study breaks with teachers in their schools on an individual basis; however, the Department of Education report that there is anecdotal evidence that the Boards of Governors are increasingly reluctant to release teachers (and particularly those who are experienced and skilled) on such secondments.
422. The experimental sabbatical scheme in England has been referred to above, and the Professional Bursaries scheme may be used to allow teachers in their fourth and fifth year to take short secondments in other schools or in industry. Teacher Placements in industry and commerce were fairly common in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The Confederation of British Industry report that in 1996 about 10% of teachers were taking placements in industry, of an average length of 5 days, this has now declined to some 6% of teachers, taking average secondments of just 3 days. A National Foundation for Educational Research review of the literature on such placements concluded that they are most successful when they are seen as part of the teachers' continuing professional development, and can result in increased confidence, motivation and self-esteem, and a development of management and leadership skills, and in some cases increased technical knowledge. Pupils benefit through improved teaching and accurate careers information (Ireland *et al.*, 2002)

Sickness absence

423. A study for the DfES (Bowers and McIver, 2000) found that teachers in maintained schools lose less time from work through illness than comparable social service staff: teachers' sickness absence rates are 15% lower than other local government non-manual staff. Teachers lose 27% less time than the average UK employee through sickness. There are concerns that the level is increasing. It appears that, since teacher sickness rates are high in areas where there are signs of teacher shortage (see §426 below), they may provide an additional indicator in the discussion of teacher retention.
424. Statistics on teacher absences for sickness are only available for England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and only from 1999-2000. The data for England are differentiated by LEA and Region, and by whether the teacher is full-time or part-time, and relate to calendar years. A specific report on *Teacher Sickness Absence in 2001 (Provisional)* has been prepared by the DfES (2002j), but this aggregates full- and part-time teachers. It suggests that 56% of all teachers took sickness absence in 2001 (54% in 1999, 55% in 2000), but the other national data (DfES, 2002m, Table 41) suggest that 65% of full-time teachers were absent for sickness in 2000. Goss (2001) estimates the cost of teacher absences through sickness as £368.6 million per year, though there are inconsistencies in how data is collected on illness-related absences.
425. The combined full- and part-time teacher statistics give the average number of days sickness in 2001 as six days per employed teacher (up from 5 days in 2000), or ten days per teacher who had any

sickness absence. Full-time teachers are more likely to take sickness leave than part-time teachers. In 2001, 37% of all days absence were taken as absences of five working days or less, 18% as absences of between six and 20 working days, and 45% were absences of more than 20 working days.

426. The regional statistics show some regional and LEA variations in sickness rates for full-time teachers. In some inner city LEAs, over 90% of the full time teaching workforce have taken sickness absence in 2000, though in some neighbouring LEAs the rate was as low as 70%. London has the highest proportion of teachers taking sick leave (76%), and the two regions in the north of England the lowest (60%). However, these overall figures of teachers taking sick leave in the year conceal the different lengths of sick leave taken. Calculating the percentage of total teaching days lost per year, one London LEA (with 90% of the staff reporting sick in 2000) lost 4.76% of its teacher time through sickness, but 4.25% was through medium and short-term sickness of less than 20 working days, and only 0.52% through long-term sickness. By contrast, another London LEA, with a comparable proportion of teachers reporting sick, lost 2.85% of its teacher time, but only 1.63% was lost through medium and short term sickness, and 1.22% through long-term sickness. It may be that in areas seen as particularly stressful there is a higher proportion of short-term sickness, and possibly less long-term sickness (DfES, 2002j).
427. In Wales, 63% of all teachers took sick leave in 2001 (compared with 56% in 1999 and 60% in 2000). Two-thirds of sickness absences taken by full-time teachers in 2001 were for more than 5 days. The average absence per full-time teacher taking sick leave in 2001 was 12 days, a slight fall from the previous year (13 days) (National Assembly for Wales, 2002b, table 6).
428. In Northern Ireland the Department of Education reports increasing concerns about levels of sickness absence: it is suggested that the increase in the nature and pace of change have resulted in higher levels of absence. In a Teachers' Health and Well-Being Survey conducted by the Department (DE Northern Ireland, 2001a), it was found that 7 working days per teacher were lost in the year to June 2001 (compared to a reported average of 8.4 days for the public and private sectors in the Province). Most teachers reported that they would come to school even if they were sick, because they were concerned that their absence would place a burden on their colleagues. The most common reported medical causes for sickness absence were back complaints (36%), laryngitis/throat complaints (30%), anxiety (26%), migraine (23%), hay fever (16%), bowel disorder (15%) and depression (15%). A Managing Attendance policy was initiated in 1999, but has been unevenly adopted and with little impact on teachers' sickness absence.
429. The reasons for sickness absence in England appear to be rather different, as reported in a study by Bowers and McIver (2000) which asked teachers to rate the 'importance' of specific medical conditions as causes for their sickness absence, on a scale of 0 to 3 (least to most). Colds, 'flu and respiratory complaints were rated at 2.72, stomach complaints at 1.13, headaches and migraine at 0.45, stress and depression at 0.41, and back problems at 0.23 (all others less than 0.1).

Pupil behaviour and safety of teachers

430. Concerns about pupil behaviour and teachers' safety have also, though to a lesser extent, emerged as a factor in teacher retention. Surveys of teachers' dissatisfaction with working conditions repeatedly show concerns over personal safety and pupil behaviour to be a significant issue, though not the most important issue (Smithers and Robinson, 2000; Hutchings *et al.*, 2000; DE Northern Ireland, 2001a).
431. In England, around 1,100 Learning Support Units have been established to tackle indiscipline and disruption in schools. LSUs are school-based centres for pupils who are already disaffected or at risk of exclusion. They provide separate short-term teaching and support programmes tailored to the needs of such pupils. The aim is to keep them in school and working while their problems are addressed, helping to re-integrate them into mainstream classes as quickly as possible. Evaluation shows that these Units lead to fewer cases in which exclusion becomes necessary.
432. There are 375 Pupil Referral Units in England, legally a type of school with the main objective to provide temporary education for pupils who cannot attend a mainstream school. Almost 50% of excluded pupils receive education there but they can also make provision for pupils with poor

attendance or behavioural problems, or those at risk of exclusion. Ofsted (2002b) report that they are successful in improving pupils' behaviour, attendance and attitudes to learning.

433. Behaviour Improvement Projects are linked to the national strategy to tackle street crime, and among other things, fund full-time education for excluded pupils. This package also supports the long-term strategy on behaviour improvement. Funding is targeted initially to certain LEAs within the ten police force areas that together account for over 80% of street crime.
434. The Welsh Assembly also has concerns about pupil behaviour and disaffection. It is funding a pilot training course in management behaviour to equip teachers with the skills to avoid disruptive behaviour.

Policies to retain effective teachers

435. Two major policies are being developed to help retain effective teachers. The first of these is a restructuring of career progression, linking the identification of effective professional practice to a remuneration scale that recognises the value and contribution of the profession. This was described in the previous chapter (§338-365). The second is the restructuring of teachers' work (discussed below), allowing them to concentrate on the professional aspects of teaching, and enhancing the school workforce with a wide range of support staff, who will relieve teachers of routine administrative tasks and take on roles of assisting the teacher in the classroom. All four countries share these policies, to a greater or lesser extent. Wales tends to adopt the same policies as England, as explained earlier, because of its proximity, and fears that teachers may be attracted across the border into England.
436. Other policies that have been described in previous sections in relation to the recruitment and development of teachers are also intended to address teacher retention. These include initiatives in continuing professional development, and particularly those relating to professional development in the early years of teaching (§268-282); and the development of behaviour support (§430-434).
437. In England the GTC have observed that virtually all policies that affect teachers should be seen as addressing the question of teacher retention (GTC England, 2000a). They have established a Teacher Retention Forum to bring together stakeholders at a variety of levels to identify ways to address this issue. The Teacher Training Agency has also established a Teacher Retention Group, which is collecting examples of good practice at school level, with a view to publishing and disseminating these. The National Union of Teachers has identified various consequences arising from the lack of teachers and the difficulties of retention (Galton and MacBeath, 2002). These include head teachers spending more time on seeking to recruit and retain staff, and teaching staff under stress from the additional workload caused by understaffing.

Tackling workload

England and Wales

438. Considerable concern has been expressed in recent years by the various teacher associations about teachers' workloads (Galton and MacBeath, 2002; Wilson, 2002). These concerns are shared by many stakeholders including the Equal Opportunities Commission and the Disability Rights Commission, and by the governments.
439. Given these concerns, the government, employers and unions commissioned PricewaterhouseCoopers to analyse teachers' workload in England and Wales. Their final report in 2002 recommended a programme to eliminate excessive workload and promote the most effective use of all resources in schools. An analysis of teachers' working hours was based on information from the Office of Manpower Economics Teachers' Workloads Diary Survey, 2000, augmented with further data on hours worked in holidays and compared the total annual hours worked by teachers. The report highlighted the following points:
 - Teachers in term time work more intensive weeks (52 hours) than comparable managers and

professionals¹, but at a similar level on a yearly basis ;

- Many teachers perceive a lack of control and ownership over their work, feel isolated and undertake tasks which they believe unnecessary to support learning;
- Teachers feel the pace and manner in which initiatives are introduced is not conducive to high standards, and they are insufficiently supported and do not receive the professional regard they merit;
- Rising expectations, deteriorating pupil behaviour and poor parental support add to teacher pressures;
- Teachers feel head teachers do not always recognise the need to assist staff to manage their workload;
- Head teachers' own workloads are 300 to 400 hours a year higher than those of teachers.

440. Of the 52 hours teachers work a week, some 18.25 hours are direct classroom teaching, and a further 18 hours are preparation, planning and assessment. This is broadly the same for primary and secondary teachers. Some 7 to 8 hours are given to administrative tasks each week. The remaining time is given to other non-teaching contact time with pupils and to general management.

441. The report recommended the provision of more support staff to assist teachers and heads with their workload; changes in the ways heads manage their schools and teachers go about their job; enhanced use of ICT; and that government prioritise initiatives, using an 'Implementation Review Unit' to track the effects of cumulative change and alert the Schools Workforce Unit in the DfES to any risks of overload. They also suggested teachers' contracts include 'guaranteed timetabled non-contact time', which would allow them more time for planning and preparation; reduce overall hours worked; and reduce stress.

442. The Secretary of State also asked the School Teachers' Review Body (which reports on England and Wales) to consider issues of teacher workload. Their conclusions (STRB, 2002b) were that:

'further improvement in standards demands urgent action to rectify a worsening situation on workload. Teacher shortages hinder and put at risk changes designed to shape the profession for the future; and workload, from the background evidence presented to us, appears to be the greatest problem in retaining teachers. ... alongside measures needed to manage government initiatives and to change the culture of schools, two essential elements for achieving change are extra resources (including funding for additional teaching and support staff) and changes to the contractual framework.'

443. A Working Party, including the teacher unions and key partner organisations, was set up to consider how to take this forward. Initial action included offering advice on a number of tasks that could be undertaken by support staff, rather than by teachers. Thirty-two schools are participating in a School Workforce Pathfinder Project to explore new ways of using resources to minimise teacher workload and raise standards. The government has also been promoting the use of bursars in schools to take on administrative and managerial tasks; the National College for School Leadership is providing training for bursars in small and medium sized schools. An additional 28,000 support staff have been recruited to date.

444. *Time for Standards: Reforming the School Workforce* was published in October 2002 (DfES, 2002b); this set out proposals including consultation on the roles of support staff in England. It proposed that excessive hours should begin to be reduced from 52 hours a week to 48 hours by 2004, and to 45 hours a week by 2006; and it is hoped that a new work-life balance clause can be added to teachers' contracts. By 2004 it is planned to further limit the extent to which teachers can be asked to cover for absent colleagues. By 2005 it is intended to guarantee time available for planning, preparation and assessment as at least 127 hours (10% of contracted hours) in each year.

445. This was followed, in January 2003, by the signing of a National Agreement which promised joint action to raise standards and tackle workload (*Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: a National Agreement*, DfES 2003b) between the Department for Education and Skills (England) and the Welsh

¹ It should be noted that in England the working week for 'comparable managers and professionals' is 45 hours.

Assembly, the National Employers' Association (NEOST) and all except one of the teacher associations, as well as unions representing non-teaching staff in schools (DfES, 2003b). The agreement includes a seven point plan for creating time for teachers and head teachers and thereby raising standards as follows:

- progressive reductions in teachers' hours over 2003-6;
- changing teachers' contracts to ensure that all teachers, including head teachers:
 - do not routinely undertake administrative or clerical tasks;
 - have a reasonable work/life balance;
 - have a reduced burden for providing cover for absent colleagues;
 - have guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time within the school day to support their teaching, individually and collaboratively;
 - have a reasonable allocation of time in support of their leadership and management responsibilities;
- a concerted attack on unnecessary paperwork and bureaucratic processes, including in England the establishment of an Implementation Review Unit with powers to challenge such practices;
- the reform of support staff roles to help teachers and support pupils, including personal administrative assistants for teachers, cover supervisors and higher level teaching assistants;
- the recruitment of new managers, including business and personnel managers, and others with experience from outside education with the expertise to contribute effectively to school leadership teams;
- additional resources and national 'change management' programmes to help school leaders to achieve in their schools the necessary reforms of the teaching profession and restructuring of the school workforce;
- monitoring the progress of the agreement.

446. The contractual changes set up in the agreement will not be delivered unless schools deploy more support staff in extended roles. Additional resources are being provided. It has been estimated that these funds will enable schools to employ an additional 10,000 teachers and an additional 50,000 support staff by January 2005. Bursars, administrative, technical and classroom support staff will have expanded roles, choices and career opportunities. The National Joint Council for Local Government Services' Working Party on school support staff will develop a national framework for the employment of support staff in schools.

447. The proposals for changes to the teachers' contract also apply to teachers in Wales. In support of contractual changes in Wales the National Assembly is investing £21 million in additional administrative support in schools (£3m in 2003-04 rising to £15m in 2005-06). A 'change management' project is being piloted in 2003-04 to help schools review work organisation to make more efficient use of teachers' time: if successful, it will be extended to all schools. Consideration is also being given to developing a greater role for classroom support staff in Wales, and how best to build on the work of the Assembly's Bureaucratic Burdens Advisory Group (National Assembly for Wales, 2002a).

448. It is planned that higher level teaching assistants will cover classes for short-term absences, and should have the skills to ensure that pupils can progress with their learning, based on their knowledge of the learning outcomes planned by the classroom/subject teacher. Qualified teachers should continue to make the leading contribution to teaching and learning, reflecting their training and expertise. The agreement stresses that teachers and high level teaching assistants are not interchangeable and that this will be reflected in new regulations introduced under the Education Act 2002. Although higher level teaching assistants will be working with whole classes for some of the time, they should not be a substitute for when pupils need a qualified teacher.

449. A professional standards framework and training for higher level teaching assistants is to be developed by the Teacher Training Agency. Pay and career structures will be developed to reflect the roles and responsibilities of support staff, including the option for higher level teaching assistants to go on and train to become qualified teachers.

450. As well as higher level teaching assistants, there will be a role of cover supervisor, and additional school support staff will be recruited to act as ‘personal assistants’ to teachers. They will provide administrative support to subject and year group areas, where they can provide direct, targeted support for individual teachers. They will develop expertise relevant to the teachers they support. Additional technical support staff will be recruited, including in ICT (information and communications technology).
451. As indicated above, one teacher association, the National Union of Teachers, which is one of the largest of the associations, has declined to accept the agreement. They argue that the development of higher level teaching assistants will undermine the role, status and professional authority of teachers, and a survey of their members showed that two-thirds reject the idea of a teaching assistant taking a class without a teacher present (Neill, 2002).

Scotland

452. In Scotland, a census of how teachers spent their time was conducted in 1998. Primary teachers spent 81% of their time teaching pupils, and secondary teachers 69% of their time teaching. In both sectors, head teachers and more senior staff spent relatively less time in teaching than did unpromoted staff. As a result of the McCrone reforms (§44), teachers in Scotland now have a contract that limits their total working week to 35 hours, and an agreement to a phased reduction in their teaching contact time to 22.5 hours a week by 2006.

Northern Ireland

453. In Northern Ireland the *Health and Well-Being Survey* (DE Northern Ireland, 2001a) identified that over half the teaching force found their work very or extremely stressful. Stressful factors particularly identified were excessive workload (74%), administration and paperwork (73%), lack of preparation time (63%), demands on after-school time (57%), curriculum change (51%) and inspections (50%). The Department has established a working group to reduce bureaucratic burdens.

6.3 Future policy developments

454. Many of the initiatives undertaken in the past few years have been indicated in the preceding paragraphs, particularly:
- for England (and for some aspects in Wales), those introduced in the three government papers: *Teachers: Meeting the Challenge of Change* (1998), *Investment for Reform* (2002) and *Time for Standards: Reforming the School Workforce* (2002), *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: A National Agreement* (2003);
 - for Scotland, those set out in *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century: Agreement reached following Recommendations made in the McCrone Report* (2001) and the earlier report from the McCrone Committee (2000);
 - for Wales, those set out in *The Learning Country: A Paving Document* (2001); and
 - for Northern Ireland, those resulting from the work of the NITEC and the current inquiry into teachers’ pay and conditions of service.
455. Issues of pay have been addressed through considerable restructuring of the pay scales, in a way that will particularly advantage competent teachers who are in the early stages of their professional career. In England and Wales the threshold assessment scheme does appear to allow most teachers to access the upper pay scale within six years of starting to teach, and the creation in Scotland of the Chartered Teachers Scheme will have a broadly similar effect. However, these measures do not particularly address regional issues of retention.
456. Other retention issues have been addressed through measures to reduce teachers’ workload, particularly in two respects:
- more support staff are being recruited to take on certain non-teaching administrative work, and this is expected to lead to a reduction in working hours, and for teachers to focus more on their professional role;

- initiatives in education designed to enhance quality and improve school performance, while not being in any way slowed or given less importance, are to be monitored in particular respect to their impact on teacher workload.

457. Teachers' career progression and continuing professional development programmes are now more closely linked. It is expected that this will lead to a greater consciousness of professional status and career, and thus enhance retention.

458. In England and Wales, the main future focus will be on the implementation of the National Agreement. The timetable is challenging.

Phase One - 2003

- Promote reductions in excessive hours
- Establishment monitoring group
- Establish new Implementation Review Unit
- Routine delegation of 24 non-teaching tasks
- Introduce new work/life balance clauses
- Introduce leadership and management time
- Undertake review of school closure days

Phase Two - 2004

- Introduce new limits on covering for absent teachers

Phase Three - 2005

- Introduce guaranteed professional time for planning, preparation and assessment
- Introduce dedicated headship time
- Introduce new invigilation arrangements

While the overall aim is clear, the process of workforce reform may be taken forward in different ways as schools find themselves starting from different points and in different contexts. An evaluation of the 32 workforce remodelling pathfinder schools will be published later in 2003 that should identify best practice in different circumstances. Some details, particularly concerning the roles and training of support staff, are still being developed. A Workforce Agreement Monitoring Group, including all the signatories to the agreement, has been established to monitor progress. Research is planned to examine the impact of support staff, and ongoing surveys will monitor teachers' working hours. For schools the agreement is both an opportunity and a challenge, to use both new funding and their existing resources to achieve the best outcomes for pupils.

459. There are, then a wide range of policies in place across the UK to address concerns about attracting, developing and retaining high quality teachers. However, there are some issues of teacher retention that may prove more intractable. The age structure of the profession, with a predominantly ageing workforce, is difficult to solve, because there is what amounts to a 'missing generation' of teachers in their thirties and early forties who will not be recruited. Retention of those who are in this cohort will be important, because they should form the principal pool from which future professional leadership and management would be drawn. This problem appears to be even more acute in Scotland than it is in England. The gender imbalances in the profession have been described, together with the strategies in place to address them. However, the high proportion of men in the older age groups suggests that women will form the majority of the workforce in the future. Retention of male teachers is thus particularly significant. It is also important to make teaching an attractive long-term career, with equal opportunities for promotion, for those from minority ethnic groups.

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1973	Employment Agencies Act
1986	Education and Libraries (Northern Ireland) Order
1987	Teachers (Terms and Conditions of Employment) Regulations (Northern Ireland)
1988	Education Reform Act
1989	Education Reform (Northern Ireland) Order
1991	School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Act
1994	Education Act
1996	Schools Inspections Act
1996	Education Act
1996	Education (Northern Ireland) Order
1998	Schools Standards and Framework Act
1999	Immigration and Asylum Act
1999	Protection of Children Act
2000	Standards in Scotland's Schools, etc. Act
2002	Education Act

Web addresses for some organisations referred to in this report

DfES	www.dfes.gov.uk
Department of Education Northern Ireland	www.deni.gov.uk
Scottish Executive Education Department	www.scotland.gov.uk/who/dept_education.asp
Department of Education and Training Wales	www.learningwales.gov.uk
Estyn (inspectorate in Wales)	www.estyn.gov.uk
GTC England	www.gtce.org.uk
GTC Scotland	www.gtcs.org.uk
GTC Wales	www.gtcw.org.uk
National College for School Leadership	www.ncsl.org.uk
NFER (National Foundation for Educational Research)	www.nfer.ac.uk/
Ofsted (inspectorate in England)	www.ofsted.gov.uk
Qualifications and Curriculum Authority	www.qca.org.uk
STRB reports	www.ome.uk.com
Teacher Training Agency	www.canteach.gov.uk and www.tta.gov.uk
Statistics : England	www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics
Statistics: Northern Ireland	http://www.deni.gov.uk/facts_figures/index.htm
Statistics: Scotland (school census)	http://www.scotland.gov.uk/news/2000/11/se2809.asp
Statistics: Wales	www.wales.gov.uk/keypubstatisticsforwales/index.htm

ABBREVIATIONS and GLOSSARY

★ teacher unions and associations

Abbreviation	Title	Territorial jurisdiction				Equivalent in other parts of UK			
		<i>E</i>	<i>W</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>NI</i>	<i>E</i>	<i>W</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>NI</i>
ACCAC	Awdurdod Cymwysterau Cwricwlwm ac Asesu Cymru (Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales)		✓			QCA		LTS	CCEA
AHS	★ Association of Headteachers in Scotland			✓		NAHT	NAHT		NAHT
A level	Advanced Level General Certificate of Education (taken in individual subjects at age c 18)	✓	✓		✓			Highers	
AST	Advanced Skills Teacher	✓	✓						
ATL	★ Association of Teachers and Lecturers	✓	✓	✓					
CASS	Curriculum, Advisory and Support Service				✓				
CBI	Confederation for British Industry	✓	✓	✓					
CCEA	Council for Curriculum, Examination and Assessment				✓	QCA	ACCAC	LTS	
CEO	Chief Education Officer	✓	✓	✓	✓				
CEP	Career Entry Profile	✓	✓		✓				
CES	Catholic Education Service	✓	✓						
CoSLA	Convention of Scottish Local Authorities			✓		NEOST	NEOST		TNC
CPD	Continuing Professional Development	✓	✓	✓	✓				
CRB	Criminal Records Bureau	✓	✓					SCRO	
CRE	Commission for Racial Equality	✓	✓	✓					ECNI
DE	Department of Education Northern Ireland				✓	DfES	DET	SEED	

Abbreviation	Title	Territorial jurisdiction				Equivalent in other parts of UK						
		E	W	S	NI	E	W	S	NI			
DET	Department of Education and Training		✓						DfES		SEED	DE
(DfEE)	Department for Education and Employment (name of DfES prior to June 2001)	✓										
DfES	Department for Education and Skills	✓					DET	[SE]ED				DE
DMS	Devolved Management of Schools			✓		LMS	LMS					LMS
DRC	Disability Rights Commission	✓	✓	✓								ECNI
EAZ	Education Action Zone	✓										
ECNI	Equality Commission for Northern Ireland				✓	CRE	CRE	CRE				
EiC	Excellence in Cities	✓										
EIS	★ Educational Institute for Scotland			✓								
ETI	Education and Training Inspectorate				✓	Ofsted	Estyn	HMIE				
ELB	Education and Library Board				✓	LEA	LEA	SLA				
ELWa	Education and Learning Wales							LTS				
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission	✓	✓	✓								ECNI
Estyn	Her Majesty's Inspectorate for Education and Training in Wales		✓			HMI		HMIE				ETI
FTE	Full-time equivalent (when aggregating full- and part-time staff, pupils, etc.)											
GB	Great Britain	✓	✓	✓								
GCSE	General Certificate of Education (taken in individual subjects at age c 16)	✓	✓		✓							
(GM)	Grant Maintained School (superseded in 1998)	✓										
GTC(E)	General Teaching Council for England	✓					GTCW	GTCS				GTCNI
GTC(NI)	General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland				✓	GTCE	GTCW	GTCS				
GTC(W)	General Teaching Council for Wales		✓			GTCE		GTCS				GTCNI
GTC(S)	General Teaching Council Scotland			✓		GTCE	GTCW					GTCNI

Abbreviation	Title	Territorial jurisdiction				Equivalent in other parts of UK			
		E	W	S	NI	E	W	S	NI
GTP	Graduate Teacher Programme	✓	✓						
HAS	★ Head Teachers' Association of Scotland			✓		SHA	SHA		SHA(NI)
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England	✓					HEFCW (ELWa)	SHEFC	DE
HMC	★ Headmasters and Headmistresses Conference	✓	✓	✓	✓				
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Schools	✓					Estyn	HMIE	ETI
HMIE	Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education			✓		HMI	Estyn		ETI
ICT	Information and Communications Technology								
INTO	★ Irish National Teachers' Organisation				✓				
LEA	Local Education Authority	✓	✓					SLA	ELB
LTS	Learning and Teaching Scotland			✓		QCA	ACCAC		CCEA
LMS	Local Management of Schools	✓	✓		✓			DMS	
NAHT	★ National Association of Head Teachers	✓	✓		✓			AHS	
NAS/UWT	★ National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers	✓	✓	✓	✓				
NEOST	National Employers Organisation for School Teachers	✓	✓					CoSLA	TNC
NITEC	Northern Ireland Teacher Education Council				✓				
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship	✓	✓					SQH	PQH(NI)
NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher	✓	✓		✓				
NUT	★ National Union of Teachers	✓	✓						
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification	✓	✓						
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education	✓					Estyn	HMIS	ETI
PAT	★ Professional Association of Teachers	✓	✓	✓	✓				
PFI	Private Finance Initiative	✓	✓						
PPP	Public-Private Partnership	✓	✓						
PQH(NI)	Professional Qualification for Headship (Northern Ireland)					NPQH	NPQH		PGH(NI)

Abbreviation	Title	Territorial jurisdiction				Equivalent in other parts of UK			
		E	W	S	NI	E	W	S	NI
PRU	Pupil Referral Unit								
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority	✓					ACCAC	LTS	CCEA
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status	✓	✓		✓		TQ		
RTU(NI)	Regional Training Unit (N I)				✓				
RTP	Registered Teacher Programme	✓	✓						
SCITT	Schools-Centred Initial Teacher Training	✓							
SCOTCAT	Scottish Credit Accumulation and Transfer			✓					
SCRO	Scottish Criminal Records Office			✓		CRB	CRB		
SDPM	Staff Development, Performance and Management	✓							
SEED	Scottish Executive Education Department			✓		DfES	DET		DE
SHA	★ Secondary Heads Association	✓	✓					HAS	SHA(NI)
SHA(NI)	★ Secondary Heads Association (Northern Ireland)					SHA	SHA	HAS	
SHEFC	Scottish Higher Education Funding Council			✓		HEFCE	ELWa		DE
SIPS	Social Inclusion Pupil Support	✓	✓						
SLA	Scottish Local Authority			✓		LEA	LEA		ELB
SNCT	Scottish Negotiating Committee for Teachers			✓		(STRB)	(STRB)		
SSTA	★ Scottish Secondary Teachers' Association			✓					
STRB	School Teachers' Review Board	✓	✓					SNCT	
SQH	Scottish Qualification for Headship					NPQH	NPQH		PQH(NI)
TNC	Teachers' Negotiating Committee				✓	NEOST	NEOST	CoSLA	
TTA	Teacher Training Agency	✓	✓					(SEED)	(DE)
TQ	Teaching Qualification			✓		QTS	QTS		QTS
UCAC	★ Undeb Cenedlaethol Athrawon Cymru (Welsh Teachers' Union)		✓						
UCET	Universities Council for the Education of Teachers	✓	✓	✓	✓				
UTA	★ Ulster Teachers' Association				✓				
UK	United Kingdom	✓	✓	✓	✓				

APPENDIX 1: STAKEHOLDER CONTRIBUTORS

A wide range of stakeholders were invited to contribute to the report. The following chose to do so:

Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL)
Commission for Racial Equality (CRE)
Confederation of British Industry (CBI)
Confederation of Education Service Managers (ConfEd)
Disability Rights Commission (DRC)
Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC)
General Teaching Council England (GTC England)
General Teaching Council Wales (GTC Wales)
Independent Schools Council (ISCis)
National Association of Schoolmasters and Women Teachers (NASUWT)
National Union of Teachers (NUT)
Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted)
Professional Association of Teachers (PAT)
Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA)
Teacher Training Agency (TTA)
Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET)

APPENDIX 2: CURRENT GOVERNMENT-SPONSORED RESEARCH PROJECTS

DfES School Workforce Unit: Research Projects

Impact of Pupil / Adult Ratios on Educational Progress over KS2

Phase one of the project has assessed the impact of class size and pupil adult ratios on educational progress at KS1. Phase 2 of the study is tracking pupils over KS2 and will focus on the impact of pupil adult ratios on pupil outcomes.

ULIE: Peter Blatchford, Paul Bassett and Clare Martin.

Phase 1 report published in May. Work ongoing on KS2.

Longitudinal study of factors contributing to variation in teacher effectiveness (VITAE)

This project is investigating variations over time in teacher effectiveness - between different teachers and for particular teachers - and will identify the factors that contribute to variations.

University of Nottingham: Chris Day and ULIE: Gordon Stobart and Pam Sammons

Started September 2001. 4-year project.

Teachers perceptions of Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

This study investigated teachers' attitudes, perceptions and experiences of CPD.

MMU: Dave Hustler and EDS: John Howson.

To be published early 2003.

Teachers' career patterns: The impact of Gender, Age, Ethnicity and Disability

This study will map the career patterns of teachers and identify those factors –institutional and individual – that act as drivers and barriers to progression.

SCRE: Janet Powney, and Middlesex University: Heidi Mirza.

To be published early 2003.

Factors Affecting Teachers' Decisions to leave the profession

This study is collecting information to establish teachers' reasons for leaving, their destinations, their prospects for returning to teaching, and what could be done to keep them in the profession.

CEER, University of Liverpool: Professor Alan Smithers and Dr Pamela Robinson

The final phase of fieldwork is currently being undertaken.

Creating and Sustaining Effective Professional Learning Communities

This study will review the characteristics and conditions of schools that function most effectively as professional learning communities. To identify schools which represent examples of good practice to act as hosts for other schools to improve CPD strategies.

University of Bristol: Agnes McMahon and Sally Thomas and University of Bath: Louise Stoll and Ray Bolam.

Work started January 2002 on this 3-year study.

Teacher Status Project

This project aims to understand and assess the status of the teaching profession. The study will identify the factors that determine the status of individual teachers and of the teaching profession; self-perceptions of status; public perceptions of the status of teachers; changes in status over time; how teacher status could be improved; and the impact of status on recruitment and retention.

University of Cambridge: Linda Hargreaves, Donald McIntyre and University of Leicester: Anders Hansen.

Work commenced Sept 02 on this 4-year study.

Factors influencing the transfer of good practice

This study will aim to establish how skills and knowledge are transferred and what contributes and limits the effectiveness of this process. This will involve a number of policy areas e.g. BPRS, Beacon Schools, Specialist Schools and Leadership training.

University of Sussex: Dr Michael Fielding.

Work commenced January 2003.

Research into Initial Teacher Training, Induction and Early Professional Development.

This longitudinal study will track cohorts of trainees from their initial training through to the end of their first five years as teachers. The study will follow trainees entering via their different routes into teaching, through their induction and early professional development.

This is currently out to tender.

Sabbaticals for experienced teachers working in challenging schools

The aim of this study is to evaluate the overall effectiveness of sabbaticals in terms of creating appropriate opportunities for experienced teachers (in 50% FSM schools) to undertake up to a six-week period of planned professional development, designed to enhance their own learning effectiveness, and to bring subsequent benefits to their pupils and their schools.

NfER: John Harland and Dick Downing

Work commenced from beginning of March 2002. 3-year study.

Measuring the Impact of Professional Development

This study will identify and evaluate existing tools for evaluating the impact of CPD; and to develop and test new approaches to evaluating the impact of CPD that have the capacity to track and explore connections between CPD and a) teachers' attitude, knowledge and practice, b) pupil learning and achievement, and c) teacher retention.

University of Warwick: Alma Harris and University of Nottingham: Chris Day

Work commenced Sept 2002.

Department of Education, Northern Ireland: Research Projects

Professional Development of Principals & Teachers in Irish Medium Education (IME)

This project will investigate the current provision for initial teacher education and for the induction, early and continuing professional development of teachers and principals in IME in Northern Ireland, with a view to informing policy-making in relation to future arrangements for such teachers' professional development.

St Mary's University College.

To be published in April 2004.

Recruitment of Teachers in Subjects in Post-Primary Schools

This project will test the proposition that there is a shortfall in the recruitment of teachers in any subject areas in post-primary schools in Northern Ireland, including those who are currently teaching subjects for which they are not qualified.

Stranmillis University College.

To be published in September 2003.

Evaluating Potential for Virtual Learning Environments

This project involves the creation and evaluation of a Virtual Learning Environment. It focuses on personal and social education, and citizenship, at Key Stage 3 – delivered through ICT.

The Queen's University of Belfast: Graduate School of Education.

To be published in January 2004.

Teachers' Health and Well-being Survey Report

This project surveyed all teachers in Northern Ireland on their health and well-being and the recommendations in the report are now being taken forward by a Strategy Group.

PricewaterhouseCoopers.

Report published December 2002.

Scottish Executive Education Department Research Projects

The Management of Supply Cover within the Teaching Profession

This project is looking at the issue of supply cover from the perspectives of EAs, schools and supply teachers themselves and will inform the development of good practice guidelines on the management of supply cover.

University of Paisley: Ian Menter

Fieldwork currently being undertaken. Final report due August 2003.

Evaluation of the Scottish Qualification for Headship

The Standard for Headship will be mandatory for all new headteachers from August 2005 and is currently achieved through the Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH). It is intended that this evaluation of the SQH will identify the value of the existing programme for the range of stakeholders and help inform the development of other complementary CPD programmes.

University of Paisley: Ian Menter

Final report due March 2003.

School Bureaucracy Audit

The objectives of this audit are to document the amount, form and frequency of information provided to and required from schools by national bodies and local authorities; to identify the impact of the correspondence on workloads of school staff; and to make recommendations on the design and processes of correspondence, with a view to reducing the burden on schools and teachers arising from the provision of/request for information.

George St Research

Work commenced March 2003. 1-year study.

Evaluation of Heads Together Pilot Project

The Heads Together Pilot Project aims to create an on-line community of headteachers in Scotland. This evaluation of the pilot will inform a more complete roll-out.

George St Research

Fieldwork currently being undertaken.

National Evaluation of the New Community Schools Pilot Programme in Scotland: Phase 1

Interim findings: Interchange 76, published July 2002

Institute of Education, University of London

Final report expected summer 2003.

APPENDIX 3
TYPES OF SCHOOL IN THE UK AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION.

1. Chapter 2 outlined the principal types of school found in the four countries of the UK. This Appendix give details on the respective size and country distribution of these various types.
2. Table A3.1 shows the respective sizes of the different sectors in each of the four countries, and where possible shows the changes in size that have occurred over the past ten years. Data is not necessarily strictly comparable.

Table A3.1: Numbers and sizes of schools, numbers of teachers, by country and by sector, .
2000-2 and 1990-2

England		2002		1992		
	schools	pupils (full and part-time)	Teachers (fte)	schools	pupils	teachers
Maintained schools*	23,411	7,776,000	398,662	24,714	7,146,000	379,507
Nursery	496	42,000	1,534	562	52,000	1,632
Primary	17,985	4,365,000	187,409	18,926	4,090,000	177,873
Secondary	3,457	3,265,000	192,910	3,874	2,906,000	183,555
Special*	1,161	94,000	14,528	1,352	98,000	16,447
Pupil Referral Unit	312	10,000	2,281	-	-	-
Independent schools	2,204	595,000	57,346	2,269	567,000	52,558
Wales		2000/1		1990/1		
	schools	Pupils	Teachers	Schools	pupils	teachers
Maintained schools	1,946	482,300	26,503	2,062	459,000	24,720
Nursery	41	2,400	91	54	4,000	118
Primary	1,631	263,000	12,902	1,717	268,000	12,001
Secondary	229	210,000	12,955	230	185,000	12,026
Special	45	4,000	555	61	4,000	575
Other, incl PRU						
Independent schools	54	9,000	948	71	12,000	1,232
Northern Ireland		2000/1		1990/1		
	schools	pupils	Teachers	schools	pupils	teachers
Maintained schools	1426	348,000	20,474	1378	339,000	18,596
Nursery	95	6,000	195	85	7,000	155
Primary	1043	180,000	8,940	999	187,000	8,271
Secondary	238	155,000	10,809	240	141,000	9,596
Special	50	5,000	803	54	4,000	574
Independent schools	27	1,300	130	19	1,100	93
Scotland		2001		1990/1		
	schools	Pupils	Teachers	schools	pupils	teachers
Maintained schools	2,862	751,000	48,870			48,459
Primary	2,278	425,000	22,632			22,632
Secondary	389	318,000	23,988			23,988
Independent schools	162	30,000	3,282			3,282

Sources: DfES, Statistics of Education: Schools in England 2000 (2001), Tables 7a, 7b; National Assembly for Wales, Schools in Wales: General Statistics 2001 (2002), Tables 1.2 and 6.1; Scottish Executive, Teachers in Scotland: September 1998 (1999), Table 2 ; NI Department of Education, Compendium of Northern Ireland Education Statistics 1988 to 2000 (2002) .

* the figure for special schools also includes a small number of non-maintained special schools.

3. This shows the variations in average size of schools in different sectors by country. Primary schools vary in mean size. England has generally larger establishments (primary: 242, secondary: 944), while Wales has smaller primary schools (161) and large secondary schools (917). Northern Ireland and Scotland have similar sized primary schools (188/187). Northern Ireland has particularly small secondary schools (651), and Scotland substantially larger secondary schools (817). These means do conceal quite large variations, particularly in primary schools in Scotland, where there are some very small schools in the Highland Region, and some large urban primary schools.
4. Pupil teacher ratios show that Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland generally have a more favourable ratio than in England in both primary and secondary sectors (Table A3.2). The ratio for independent schools is only available for England, and is particularly favourable.

Table A3.2: Pupils per teacher, by country and sector, various recent years

England ♠. 2000	Nursery schools (LEA)	18.1	[regional range 15.4 - 21.9]
	Primary schools (all)	23.3	[regional range 21.5 - 24.0]
	Secondary schools (all)	17.2	[regional range 15.9 - 17.7]
	Special schools	6.5	[regional range 5.5 - 7.0]
	Pupil Referral Units	4.3	[regional range 2.7 - 5.7]
	Independent schools	9.0	[regional range 8.9 - 11.7]
Wales ♣. 2000/1	Primary	19.4	
	Secondary	16.4	
Scotland ♥ 1998	Pre-school	29.2	
	Primary	19.4	
	Secondary	13.0	
N Ireland ♦. 2000/1	Special	4.4	
	Nursery	24.4	
	Primary	20.2	
	Secondary (not Grammar)	13.9	
	Secondary Grammar	15.4	
	Special	5.9	

Sources:

♠ DfES, *Statistics of Education: Schools in England 2000 (2001a)*, Tables 7a, 7b.

♣ National Assembly for Wales, *Schools in Wales: General Statistics 2001 (2002b)*, Tables 1.2 and 6.1.

♥ Scottish Executive, *Teachers in Scotland: September 1998 (2000b)*, Table 2.

♦ NI Department of Education, *Compendium of Northern Ireland Education Statistics 1988 to 2000 (2002)*.

5. In England, four categories of school were identified in Chapter 2 (§78) above. About two-thirds of the provision is in the Community category (Table A3.3). Foundation schools are developing particularly in the secondary sector. Generally, the Voluntary schools are smaller than the Community or the Foundation schools.
6. All the Community schools are of a non-religious character, but many of the other three categories have religious foundations. These include the long-standing Church of England, Methodist and Roman Catholic schools, the Jewish schools established at the beginning of the 20th Century, and recently founded Muslim and Sikh voluntary schools. Table A3.4 shows this distribution.

Table A3.3: Categories of school in England, 2001

	Primary			Secondary		
	Schools	% pupils		schools	% pupils	
	N	%		N	%	
Community	11,260	63%	69%	2,278	66%	65%
Voluntary aided	3,720	21%	18%	549	16%	15%
Voluntary controlled	2,643	15%	10%	129	4%	45
Foundation	362	3%	3%	501	14%	16%
<i>Total</i>	<i>17,985</i>	<i>100%</i>		<i>3,457</i>	<i>100%</i>	

Source: DfES (2002m) Table 23a.

Table A3.4: Religious characteristics of different categories of schools, England, 2001

	No religious character	Church of England	Roman Catholic	Methodist	Other Christian	Jewish	Muslim	Sikh	Other	Total
<i>PRIMARY SCHOOLS</i>										
Community	11,260	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11,260
Voluntary aided	17	1,916	1,733	3	19	28	2	1	1	3,720
Vol controlled	39	2,553	0	25	28	0	0	0	0	2,643
Foundation	323	38	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	362
<i>Total</i>	<i>11,639</i>	<i>4,505</i>	<i>1,733</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>17,985</i>
<i>SECONDARY SCHOOLS</i>										
Community	2,278	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,278
Voluntary aided	44	119	356	0	21	5	2	1	1	549
Vol controlled	59	64	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	129
Foundation	490	9	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	501
<i>Total</i>	<i>2,871</i>	<i>192</i>	<i>357</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3,457</i>

Source: DfES (2002m) Table 23b.

7. In Wales (1998/9) in the Primary sector there are 1,373 Community schools (84%), 141 Voluntary aided schools (8.6%), 113 Voluntary controlled schools (6.9%), and 4 Foundation schools (0.2%). There are 173 Church in Wales Voluntary schools, and 78 Roman Catholic Voluntary primary schools.
8. In the secondary sector, there are 199 Community schools (87%), 19 Voluntary aided schools (8.3%), 2 Voluntary controlled schools (0.9%), and 8 Foundation schools (3.5%). There are 5 Church in Wales Voluntary schools and 16 Roman Catholic Voluntary schools.
9. In Northern Ireland, there are 522 Catholic voluntary maintained schools, and 15 other maintained schools. There are 608 Controlled schools, most of which are Protestant but some Integrated, 54 Voluntary non-maintained Schools, and 31 Grant Maintained Schools.
10. There are 130,000 pupils in Roman Catholic schools in Scotland (about 17% of all pupils) in 416 Catholic secondary and primary schools (14.5% of all schools).