Title      The Modelling of Career Options and Continuing Professional Development
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THE MODELLING OF CAREER OPTIONS
AND CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

by

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A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
of the University of Luton

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the research was to generate a model of the interactions between career options and the concept of continuing professional development. Professional development has, in many professions and organisations, become synonymous with managerial development, but the developmental needs of individuals who wish to remain in a professional role may differ from the developmental needs of individuals in a management role. Teachers were chosen as the professional group to be tested. Fifty-four teachers, all volunteers, from six secondary schools were separately interviewed under a structured format, and were also invited to complete a number of questionnaires. From analysis of the interviews and questionnaires a model of teachers' career options was produced which identified three main categories of teachers: senior managers (headteachers or deputy headteachers); aspirants to a senior manager's role; and classroom teachers. The analysis also identified a number of main factors, and sub-factors, that affected the obtaining of one of the three categories and each of the factors was developed through a targeted literature search and through analysis of the structured interviews. An additional number of factors that related only to classroom teachers were also analysed in a similar manner. Also investigated are how teachers plan their career, and the value of continuing professional development. The model of career options was then tested on members of two similar professions - midwives and nurses. Completion of the research resulted in a proposed model of career options and recommendations for continuing professional development for each option. Together the model and recommendations represent an original contribution to knowledge.
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Preface

The author for many years owned an employment agency, and was much involved in career counselling and career development. He retired early from business, and studied for a degree in psychology and business. The research programme gave the opportunity to combine the business and academic experiences. An initial report on the early part of the research featured as a chapter in a book on continuing professional development published by Cassell. Two journal articles have been published, one article based on the chapter on continuing professional development and the other based on the chapter on hours worked and the use made by teachers of additional working hours.

The author wishes to acknowledge with gratitude the advice, help and encouragement received from his supervisors at Putteridge Bury; initially Dr. Ray Adams, and, latterly, Andrea Burnage and Tom Connor who collectively might be said to have provided him with his ABC of research, and to Professor John Radford, the external supervisor. Acknowledgement and thanks are expressed to the teachers, midwives and nurses who took part in the research, the schools and hospitals that provided access to their staff, and to the many, many people who provided detailed feedback on the findings. The University of Luton is thanked for the provision of a bursary for the research, and for giving the author the opportunity of lecturing and tutoring mature students attending management courses at Putteridge Bury and associated colleges. Finally the author’s thanks go to Dr Ian Stuart-Hamilton, now of Worcester College of Higher Education, the initial momentum to the whole study period.
Author's Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Luton. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

Michael Francis Scannell

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Continuing Professional Development

1.1.1 The concept of continuing professional development (CPD) is defined by Tomlinson (1993) as 'the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for the execution of professional, managerial and technical duties throughout one's working life.' (p. 231). Professional bodies such as the Chartered Insurance Institute, the Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors, and the Engineering Council define CPD in a like manner.

1.1.2 Many professional bodies are insisting on CPD as a prerequisite of membership. The policy of the Institute of Personnel and Development (formed by the merger of the Institute of Personnel Management and the Institute of Training and Development) is that CPD is a central part of the philosophy of the Institute and is a requirement for all corporate members. As with all professional bodies, the emphasis is that the individual owns and manages his or her own development. As a professional body the Institute believes that it must ensure that the requirement is being observed by its members, and since 1 July, 1996, the Institute has surveyed the CPD activity of all corporate members. The Engineering Council, which represents forty-six professional institutions with a total of over 290,000 members, aims to promote CPD so that it contributes to business performance, individual career advancement, the image of the profession
and international competitiveness. Every engineer and technician is required to develop and maintain a high level of competence throughout his/her career taking into account changes in technology and business practice. He/she is responsible for taking appropriate action to update and develop knowledge and skills relevant to his/her current job and career path, and to anticipate future requirements. The Chartered Insurance Institute requires all of its chartered membership to undertake CPD as an integral part of their overall professional development. Many other professional bodies have similar requirements. CPD is, thus, an important issue for the professions.

1.1.3 Professional development in many professions and organisations has, however, often become synonymous with managerial development e.g. Hirsh et al (1995), Durcan and Oates (1996), whereby individuals are rewarded and promoted for good performance by a move up the hierarchical structure to a more managerial role. In time such individuals will move into a professional management role and will leave their original professional specialisation behind them.

1.1.4 This lack of distinction between managerial development and professional development is a cause of concern for many sectors, and has resulted in the start of a ground swell of interest in the development of the individual who does not wish to move out of his or her professional role e.g. Hirsh et al (1995), Durcan and Oates (1996). The developmental needs of such an individual may be very different from the individual who is aiming at general management. Unilever Research Colworth Laboratory, for example, have actively researched into both whether there is conflict between career development and promotion, and as to what is the reality of lateral development. The suggestion is that different
developmental plans will be needed according to the emphasis on either a professional or management role e.g. Hirsh et al (1995), Durcan and Oates (1996). Many organisations, however, still see the professional role as requiring exactly the same skills set as the professional/manager role and, therefore, different developmental plans will not be needed.

1.1.5 This programme of research sets out to:

1. Select an available professional group
2. Explore the development options open to members of that profession
3. Develop and use a range of methods for evaluating developmental needs of professionals of career options
4. Develop a model of the career structure of the profession and identify those methods which are able to measure the career requirements of individual professionals
5. On the basis of the above four points to generate a model of the interaction between career options and continuing professional development.

1.2 The Teaching Profession

1.2.1 Teachers were chosen as the professional group to be tested. In the United Kingdom, Education is one of the most widely used of our public services. School provision is the largest part of the education service, educating close to ten million pupils and employing over 535,000 teachers (full-time equivalent) and a great many other support staff in 1995-1996; and costing well over £20 billion in 1994-1995, according to the latest statistics provided by the Department for Education and Employment. Education legislation of the 1980s introduced a
number of fundamental changes for the education service in England and Wales. The changes as they relate to schools concerned, *inter alia*, the de facto demise of the Local Education Authorities, local management of schools, grant-maintained schools, and the national curriculum. The hierarchical structure within the teaching profession, itself, has been subject to little change despite the many and varied changes that have taken place in education over the past fifteen to twenty years. Nevertheless, the concept of development of the professional as well as development of the manager applies equally to the teaching profession as to any other profession or organisation.

1.2.2 Prior to commencing the main body of the research, on the basis of initial discussions and pilot studies, at least four possible views of career options in the teaching profession could be defined. The discussions and pilot studies were conducted with ten teachers known to the researcher, the same ten teachers who were later involved in testing the structured interview and questionnaires employed in the research programme (see Chapter 3, section 3.6.1). The four possible views of career options were:

View 1. Teaching is a hierarchical profession.
On this view teachers enter the profession at an appropriate level of the hierarchy (usually classroom level) and, with promotion, move vertically upwards until they reach a level at which they are unable to obtain further promotions. As they move up the hierarchy they obtain more and more administrative and managerial responsibilities. At, or close to the top of the hierarchy, it often becomes the case that administration and management responsibilities have subjugated teaching responsibilities to the extent that there is little or no involvement in actual teaching duties.
This view predicts all teachers can be viewed as travelling a path from classroom teacher to teacher/manager. Some teachers, however, claim they do not want promotion and wish to remain where they are as classroom teachers.

View 2. This second view argues that both management and teaching are valued equally by the teaching profession and by the system. If so, teachers are equally open to management and to teaching roles. Thus there are:

a) teachers who remain in the classroom as subject specialists,

and

b) teachers who become managers.

Within the model it is possible to distinguish between the teacher/manager and the general manager. An example of the former is the headteacher with some teaching duties. An example of the latter would be a Local Education Authority manager or County Education Officer. It may also be possible to distinguish between those who enjoy teaching per se and those who enjoy the subject taught.

View 3. Whilst both teaching and management are important themes in the profession, management, in modern society, tends to be more favourably viewed especially with regard to status and to earnings potential. This predisposes more teachers to favour management over pure teaching, regardless of which theme is considered the most important.

View 4. Teachers enter to teach not manage. The essence of teaching is considered to be working with, and for children. Management and administration appears to serve only to deflect time from teaching. Therefore, there is a bias towards teaching.
1.2.3 Each of these views of career options deals with the career system and the career aspirations of individual teachers, and each view has implications for the developmental strategies of individual teachers.

1.2.4 The primary aim of this programme of research is to generate a model of the interaction between career options and continuing professional development (see section 1.1.5). The four views of career options described above are a starting point for the research, and each view will be incorporated into the final model only if the validity of the view is proven. The same condition applies to any further possible career options that may arise during the course of the research. The interaction of the proven career options with continuing professional development will be investigated, and a model of career options and continuing professional development will be produced that will have been tested for validity and generalisability across the chosen profession(s).
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

2.1.1 Much of the present work on careers is influenced by the experience of individuals in organisational settings, according to Arthur et al (1989), who then add that adult development theory is often the foundation or starting point for such work. This literature review conforms to Arthur's standpoint by first reviewing adult development theory, then career development theory, and then the theory of career development through the relationships between individuals and organisations. The review then considers the theory of teachers' careers, followed by the theory on continuing professional development. These varying aspects are then brought together in the conclusion.

2.2 Adult Development

2.2.1 An early pioneer of the study of development was Freud (1905) with his work on the developmental processes of early childhood. In contrast to Freud, Jung (1933) saw adulthood, and particularly middle age, as the major period of change and personal growth. According to Cytrynbaum and Crites (1989), Jung's work, together with the work of Erikson, has had the greatest impact on the study of adult development.

2.2.2 Erikson (1963) looked at the social context of development and identified life course development tasks and crises. He also explored gender differences.
Erikson proposed that there are eight stages of life, from birth to late adulthood, each stage representing a developmental crisis. The final three stages, described by Erikson as intimacy versus isolation, generativity versus stagnation, and integrity versus despair, cover the period of adulthood. Erikson argued that resolving each developmental crisis in its correct sequence influenced the process of development. Cytrynbaum and Crites state that most of the latest work in adult development has been an elaboration of the last three stages of Erikson's theory.

2.2.3 The work of Levinson et al (1978) was derived from the work of Erikson. Levinson's concept of adult development is described by Cytrynbaum and Crites as well known, controversial and influential. Levinson proposed that the life cycle is a sequence of age-linked development eras of approximately twenty years together with alternating structure-building and structure-changing periods of between five and seven years. The structure-building periods are comparatively stable whilst the structure-changing periods are comparatively unstable. During the stable periods key choices are made, together with the forming of a structure to implement those decisions. During the unstable or transition periods commitment is made to critical choices that are the basis for forming a new life structure.

2.2.4 Life structure is defined by Levinson as 'the underlying pattern or design of a person's life at a given time.' (p. 5). The life structure of an individual evolves through the life course in orderly, time-bounded periods of stability and change. The main eras of the life course are preadulthood (birth to about age 22), early adulthood (age approximately 17-45), middle adulthood (age approximately 40-65), late adulthood (age approximately 60-80) and late late adulthood (age 80 plus).
2.2.5 The second era of early adulthood contains the periods of early adulthood (22-28), the age thirty transition (28-33), and building a life structure for early adulthood (33-45). The middle adulthood era begins with the midlife transition (40-45), which is followed by the building of a life structure for middle adulthood (45-50).

2.2.6 Levinson is concerned with the total concept of adult development, and he does not focus on career development as a separate line of development, but, in the opinion of Cytrynbaum and Crites, work and career occupy a more central role in his work than in any other contemporary adult development viewpoint. Other important adult development theories include those of Gould (1975) and Vaillant (1977). Gould, however, ignores work and career development, whilst Vaillant incorporates work and career only into selective phases of adult development. Levinson maintains that the era of early adulthood is the period of crucial decisions in occupation and lifestyle, with career and occupational issues becoming central components of the life structure. In the period of middle adulthood both men and women experience concerns about their careers, but from opposite dimensions. Men may accept that they have reached the highest point in their career and may be prepared to look in other directions. Many women, on the other hand, can now devote time to their career which previously had been spent on raising their children.

2.2.7 Sikes (1985) states that teachers can follow a number of occupational career paths, and that their lives can also differ in other respects. Each teacher has his or her own unique biography. The point is confirmed by Bullough et al (1991) who state that it is apparent that becoming a teacher is an idiosyncratic process reflecting not only differences in biography, personality, and in conception of
teaching, and how well or poorly they are developed, but also in school and school-community contexts. Sikes found that teachers' accounts of their lives did, however, suggest a common development sequence of stages. This sequence of stages Sikes was able to loosely link to Levinson's development life stages.

2.2.8 In the 21-28 years of age group, Sikes noted that the major concern for most new teachers was simply the fact of coping, and being seen to cope with the job itself. Many teachers did not have a commitment to a life-long career in teaching although, according to Lyons (1981) few teachers had any specific career plans. The majority of teachers interviewed for this research had committed themselves to a life-long career in teaching. Many of the now senior managers stated, contrary to the findings of Sikes and Levinson, that their decision to aim for senior management had been made within the first few years of their teaching career (see Chapters 5 and 6).

2.2.9 For those teachers in the 28-33 age group, described by Levinson as the Age Thirty Transition, Sikes noted that it was becoming increasingly difficult to change career. Some teachers will leave the profession, many more will consider doing so, whilst for others obtaining promotion becomes increasingly important. Salary assumes greater importance if other aspects of the job are unsatisfactory. One-third of the classroom teachers interviewed did state their dissatisfaction with their financial reward, but another one-third, approximately, of the same group stated their financial rewards were good. The relationship between dissatisfaction with salary and dissatisfaction with other aspects of teaching was not investigated.

2.2.10 The age 30-40 group, described by Levinson as the Settling Down phase is an age when many teachers are at their peak. Management and organisation
become important to some. Others, who have not achieved the position they would have liked, have to come to terms with their present status.

2.2.11 For those teachers in the 40-55 age group, the hierarchical career structure prevalent in teaching deems that 'successful' teachers are in senior management positions and, generally, have relatively little classroom contact. Promotion prospects become increasingly unlikely as the teacher ages. In the age period 37-45 individuals possibly experience a traumatic phase involving self appraisal of one's life, career family and identity. Sikes states that those teachers in authority roles are more likely to be content with their roles, but others may find difficulty in coming to terms with their position and their age. For these latter teachers, coasting through to retirement may be their only aim. Contentment with their roles was more of a feature of the headteachers interviewed than of any other teachers. For many teachers who took part in the research, especially classroom teachers, waiting for retirement was, indeed, their only aim. Kanter (1989) underlines Sikes's comment on the perceived importance of management over teaching when querying why teachers have to become administrators in order to earn more or to have their greater mastery of their field acknowledged. The work of Sikes in relating teachers' development to the work of Levinson is important in that it demonstrates that teachers do not differ from other professionals in their development and career stages, and that teaching, contrary to the view held by many teachers, does not differ from other professions.

2.2.12 The research of Levinson et al, Gould and Vaillant was into the experiences of white men only, and, as such, has been often criticised and challenged. Bardwick (1980) and Gilligan (1980) have both argued strongly that women do not go through the same phases of development as do men. Bardwick
views the process of evaluating life choices as more difficult and more complex for women than for men. Opportunities for women in education, employment, career, and lifestyle options have expanded greatly, but societal expectations of the traditional feminine roles are changing very slowly. This programme of research has shown, however, that a number of women teachers voluntarily chose to conform to the traditional feminine career roles (see Chapter 10). On their return to work following a career break to raise a family, they elected to forsake a possible rise up the management career ladder with all the additional duties and responsibilities that such a rise might entail. Rather they remained in, or returned to, classroom teaching in order that time and focus could be on their family as well as on their job. Likewise, numbers of midwives and nurses elected to remain ward-based. Similarly, however, a number of male teachers, senior managers or aspirants to senior manager posts, had placed restrictions on their career and placed their family first, by, for example, limiting on a geographical basis the areas where they would be prepared to move to obtain promotion. Gilligan showed a developmental process that mirrored the developmental process for men, with women initially assuming a connection to significant others and gradually moving to a developmental path that allows women to see the self as equal to others.

2.2.13 Despite the various criticisms of their work, the theories of Erikson and Levinson stand as major models in the field of adult development. Cytrynbaum and Crites (1989) state that an understanding of life course adjustment is necessary to fully understand the processes of career development. It can be argued, however, that such understanding is necessary only from the theoretical standpoint. From a practical point of view it was noteworthy that no person interviewed during the course of this research mentioned, or appeared to be aware
of, life course adjustment and its various stages as proposed by the theorists. Rather, their references to career concerned the influences of the organisations and people with which they worked or had worked.

2.2.14 An area of the work of Levinson that was confirmed by the interviewees was the role of mentoring (see Chapter 6). Levinson argued that a critical role in the development of young adults was that of interdependent mentoring relationships. The mentor facilitated entry and advancement in the organisation or profession for the young adult. Many of the interviewees, especially those who progressed up the management ladder, acknowledged the assistance of a mentor. The strongest influence was in career progress rather than in career entry, and was through an informal mentoring relationship rather than a formal relationship.

2.2.15 From the foundation point of adult development the literature review now turns to career development.

2.3 Career Development

2.3.1 The first model of career guidance is generally accepted to be that produced by Parsons (1909) who stated that for a wise career choice three factors are involved:

1) a clear understanding of yourself, your attitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations and their causes.

2) a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and the disadvantages, compensations, opportunities, and the prospects in different lines of work.
3) true reasoning of the relations of these two groups of factors i.e. the matching of the individual to a particular job on the basis of rational judgement.

2.3.2 The model produced by Parsons does not take into account the age at which the majority of people make their initial career decision. The clearheadedness and insight required for the wise career choice, as it is described by Parsons, is not always part of the makeup of people in their pre-teen, teenage or early twenties years, the time when initial career decisions are made (see Chapters 5 and 11). A number of the teachers, midwives and nurses stated that their career decision was made as early as the age of five or six or seven. Parental and teacher influence, for example, may have an affect on the career decision-making of teenagers and those in their early twenties, and was acknowledged to have done so by many of those interviewed for this research.

2.3.3 Holland (1973, 1985) also investigated the fit of the individual to work with his study of personality in occupational choice. His trait-factor theory argues that vocational satisfaction, stability, and achievement depend on the congruence between one's personality and the environment in which one works. He found that individuals are likely to choose work environments that are conducive to their personality type. In all, Holland argued that there are six personality types by which both persons and environments can be characterised. The six personality types, along with salient associated characteristics are:

- Realistic - related to outdoor and technical interests
- Investigative - intellectual, scientific
- Artistic - creative, expressive in literary, artistic, musical, or other areas
- Social - interest in working with people
- Enterprising - interest in persuasion, leadership
Conventional - enjoyment of detail, computational activity, high degree of structure.

2.3.4 The types can be grouped into people oriented (social, enterprising) versus non-people oriented (realistic, investigative), and intellectually oriented (investigative, artistic) versus practically oriented (conventional, realistic). Betz et al (1989) and Minor (1985) agree that Holland is the most heavily researched and widely-used trait-factor and career choice content theorist. Arnold (1997) argues, however, that Holland does not take into account items of self that influence people’s career choice, such as their values and lifestyle preferences. It can also be argued that, as in the case of Parsons and his wise career choice, Holland does not consider the influence on career choice of factors outside of self such as parents and teachers. In addition, as stated earlier, a number of teachers and midwives and nurses who were interviewed for the research stated that they made their career choice very early in their lives whilst still aged in single figures (see Chapters 5 and 11). Holland does not explain how children so young can be so knowledgeable about their personality types and about work environments.

2.3.5 The supposition that there is one suitable job for any one individual was opposed by developmental theorists such as Ginzberg et al (1951) and Super (1957). Ginzberg et al proposed that career choice is not a single event but rather a process developed over a period of time. Ginzberg initially argued that the process lasted from childhood to late adolescence and young adulthood but in 1972 revised his model by stating that career choice was a life-long process of change and adjustment. Ginzberg’s 1972 model proposed that:

1. Occupational choice is a process that remains open as long as the individual makes decisions about work and career.
2. Early decisions have a shaping influence on career but so do continuing changes of work and life.

3. People make decisions with the aim of optimising satisfaction by finding the best possible fit between their needs and desires and the opportunities and constraints in the world of work.

2.3.6 Super (1984), extending Ginzberg's work, listed twelve propositions which stated that occupational choice is a process of compromise and adjustment over a series of life stages of career development.

2.3.7 Minor (1985) and Gutek and Larwood (1987) state that Ginzberg and Super helped pioneer the idea that career development and career choice were the result of a process rather than as a once-in-a-lifetime event and, furthermore, that career choices and career development consisted of stages that were hierarchical, sequential, and qualitatively different.

2.3.8 Gutek and Larwood believe that a career now encompasses the whole adult life cycle, and that a career can consist of a series of related jobs within the same organisation or of different jobs in different companies. Sonnenfield and Kotter (1982) agree that career theory now shows more variability along the time and the life space dimensions. They believe that career outcomes are the result of interactions among occupational, personal and family factors all along an individual's lifetime. Agreement is again given by Schein (1978) who states that career development involves the interaction of the individual and the organisation over time. This interaction is now looked at in more depth.
2.4 Individuals and Organisations

2.4.1 Arthur et al (1989) defined career as 'the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time.' (p. 8). Everybody who works has a career. Careers reflect the relationships between people and organisations and how the relationships fluctuate over time. Career theory provides a view of work situations that encourages study of both individuals and institutions.

2.4.2 Dalton (1989) states that a number of theorists have looked at career development through the relationships between individuals and organisations. Such theorists point out that not only do individuals develop their careers in organisations, but that the individuals, themselves, are shaped and influenced by the particular organisation in which they are employed. Thus developmental models of careers can differ on a number of different dimensions. Some models focus on properties of individuals, such as life span or individual differences; other models are based on properties of organisations. Some models postulate stages and transitions of development, whilst other models assume that development occurs in a much more continuous fashion. Within teaching, as demonstrated by this research and by others (see Chapter 10), the shaping and influencing effect of the organisation is primarily through the quality of the leadership in the school and through the headteacher of the school in particular.

2.4.3 For life-span models, Dalton gives the examples of Miller and Form (1951), drawn from the field of sociology, and Super (1957), taken from the field of vocational development. Miller and Form formulated a developmental model for careers in which careers were viewed as a series of social adjustments imposed on the individual by societal culture. They proposed five periods that started with
childhood and ended with retirement, in between passing through initial part-time employment, then a trial period that involved the first full-time job and a permanent position, and then a stable period of job permanence. Those individuals who pass through the five periods successfully enjoy a stable career pattern, but others are not successful, passing from trial job to trial job, or from trial job to stable period and back to trial job again. But job stability, as this research demonstrates, does not necessarily lead to satisfaction or continued performance in the career (see Chapters 9 and 10). Miller and Form believed that social class determined the individual's accomplishments rather than anything attempted by the individual. This belief is, possibly, not as appropriate to the 1990s as it was in the 1950s when Miller and Form first enunciated their theory.

2.4.4 Super used the self-concept as the base for investigating career development and produced a five-stage model for career development that is similar to the model produced by Miller and Form. Both models focus on the interaction between the individual and the environment, and show that organisations enable individuals to become productive members of society. But some individuals are not able to use the opportunity presented to them, and some, especially those who have reached the midpoint in their careers, have difficulty in maintaining a viable place for themselves in organisations. This last point is confirmed by the number of teachers; senior managers, aspirants to senior manager posts, and classroom teachers, who had appeared to plateau in their career (see Chapter 9).

2.4.5 Plateauing is described by Slocum et al (1987) as the slowing down and the inevitable end of promotions. Plateauing can occur for two reasons: personal and organisational. Personal plateauing occurs when employees decide not to
pursue further advancement in the corporation. Although they may have the
ability, they have lost their desire to play the tournament mobility game.
Organisational plateauing occurs when people want to advance but do not. Either
the company has no openings or management believes that the person lacks the
executive skills to be promoted. As people climb the corporate pyramid, the
number of positions decreases dramatically and the opportunities to continue to
move upward decrease accordingly. This means that plateauing must happen to
almost everyone. It is normal, and it has little to do with failure or success.
Unfortunately, most people regard promotion as the only reward that really counts
and tend to become demotivated when their career has plateaued. Coulson-
Thomas (1990) argues that 'Plateaued managers are found particularly in the
bureaucratic organisation......By becoming less bureaucratic and more flexible as
an organisation and encouraging more work to be undertaken by project groups,
task forces and teams, the risk of blocking the career opportunities of younger
staff can be reduced.' (p. 6).

2.4.6 Goddard (1990) quotes Drucker writing in the Wall Street Journal that
under present conditions 'people will stay in their present job another 30 years or
so. We will have to redesign managerial and professional jobs so that even able
people will still be challenged by the job after five or more years in it.' (p.69). In
teaching, people staying in one job for an overlong period of time, and losing all
challenge in the job, has been a fact for many years (see Chapters 9 and 10). Little
acknowledgement or attention has been paid to the dangers inherent in this
position.

2.4.7 Newby (1988) states that there are two options available to counter mid-
career demotivation. The first option is simply to 'let them go' cushioned by early-
retirement payments, an option generally not available to teachers of the age group concerned. The second option is to improve the rate of return from the individual. The key to this is in remotivating the demotivated. Within work, this is provided by changes in job activities that impose a significant learning requirement on the individual. The goal must be to overcome stagnation and over-conformity and to create new challenges and targets. As stated earlier in this chapter, the most common time for plateauing to occur is during midcareer, a time and position at which the majority of the teachers interviewed for this research were now situated. The experience and comments of the teachers do not lead to the belief that the problem of demotivated and plateaued teachers is being successfully challenged, if challenged at all.

2.4.8 For a model of individual differences Dalton refers to Schein (1978) who defined five career anchors that characterise individuals and differentiate career development. The anchors are: technical-functional competence, managerial competence, security and stability, creativity, and autonomy and independence. Individuals with technical-functional competence wished to remain within their specific content area and resisted entry to general management. Individuals with management competence sought positions with large amounts of responsibility and the opportunity to link organisational achievements to their own efforts. Such individuals identified their competence as a combination of the ability to solve problems under conditions of uncertainty, the ability to influence and lead people to achieve organisational goals, and the capacity to be stimulated by crises. Individuals with the security-stability anchor required the concept through all facets and times of their life. Creative individuals, described by Schein as entrepreneurs, made career decisions around the need to create a product, a company or a service, whilst individuals with the anchor of autonomy and
independence had no wish to work for large organisations and choose careers such as consultant or free-lance. It should be noted, however, that Schein's subjects were MBA graduates from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and had more work options open to them than would the average person. They were thus more able than most to chose careers that fitted their needs and values. It has been demonstrated in this research (see Chapter 5) and elsewhere e.g. Lyons (1981), Ball and Goodson (1985), that a large proportion of teachers drift into the profession, with little regard paid to their own needs and values. Nevertheless many such 'drifters' have successful careers in the profession.

2.4.9 Hall (1976) believes that each individual must take responsibility for managing his or her career, and that everyone involved in organisational life should encourage that concept. Hall recommends that individuals try to clarify for themselves as much as they can about their strengths and interests, as well as clarifying the opportunities that are currently available both within and without the organisation. This programme of research supports Hall by showing that teachers who successfully climb the management ladder have extended their interests beyond that of the organisation. Many teachers not successful in obtaining the management position they desired had kept their development opportunities to within their employing organisation (see Chapter 7). Schein (1978) agrees with Hall, and also recommends that managers and planners have regular discussions with individuals about job rotation and assignments. Hall comments, in addition, that the early experience of success in a career facilitates commitment and involvement in the career and sets the scene for later career success. But as this research shows, early experience of success in a career can have polarised effects (see Chapter 5). Some teachers who experienced rapid early promotion were motivated to strive for further success. Others, however,
believed that early success guaranteed further success without relevant effort on their part. By the time it was realised that this was not the case their career had stagnated.

2.4.10 Kanter (1989) discusses the directions that careers can take, and states that there are three principal forms of opportunity from which career patterns derive: bureaucratic, professional and entrepreneurial. A bureaucratic career pattern involves a sequence of positions in a formally defined hierarchy of positions. A career in such circumstances consists of movement from job to job changing title, tasks, and often work groups. Opportunity in the professional form involves increasing the exercising of the skills necessary for that profession by taking on more demanding, challenging and important assignments. The professional community may be more important to the professional career than the employing organisation. The entrepreneurial career is a career in which growth occurs through the creation of new value or new organisational capacity. Entrepreneurial careers are not restricted solely to the formation of a new business, and occur, also, when the individual grows the territory for which he or she is responsible and gains the reward for the growth. Arnold (1997) believes that Kanter's bureaucratic model does not reflect most careers, as all careers are, to some extent, entrepreneurial. The prominence of the bureaucratic model in career research is for convenience and simplicity sake. Hirsh et al (1995) found, like Kanter, that the term 'career' had different meanings for different groups of people. For managers and professionals working in large, highly-structured organisations career meant progression up a hierarchy. For others, possibly those less skilled, career consists of more sideways moves within the same organisation or between different employers. For the self-employed, career is more a series of work assignments. But Hirsh et al note that the concept of the organisational career is
under change. The business and political environment is short-term, career paths have disappeared, and belief in employment security has disappeared. Therefore, individuals will need to be more responsible for their own career as organisations take less responsibility for careers.

2.4.11 According to Rosenbaum (1989), employees' careers in organisations are viewed in two ways. The individualistic model argues that progress in a career is under the control of the individual. Factors such as an individual's ability, skill, motivation, choice, development, and ageing all have an effect on careers. The structural model argues that progress in a career is structured by organisational policies, internal labour market structures, and by vacancy choices. Rosenbaum argues that both models, in addition to their strengths, have serious limitations. But some of the limitations could be overcome by incorporating individualistic factors into structural models or by incorporating structured factors into individualistic models. Dalton (1989) states that the greatest emphasis on the possibility and necessity for individuals to learn and develop is stressed by the organisationally based models of development.

2.4.12 A particular problem investigated by Rosenbaum (1989) was whether being late in entering the workforce, or not competing for advancement in the early years of work, is disadvantageous to the individual. Rosenbaum states that, according to Neugarten and Datan (1973), being over age in a job implies that the individual has lost out in the competition for advancement. The prediction follows that advancements decline sharply after a critical age. On the other hand, there is the common implication that some people can be late developers and that advancements can occur late. Nevertheless, Neugarten (1968) points out that managers need to be aware of the age clock. The effect of age within teaching is
discussed in more detail in Chapter 9. The common perception of teachers is that arbitrary age limits do apply. Failure to obtain specified positions by certain age limits results in the likelihood of fairly insurmountable barriers to career progress. The age limits have remained constant over a period of decades, despite what has been noted by Arnold (1997) as an increase in the average age of the workforce. Age, as noted by Rosenbaum, presents a strong negative signal in relation to careers.

2.5 Teachers' Careers

2.5.1 Lyons (1981) states that teachers may pursue various career strategies which are described as largely intra-professional in that they refer to the way teachers manoeuvre their way within the school and education system to achieve promotion. Instances quoted by Lyons include career planning, taking on extracurricular duties, involving themselves in professional development training, and generally making themselves visible to those in authority who can influence or award promotions. Bennet (1985) notes that the formal career structure in teaching does not acknowledge those teachers who are committed to their subject and to classroom teaching and who do not wish to become involved in management and/or administration duties. This restraint by the formal career structure applies also to those teaching in non academic or low status subjects, regardless of whether or not they wish to climb the managerial ladder. This research programme confirms Bennet's comments, but adds the proviso that the restraint may be due to small numbers in the teaching departments of low status subjects, with consequent lack of initial promotion opportunities, rather than directly due to the low status of the subject.
2.5.2 A number of writers have argued that teachers, and teaching, are generally not viewed in a positive and favourable manner. This view was strongly believed by the teachers interviewed during this research. Bradley (1990) states that the most expensive resource in schools are teachers, and argues that 'In industry, any expensive piece of plant which had to support a delicate task for 40 years and which had the capacity to make or mar the product would be the subject of constant care and attention. We have been very slow to realise in education circles that teachers need and deserve support, reassurance and encouragement to go on extending their skills and exploring the frontiers of their knowledge.'

2.5.3 Battye (1993) further argues that 'In education we have so changed the perception of teaching that we have reduced its value to the lowest of tasks performed by a teacher. It is the labouring job within the classroom. We in fact reward our best teachers by releasing them on an increasing basis from the drudgery of classroom teaching so that they can carry out other, often increasingly banal, tasks.' (p.141).

2.5.4 The argument is continued by Crowther (1993) who states that historically teachers have often felt relatively powerless regarding the decision-making processes which determine the nature of their work. Crowther quotes the US Carnegie Task Force (1986) which commented that 'Rules made by others govern their behaviour at every turn .... An endless array of policies succeed in constraining the exercise of the teacher's independent judgement on almost every matter of movement.' (p.139). The lack of input and influence was cited by a number of the classroom teachers during their interviews for this research (see Chapter 10).
2.5.5 In order for the worth of teachers to be acknowledged Tomlinson (1993) believes that there is a need to have lifelong professional development for teachers as managers of learning which is systematically planned throughout their career. He cites the Handy and Constable/McCormick reports on British Management which both suggested the need for individual managers to take action to own their own careers and positively seek continuous training and development to get the learning habit early to recognise when new knowledge and skills are required and seek them out positively. Teachers need encouragement to approach their own education and training this way.

2.5.6 Historically, the problem of individual teacher development and teachers taking responsibility for their own education and training has been the double aspect of the development of the teacher and the development of the school. Bell (1991) argued that individual teachers and the needs of the school are catered for by development processes within schools, but Cowan and Wright (1990) believe that this is not the case.

2.5.7 Taylor (1975) identified two aspects of the professional development of teachers. These were staff development and further professional study. He defined further professional study as being orientated to the needs of individual teachers while staff development was rooted in the needs of the institution. Thomas (1991), on the other hand, considers that there are three aspects of teachers' career development: improving effectiveness in the job currently being done (close to being synonymous with institutional development); increasing a teacher's range of abilities (may be of concern to institutional development, but often requires a teacher to move on to another school - different attitudes or
beliefs, different catchment area, different age groups); taking on additional responsibilities in relation to other members of staff - often entails movement.

2.5.8 Thody (1993) highlighted the lack of applied professional development for teachers, especially those striving for management positions, when surveying a sample of 80 professionals in middle management positions in primary, secondary and tertiary institutions in England and Australia. She found that 'what was surprising about their qualifications was the dearth of those concerned with management qualifications.' (p.28).

2.5.9 The Teacher Training Agency (1995) recognised that continuing professional development, as advocated by Tomlinson and others, should become a priority for teachers (see Chapter 7).

2.6 Continuing Professional Development

2.6.1 Hirsh (1994) states that over the past fifty years an important model of a career has been that of a vertical progression within a major employing organisation. Employees received security, status, and financial benefits in exchange for their loyalty and acceptance of the jobs on offer. The mutual needs of individuals and organisations were met, and a long-term psychological contract (Schein, 1988) existed. Latterly, as has been demonstrated earlier in this literature review, organisations have stopped accepting responsibility for lifelong careers and, with the loss of effective job security, employees believe that they cannot entrust the organisation to look after their careers. Responsibility for career development has moved from the organisation to the individual. The need, as
stated by Spurling (1995), is for individuals to develop flexible careers which are sustained by continuous learning.

2.6.2 Sir Christopher Ball (1994), the Chairman of the National Advisory Council for Careers and Educational Guidance, states that it is widely recognised that learning pays nations, companies, and individuals. Learning provides economic, social, and personal benefits, many of which have a monetary value, in a world that rewards learning. From this recognition there has arisen the idea of a learning society aiming at lifelong learning for all, together with the realisation that learning and work are not separate entities but are closely linked.

2.6.3 Continuing professional development (CPD) is a key element of lifelong learning, and its central aims are to contribute to business performance and to enhance individual career prospects. The concept of CPD is defined by Tomlinson as ‘the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for the execution of professional, managerial and technical duties throughout one’s working life.’ (p. 231).

2.6.4 Bailey (1994) has stated that true CPD enables professionals to remain up-to-date with knowledge, opinions, concepts, technology, and influences that can only be good for business in today’s demanding and changing world. CPD enables the company to maximise the knowledge and skills acquired by its members, in order to gain success for the organisation.

2.6.5 CPD is a comparatively new concept, and much of the initial literature on the concept emanated from the professions e.g. from the Engineering Council,
covering forty-six engineering institutions, and from the Institute of Personnel Management (now joined with the Institute of Development to form the Institute of Personnel and Development). Their literature detailed the advantages of CPD for individuals, for organisations, and for the professions, themselves, and provided guidelines for the execution of CPD. It was emphasised that responsibility for CPD is on the individual rather than on the profession or organisation, although commitment to CPD was, and is, generally driven by the professions, and by some larger organisations.

2.6.6 The literature produced by the professions was intended as a guideline to CPD, and hence was descriptive rather than discursive, and was of a general nature rather than particular, with no account taken of the differing career paths of individuals. Generally the professions assumed that all their members were actively seeking personal development, and as such the literature was aimed at active, or about to be active, development-minded individuals. Some professions recognise, possibly obliquely, that not all individuals are development-minded in that CPD is made voluntary rather than mandatory for their members, but even in these cases the literature is directed towards guidance and execution of CPD. Rapkins (1996) categorised the status of twenty professional bodies into either 'old and established' or 'new and/or developing'. Professional bodies designated 'old and established' and which included regulatory bodies tended to have mandatory policies of CPD, whilst professional bodies designated 'new and/or developing' and which were largely non-regulatory, were more likely to have voluntary CPD policies.

2.6.7 Despite the concept of CPD being actively promoted by the majority of the professions, and despite, in the author's experience, CPD being readily recognised
and acknowledged by individuals in all professions and organisations, much management related literature of the 1990s has either ignored CPD altogether e.g. Torrington and Hall (1991), Mullins (1996) or devoted little space to CPD e.g. Beardwell and Holden (1997). Durcan and Oates (1986) and Arnold (1997) in their books on careers for the 21st Century again devote little space to lifelong learning in general and CPD in particular. The last few years have, however, seen the production of books solely devoted to CPD e.g. Woodward (1996), Tomlinson (1997). To some extent these recent volumes on CPD are an elaboration of the literature produced by the professions, in that they indicate methods and guidance for the implementation of CPD for the individual. They also give examples of CPD in organisations, professions, and countries other than the United Kingdom, and consider case studies of CPD for various career levels e.g. senior management, middle management.

2.6.8 This programme of research adds a pragmatic view, and a view that has been hitherto ignored, to the literature on careers and CPD. It demonstrates that individual development can be considered as a continuum ranging from those totally committed to CPD to those who will avoid all development processes if at all possible. This continuum model of CPD is married to a model of career options that was itself developed through the research programme. The combined model of career options and CPD demonstrates, for the professions investigated in the research, that CPD is more likely to be undertaken by those whose career is geared towards management rather than those whose career centres on the professional speciality. The research extends its pragmatic view by indicating strategies of CPD that will assist the individual in obtaining desired career positions. Also indicated are reasons why individuals do not succeed in fulfilling
their career needs. The model of career options and CPD is shown to be applicable to professions in general.

2.6.9 As stated the literature on CPD has been so far aimed at those who are development-minded, and ignores the fact that some individuals do not wish for any personal development. But many individuals not enamoured of personal development are required to undertake mandatory CPD to retain membership of their profession. Little or no attention has been paid to the accuracy of self-reporting of CPD, either by individuals not attuned to development, or by individuals who are not able to complete the statutory CPD requirements of their profession. The research continues its pragmatic theme by investigating whether dishonesty in self-reporting of CPD occurs, and by suggesting methods to enhance the value of self-reporting of CPD. By its use of such pragmatic methods the research adds to the knowledge and value of CPD.

2.7 Conclusion

2.7.1 Research on the study of human development initially concentrated on the years of childhood and adolescence before progressing through to the study of adult development and of the entire life cycle.

2.7.2 Adult development and career development tended to be studied independently of each other with comparatively little integration between the two fields.

2.7.3 Career development theory began with the supposition that individuals made a career choice during adolescence and remained in their chosen career until
retirement. Then, just as adult development moved to being considered along the whole life cycle so, similarly, career development began to be investigated as a life-long process of change and development.

2.7.4 A further extension of career development came with the realisation that the individual career was bound to the employing organisation. Career theory is thus now concerned with the study of both individuals and organisations. But with the change in the working environment, there has been a shift to the individual taking responsibility for his or her own career, rather than a reliance on the organisation to provide training and development opportunities.

2.7.5 Despite the continued and mounting interest in adult development theory and especially in career development theory, the majority of individuals progress through their life and their career totally unaware of any theory that may underline the decisions that they may make, or have made, concerning their life and their career. It was discovered during this research programme, however, that many teachers were unaware of basic strategies that would enable promotions to be more easily gained, or discovered requisite strategies too late in their career. The research highlights a number of strategies that, if successfully undertaken, should enhance the prospect of career progression. This lack of awareness is particularly relevant to what may be termed the 'deeper' psychological theories of the life-span models and trait-factor models of adult development and career development. Probably the only awareness of psychological career theory by most individuals is awareness of the term 'mid-life crisis' together with some knowledge of what the term means and what it implies. Even so, it can be argued that a mid-life crisis is recognised more in respect to the behaviour of others rather than it is in respect to the individual himself or herself. Where it is recognised by an individual about
himself or herself, it is liable to be recognised more in hindsight rather than at the
time of occurrence. Most individuals are, however, aware that age is a
determinant in their career, and that failure to achieve prescribed career goals by a
pre-determined age can be a partial or total handicap in the achievement of further
career goals. But specific knowledge of life-span factors is not general
knowledge.

2.7.6 Individuals are, thus, far more likely to agree with the 'common sense'
career development theory of Ginzberg (1972) which states that occupational
choice is a process that remains open as long as the individual makes decisions
about work and career, that early decisions have a shaping influence on career but
so do continuing changes of work and life, and that people make decisions with
the aim of optimising satisfaction by the best possible fit between their needs and
desires and the opportunities and constraints in the world of work. Such a theory
may not be articulated by individuals, but may well be the cornerstone on which
many careers are built and developed.

2.7.7 Leading on from Ginzberg's model is the realisation that, in the workplace
of today, the individual and the organisation shape and influence each other, with
the emphasis on each individual to take responsibility for the management of his
or her own career. A structured programme of continuing professional
development (CPD) will provide a strong and supportive base for the management
of the career.

2.7.8 There has been a tendency over many years for those involved in education
to believe that the business of education operates in a totally different way from
that of any other business. Teachers' careers, under this argument, cannot be
compared to careers in any other organisation or profession. Career theory has shown, however, (e.g. Sikes 1985) that factors that apply to careers in organisations equally apply to careers in education. As with any individual in any organisation or any profession, each teacher, therefore, must be responsible for his or her own career. Each teacher should undertake a structured programme of CPD.
3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Choice of Methodology

3.1.1 The programme of research is based mainly on qualitative data drawn from a fieldwork study.

3.1.2 Qualitative research, according to authors on research methodology such as Bryman (1989) and Patton (1990), focuses on the individuals under study, and on their environments, and emphasises the need to get close to the people and to the situation(s) being studied. In order to understand the realities of the daily life of the individuals and of the situation(s), the qualitative researcher seeks to discover the emotions, thoughts, experiences, and perceptions of the people involved, together with what they consider to be important to them, and how they interpret their environment.

3.1.3 The central activity of qualitative research is fieldwork which entails personal, direct contact with the people under study in their own environments. Within fieldwork the most prominent methods of data collection are by means of in-depth and open-ended interviews, and by participant observation. Qualitative research is thus pragmatic research that finds out what people know, do, think, and feel in given situations.

3.1.4 Robson (1993) states that interviewing is a flexible and adaptable means of obtaining information that requires considerable skill and experience on the part of the interviewer. Questions of reliability concerning the recording of information, and bias on the part of the interviewer, are the major concerns. The author of this
research has a twelve year history of career interviewing, career counselling, and placement of job-seeking candidates to client companies. Reliability and absence of bias were essential skills for successful interviewing and placement of candidates. In addition, the author has used interviewing as the base for a previous research programme.

3.1.5 Participant observation was initially undertaken in the research to give the researcher a greater understanding of the complexities of teachers’ working lives. Indirect participant observation, whereby the researcher was constantly in and around a school but did not possess a working role, was the method employed.

3.1.6 The format of the structured interviews in the research programme led the research into the realm of life history profiles, a method of qualitative research previously employed in educational research. Beynon (1985) states that following its heyday in the 1920s and 1930s, the life history method fell into relative disuse as a research procedure. The strengthening of educational ethnography in this country in the 1970s, however, led a new generation of researchers to explore the possibilities of the life history in helping to further understanding of school processes, and to generate theory, and to establish links between individually lived experience and wider society. Beynon claims that sociology frequently glosses over the complexities of lives by prematurely super-imposing researcher order and rationality upon the often chaotic personal worlds of its subjects. There is, thus, a danger of divorcing lived experience from structural issues. Goodson (1983) argues that teachers and their actions cannot be divorced from their socio-historical context. In much educational ethnography previous careers and experiences (in and out of school) are not researched and not held to be significant in shaping teacher views and actions. But teachers’ lives are largely spent outside of classrooms, and events outside of classroom and school can strongly influence, and even determine, activities and reputations within the classroom and the school. As is demonstrated throughout this research programme, the careers of the teachers involved are affected by events in their lives outside of their school.
Two particular examples selected to illustrate the point, are the placing of geographical limits on promotion prospects to avoid disrupting family life (see Chapter 5), and choosing to take a second job outside of teaching as against spending the equivalent time in extending educational experience and contacts (see Chapter 8).

3.1.7 The life history method can thus bring understanding and knowledge to the development of careers and professional lives. Life histories are more than good stories. They can generate sensitising concepts and contribute to conceptual frameworks and theory building. Behind teaching lies a range of attitudes, motives and emotions, and life history material can tell us much about the socio-historical, institutional and personal influences on a career. Sikes (1985) states that teachers do not all follow the same occupational path, nor are their lives necessarily similar in other respects—each has their own idiosyncratic biography.

3.1.8 The context of ethnography quoted by Beynon and by Goodson refers to the broad interpretation given to the term ‘ethnography’ by Hammersley and Atkinson (1983). Hammersley and Atkinson state that characteristically ethnographic research involves the participation of the researcher, whether overtly or covertly, in the life experiences of those who are to be studied. By the use of methods such as watching events as they occur, listening to what is said, asking for information, whatever data are available to illustrate the issues under research are collected and recorded.

3.1.9 To enhance the reliability of the qualitative data, quantitative data was obtained via a number of questionnaires. Patton (1990) has stated that qualitative findings may be presented alone or in combination with quantitative data. Bryman (1989) argues that triangulation, obtaining information by using a number of methods or from several sources, is indispensable in research, regardless of whether the data corresponds or does not correspond.
3.1.10 Qualitative research and fieldwork allows the study of selected issues in depth and detail. Life history research and ethnography are tested methods of qualitative research in general, and of research into teachers' lives in particular. Qualitative research, however, does depend on the competence and skill of the researcher. The main instrument used in the research programme was interviewing, an instrument in which the author has long, detailed and relevant experience. The choice of qualitative research and fieldwork was, therefore, a choice of a tried and tested research methodology.

3.2 Research Programme

3.2.1 For this research programme it was decided, after consulting with a number of experienced researchers, that the main form of data collection would be a structured interview (see Appendix A) which would be supplemented by three questionnaires (see Appendix B). The structured interview would provide individual life history data. The questionnaires would provide general quantitative data. Together, both sets of data would fulfil the definition of ethnography quoted earlier i.e. the collection of whatever data are available to throw light upon the issues involved. To ensure that the interviews would elicit information relevant to teachers and their careers, the researcher spent up to four days per week for a period of eight weeks at one school partaking in the life of the school. With the permission of the headteacher of the school, and the permission of the staff who were directly involved, the researcher attended lessons, assemblies, staff meetings, and school functions, including staff functions and Parent Teacher Association functions. The researcher gave lessons and took an assembly. Individual members of staff, and individual pupils, were shadowed for one day at a time. An open invitation to use the staff room was received. In short, the time was used to get to know the staff, and for the staff to get to know the
researcher. A mutual confidence and trust was built between many of the staff and the researcher. Thus even before the interview programme commenced many conversations between the researcher and members of the staff had taken place. These conversations gave the researcher insights into the teachers' trains of thought, helped shape the questions to be asked in the structured interview, and produced many volunteers to take part in the research. In addition when the interviewing schedule began, the quality and depth of information given in the interviews between the researcher and teachers where a relationship had been built was noticeably higher than in those interviews where there was less of a relationship. Care was taken, however, to ensure that no pre-judgements or suppositions on the part of the researcher were brought to any interview, and all interviews were conducted in the same structured format.

3.2.2 As previously stated, the main base of the research was a structured interview which was supplemented by three questionnaires: a Skills Audit; a Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions; and Critical Success Factors. The structured interview consisted of twenty-five questions relating to the interviewee's life and career, plus four questions relating to the school in which the interviewee was currently employed, and was designed to be conducted in fifty minutes, a time corresponding to one lesson period, at the minimum, in the school day. All the interviews could thus be held, and were held, in a free period of each interviewee's time. In practice, it was found that many of the teachers interviewed obtained so much from the interview in terms of reflection about their career, and provided such detailed answers to the questions, that the interviews often extended, at the interviewee's request, to a second fifty minute period, and in a few cases to a third period. All interviews were carried out either in the teacher's private office or in an office provided by the school. Each interview was on a
one-to-one basis. At the beginning of each interview the researcher gave a brief description of the research, and the purpose and form of the interview. The researcher then requested permission to take notes throughout the interview and guaranteed to provide the interviewee with a typewritten transcript of the interview within a few days. Factual errors in the transcript notified by the interviewee would be amended. All the teachers were assured of complete confidentiality. No information concerning any teacher would be passed to their school, no teacher would be identified in any reports, material or publications arising from the research. Similarly, no school would be identified in any reports, material or publications arising from the research.

3.2.3 Prior to their structured interview, each teacher had been provided with the Skills Audit, the Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions, and the Critical Success Factor questionnaires, to complete and bring to the interview.

3.3 Skills Audit

3.3.1 In the Skills Audit, each teacher participating in the research was asked to rate, in relation to their role at work, the strength of a number of skills that might or might not be required in the role. The list of skills was derived from a Skills Audit for Managers (Adams, 1993) that had been adapted to include a number of skills that were considered to be particularly relevant to teaching. The skills relevant to teaching were selected for inclusion in the list following discussions on the original skills audit list and discussions on teaching skills with three senior lecturers in education, all former teachers, employed in the Education Unit of the University of Luton. The skills listed totalled fifty-seven in all, and an option was also provided for the participant to add any other skill or skills that he or she
considered to be involved in their present teaching role but which had not been included in the list of skills provided. Each of the fifty-seven skills had to be rated on a scale of one to ten. A rating of ten indicated that a very strong level of the skill was required for the role, a rating of five or six indicated an average skill level was required, whilst a rating of one suggested that the need for the skill was virtually absent in the teacher's current role. The teacher indicated how they saw the required strength of the skill by circling one number on the scale. For one skill alone, that of specialist knowledge, the participant was requested to supply additional information - the particular area or areas of specialist knowledge.

3.4 Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions

3.4.1 The Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions, consisting of three sections, was derived from earlier research conducted by Adams (1993) that showed that there are a number of possible career directions that professional people should be able to consider. In section one, each participant was asked whether they wished to become or already saw themselves as:

1) a general manager
2) an educational manager
3) a specialist in teaching
4) a specialist in their chosen subject

These four career directions were selected by the researcher and were derived from the possible career options for teachers that were detailed in Chapter 1.

3.4.2 For each of the four career directions the participants were asked to rate themselves on a scale of one to ten with level one on the scale representing 'not at
all' and level ten on the scale representing 'very much so'. The participant indicated their rating by circling one number on the scale.

3.4.3 In section two, each teacher was asked to compare his or her relative strength in six pairs of abilities involving the following four areas of education that had been selected by the researcher: subject knowledge, student management, school management, and administration. Each of the four areas was paired in turn with the other three areas, thus providing six pairs of comparative ability strengths. For each pair a scale of one to ten was used. One area was placed at level one on the scale with the second area placed at level ten on the scale. The teacher indicated how they saw their relative strength in the paired areas by circling one number on the one to ten scale.

3.4.4 In section three each interviewee was asked to indicate whether they saw themselves as:

1) an expert in teaching
or
2) a general manager who happens to be in education
or
3) a hybrid between teacher and manager.

One role only was to be selected out of the three roles described, the roles again having been selected by the researcher.
3.5 Critical Success Factors

3.5.1 The Critical Success Factor (CSF) approach was identified at the Harvard Business School in the 1950s and 1960s through research aimed at making computers more productive but was mainly ignored until used by John Rockart of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in the 1980s for a different issue, namely the identification and definition of the information needs of top managers. A significant level of success has been reported for this technique covering both the private and public sectors. Because of the success of this approach and the apparent fact that it need not be constrained to information needs, the CSF approach has also previously been applied to the career development issues of individuals. It has been well demonstrated that career planning is an important factor in managerial success, perhaps even overtaking the role of luck or being in the right place at the right time. The CSF methodology is used as a starting point for career planning as it forces the individual to recognise that different criteria for success do occur. CSFs should support and define the career aspirations of the individual. Where success is defined, the individual is much more able to achieve it than where success is allowed to vary from circumstance to circumstance. Individuals define those areas in which good performance is necessary to the attainment of personal goals. Having defined personal CSFs, each individual must also define how to manage them, must set priorities to distinguish critical from non-critical factors, and the whole process helps the individual to recognise what is necessary and what must be done for career success.
3.6 Structured Interview Programme

3.6.1 The structured interview and the three questionnaires were initially tested and retested on ten teachers known to the researcher in order to pilot the research, provide a base for further investigation, and check the validity of the instruments.

3.6.2 Twenty-five teachers at an inner-city high school, representing fifty per cent of the total teaching staff of the school, were then interviewed. All the interviewees were volunteers.

3.6.3 The age of the teachers ranged from twenty-four to sixty-two with three teachers in their twenties; eighteen teachers in their thirties or forties; three in their fifties; and one in his sixties. Most of the teachers had thus had time to develop their career, although there were some late entrants to the teaching profession in the thirties to forties age group.

3.6.4 The findings from this group of teachers were presented to a further ten teachers known to the researcher, five senior managers and five classroom teachers, for their comments and criticisms.

3.6.5 Five secondary schools, selected as broadly representative of secondary schools in England, were then contacted by the researcher and agreed to take part in the research. The schools were selected from a fairly extensive list of secondary schools that were either known to the researcher or were recommended to him by teaching and non-teaching contacts. The research and the findings so far were explained to the contact at each selected school, the contact being either the headteacher or a deputy headteacher, who was then asked to provide six
interviewees in total, two in each of three categories that had been identified in the first stage of the research i.e. two senior managers, two aspirants for senior manager posts, and two classroom based teachers. Thus thirty further teachers were to be interviewed, making, in all, a grand total of fifty-five teachers interviewed. All the interviewees were volunteers. None of the interviewees were informed that they were part of a particular category. One interviewee was ill at the time of the interview and it was not possible to obtain a replacement. Thus the final total of teachers interviewed was fifty-four. In all, therefore, seventy-four teachers were involved in the research programme; fifty-four teachers were interviewed and twenty others were involved either in the preparation of the structured interview and questionnaires, or in analysis and discussion of the results. The extent and depth of the interviews, combined with the broad experience, both personal and professional, of the interviewees resulted in the latter interviews confirming insights previously noted in earlier interviews, but not eliciting further insights. It was thus believed that the teachers interviewed were a representative sample of the experienced teaching population.

3.6.6 The teachers selected for interview at this second stage were aged based around the early forties. Six were under forty (only one under thirty-five), fourteen were aged between forty to forty-five, seven were aged between forty-six to forty-nine, and one was aged fifty-one. One teacher declined to give her age. The teachers were, thus, in mid-career, would have made career path decisions, and probably have a realistic appreciation of their career aims and ambitions. As secondary schools are generally larger than primary schools and offer much greater and wider opportunities for career development and promotion, all teachers selected were secondary school based.
3.6.7 The six schools that took part in the research, including the initial school, were selected, as stated earlier, to be broadly representative of secondary schools in England and came from three widely separated counties. The schools were:

- a mixed Middle School, in an urban working class catchment area
- a boys High School, in an urban working class catchment area
- a girls High School, in an urban middle class catchment area
- a mixed High School, in an urban working class catchment area
- a mixed Comprehensive, in a rural working class catchment area
- a mixed Upper School, in an urban working class catchment area.

Pupil details of the six schools are featured in Table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>9-13</td>
<td>75% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>11-16</td>
<td>13% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>87% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>11-16</td>
<td>99% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>11-16</td>
<td>67% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>11-18</td>
<td>100% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>13-18</td>
<td>60% British/white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Pupil details of the six schools involved in the research.
3.6.8 Two of the schools had been awarded the Schools Curriculum Award, one was seeking Investors in People status. Two schools were heavily involved in initial teacher training, one through a local university, the other through an in-house training scheme. One school was combining its Staff Development Programme with a local higher education institute to enable interested staff members to gain further qualifications. Of the Heads of the schools, two were female and four were male.

3.6.9 Exactly the same procedures were conducted at this second stage of research as at the first stage. The Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions and the Critical Success Factor questionnaires were made clearer and more 'user-friendly.'

3.7 Presentations

3.7.1 Following the collection and analysis of the data that was obtained from the structured interviews, and from the completed questionnaires, a series of presentations were given on the work undertaken to date and on the findings resulting from that work. One presentation was to a national conference on continuing professional development, held at the University of Leicester. Conference delegates were drawn from academia and from both the public and private business sectors. Other presentations were given to mature part-time students studying at Putteridge Bury, the Management Faculty of the University of Luton, for qualifications of the Institute of Personnel and Development, all the students being in managerial positions in various companies and a variety of industries in the private sector, or in various parts of the public sector. Presentations were also made to a number of groups of teachers.
3.8 Factors Affecting Teacher Development

3.8.1 The research at this stage had identified a model of career options, and rejected a number of alternative models. For each of the three categories of teacher career option identified in the model of teachers' careers - senior manager, aspirant to a senior manager's role, classroom teacher - a number of factors that have an influence on teacher development had been identified. Each factor had a bearing on the career category assumed by the individual teacher. The two management oriented categories of senior managers and aspirants to a senior manager's role had, generally, factors in common, with the difference between the two categories being in their reaction to the factors. The main factors common to the management categories are career planning, having a mentor, the planning of continuing professional development, hours worked, and age. The remaining factors identified may be considered to be sub-factors to one of the main factors. Whilst direct questions were asked of the interviewees concerning their career, their continuing professional development, and the hours they worked, no questions were asked concerning mentors or age - apart from asking each interviewee how old was he or she. The information volunteered on mentors and the affect of age on the career thus demonstrates that some reflective thought must have occurred concerning the career for such information to have been made available.

3.8.2 All the main factors and their affect on teachers are analysed and discussed in fuller detail, under separate chapter headings, later on in the study, with the sub-factors subsumed under the appropriate main factors. The factors also apply to classroom teachers and the affects on classroom teachers are included in the analysis and discussion. The classroom teachers, however, are also affected by
separate additional factors, and these factors are analysed and discussed later on in the study in a separate chapter devoted to classroom teachers.

3.8.3 As stated in the literature review, the emphasis on the individual career and individual development in the work environment has latterly moved to the view that each individual should take responsibility for the management of his or her own career. At the time when the majority of the teachers taking part in the research were making the major decisions on their careers this view was not prevalent. Nevertheless, a number of the teachers took responsibility for their career, particularly those who, subsequently, were successful in terms of climbing the hierarchical career ladder. The chapter on career planning (Chapter 5), therefore, concentrates on analysis of the teachers' career decisions. The other factors, as detailed in Chapter 4, that have an affect on career decisions have a stronger, more relevant theoretical background and in the chapters on these factors (Chapters 6-10) a tightly focused exploration of published research is conducted in addition to analysis of the affect of the factor.

3.8.4 Analysis of the affect on a career of the planning of continuing professional development highlighted concerns felt by the author on the process of self-verification or self-reporting of development undertaken. Similar concerns were expressed in Rx, a magazine that accompanies the Sunday Telegraph. To investigate these concerns a questionnaire was prepared and distributed to one hundred nurses and midwives, members of professions that have adopted the process of self-verification of continuing professional development. Analysis of completed and returned questionnaires is included in the chapter on continuing professional development.
3.8.5 The next stage of the research, therefore, was to develop in more depth the profiles of all the factors contained in the current model. The targeted literature based research and analysis would either confirm the current model or generate a revised model which will then be evaluated in terms of its validity level of detail and generality.

3.8.6 On the basis of the literature work, plus the subsequent analysis of the resultant model, two further groups of professionals were selected on which to test the model. The initial intention was that the model should be tested on further professionals within education, either on secondary school teachers as before, or on professionals in another branch of education, for example lecturers in further or higher education, or from practitioners in a different and comparable profession e.g. nursing. It was decided that a more valid test would result from exposure of the model to professions other than in education, and the model was tested on nurses and on midwives.

3.8.7 Testing was by means of focus group interviews. The use of focus groups at this stage of the research was in order to ensure that the results obtained are not artefacts of the original research methods i.e. structured interviews and questionnaire techniques. Focus group interviewing provides both another level of data gathering and a perspective on the study that would not be available through individual interviews. The data from the focus groups was analysed through a qualitative approach based on systematic content analysis.

3.8.8 The methodology for the final stages of the research was confirmed following a long, stimulating, and constructive discussion at the research transfer presentation, and subsequent discussions and debates with the director of studies,
the internal and external supervisor of the research programme, and with others who were present at the transfer presentation.

3.9 Planned Outcomes of the Research

3.9.1 Completion of the exploration of published research, and of the focus group interviewing, will result in a proposed model of career options, and recommendations for continuing professional development for each of the various options. Together, the model and recommendations for the planning of continuing professional development for each of the career options will represent an original contribution to knowledge.

3.9.2 In conclusion, the aim of this programme of research is to generate a model of the interaction between career options and continuing professional development. The model will have been tested for validity and generalisability across the selected professions.
4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 Of the teachers interviewed there was a heavy bias towards men in both the senior managers and aspirant classifications, with only one female senior manager and two female aspirants. The classroom teachers were evenly divided into male and female. The three groups were all almost evenly split between those who had a teaching qualification (Cert. Ed. or B. Ed.) only, and those who had taken a general degree before going on to obtain a teaching qualification.

4.1.2 Since commencing teaching over half of both the senior managers and the aspirants had obtained or were currently studying for a Masters degree. None of the classroom teachers had studied for a Masters degree but four had obtained first degrees. One-third of the senior managers and over half of the teachers had not obtained further qualifications since commencing teaching, but only one of the aspirants had not added to, or was not attempting to add to, his/her qualifications.

4.2 Taxonomic Analysis

4.2.1 On the basis of the interviews, a taxonomic analysis was carried out on each of the teachers (sample size = 54). They were classified according to their career achievements and aspirations, in classifications derived from the data. First, teachers could not, in general, be identified as general managers per se. At
most, they saw themselves as teacher/managers. This conclusion is also supported by the thematic analysis of career intentions, in which some teachers regarded themselves solely as teachers whilst others considered that they were teacher/managers. Only one regarded herself as a general manager.

4.2.2 Second, the significant number (n = 24) classified as having a management orientation could be further divided into:

a) those possessing a senior management role (which for the purposes of this research programme is defined as headteacher or deputy headteacher)

or

b) those aspiring to such positions.

4.2.3 Within the latter group of aspiring managers, it was evident that there were two further distinct groups, those who had apparent potential to become a senior manager and those whose careers seemed to have reached a plateau and who were unlikely to reach such a role. This left a subset (n = 30) of teachers who were classified as classroom focused. Finally, classroom teachers could be sub-divided into two sections, those who chose to be classroom based and those who would have wished to make progress towards management but who had not been successful.
4.2.4 This produces the following taxonomy (three levels) of career types for professional teachers.

1. **Management orientation**
   1.1* Those in a senior management role
   1.2 Those aspiring to such a role
   1.2.1* Aspirants with possibilities to obtain such a role
   1.2.2* Aspirants who have reached a career plateau

2. **Classroom orientation**
   2.1* Those who had made a personal choice to remain classroom based
   2.2* Those who had wished to progress up the management career ladder

Asterisks (*) identify those categories which cannot be sub-divided on the basis of the present data. There are five such end categories (see also Figure 1).

4.2.5 The resulting taxonomy shows a clear asymmetry and is skewed towards management aspirations and lack of career opportunities for classroom based teachers. There simply is no additional category in section two which corresponds with section one (1.2). Of the five categories identified, four show a current or, at least, an expired aspiration towards management. Only one shows a focus on the classroom, though further work may yet provide an evidence for a sub-division here too. Any such sub-division may have been too small to detect with the present sample size. There is therefore no reason, at present, to believe it exists. The data were inspected for evidence of a distinction between those who enjoyed
teaching/pastoral care versus those whose primary focus was upon the subjects taught, but none was found.

![Diagram of teachers' career options]

Figure 1. Model of teachers' career options.

4.2.6 In the large majority of cases, if not all, the categories into which the teachers were placed were decided by the individual teachers themselves. For those in a senior management position, the category in which they were placed was, obviously, a fact of life. Even for those teachers who were placed in what might be termed negative categories (i.e. aspirants who had reached a career plateau, or classroom teachers who had wished to progress up the management ladder but had not been successful) it was the teachers themselves who indicated the category in which they were to be placed. The indication of category was derived from the individual teacher's comments as to how and why they believed they had reached, or remained, in their present position, the choices they had made, whether deliberately or accidentally, along the career path, and how each individual related to certain common factors that were continually referred to during the series of structured interviews.
4.3 Factors Affecting Career Positions

4.3.1 The factors that affected the obtaining of a senior management position are:

a) career planning

\textit{sub-factor} changing schools

\textit{sub-factor} rapid early promotion, a normal occurrence at the start of their career for teachers now in the 40s age-group, providing a stimulus to obtain further promotions

b) having a mentor, normally the Head of the first school employed at, and normally on an informal basis

c) planned continuing professional development

\textit{sub-factor} professional activities - having a high profile in education circles i.e. networking - generally within the local education authority and outside of the school one is employed in

\textit{sub-factor} number of courses and conferences attended. Courses attended include both subject related courses and management related courses

\textit{sub-factor} self-directed learning

d) quantity of hours worked.

4.3.2 The factors affecting not obtaining a senior management position are in many cases the same factors that affect the obtaining of such a position. The importance is in how the individual relates to the factor. The factors are:

a) little career planning

\textit{sub-factor} a failure to recognise the need to change schools resulting in a lack of experience, which, inevitably, will be a negative factor when seeking to obtain promotion later on in one's career.
*sub-factor* rapid early promotion within school thus satisfying early career objectives

b) little continuing professional development. What continuing professional development that does take place is school-based rather than career-based.

*sub-factor* courses and conferences attended - likely to be subject courses rather than management courses

*sub-factor* having a high profile within the school i.e. taking on additional responsibilities, often unpaid

c) falling school rolls resulting in less Deputy Head posts being available. Some aspirants only want to become a Deputy Head and not a Head, but schools will only appoint to Deputy Head those who wish to become a Head. The problem for such people is that if they become a Deputy Head then it means them doing the same (unknown) job for the next twenty years - which they do not want. On the other hand, if they do not go for promotion then it means them remaining in their current job for the next twenty years - which again they do not want.

d) age.

4.3.3 The factors detailed above relate also to all those teachers who wished to remain classroom based, but other, possibly stronger, factors involved with those who wished to remain classroom based are:

a) the strong belief that teaching is based on pupil and classroom involvement and is not administration and school management

b) anti-change - especially the rapid change of the past few years which usually appeared, to those teachers at least, to be change for change sake

c) the large amount of hours that are deemed to be necessary to work by those
who are seeking management promotion. It is important to point out, however, that many classroom based teachers will work the same amount of hours but not in the school setting. Many have second jobs, some connected with teaching such as taking evening classes in further education or conducting personal tuition classes, whilst others have jobs not connected with teaching. Examples include taxi driving, professional gambler, church minister, and, as an unpaid job, parenting.

4.3.4 Additional factors affecting those classroom teachers who had wished to progress up the management ladder but had not been successful are:

a) status of subject - those subjects considered low in status e.g. art, design, physical education etc. are generally considered to offer less promotion prospects than other, more academic subjects

b) age

c) late entrance into the profession

4.3.5 It has been demonstrated that career opportunities are skewed towards management opportunities. Classroom teachers, who form a large proportion of the total number of teachers, are thus left with little or no opportunities of career advancement. This is regardless of whether they opted to be in the position of classroom teacher or whether they did not succeed in obtaining promotion away from the classroom. Whatever their reason for being a classroom teacher, the teachers in that position commonly stated a number of factors that affected their attitude to their work and to their job. These factors are:

a) lack of leadership from senior managers

b) lack of motivation from senior managers

c) lack of recognition from senior managers
d) lack of status

e) lack of financial reward (an important but not a total factor in having a
second job)

f) lack of input

g) lack of thanks from senior managers.

4.3.6 Each of the factors detailed above as relating to a particular category was
derived by means of thorough analysis of the structured interviews. To obtain the
factors, the transcript of each interview was examined in detail, and comments and
statements deemed of possible importance were noted and tabulated under the
respective question heading. When all the interviews had been examined, cross-
tabulations for common occurrences was undertaken. The interviews were then
all re-examined for nuances and subtleties, as well as rechecking the direct
comments, and any additional findings were added to the cross-tabulations.
Finally the tabulation for each question was compared to all other question
tabulations for any corresponding evidence. The final result - the factors detailed
as relating to a category - bears tribute to the richness and intensity of the
structured interviews.

4.3.7 All the above factors, and their affects, will be examined in greater detail
later on in this study, but attention is now turned to analysis of the Skills Audit,
Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions and Critical Success Factors
questionnaires in order to determine whether the responses to the questionnaires
confirm or contradict the model of teachers' careers devised from the series of
structured interviews.
4.4 Analysis of the Skills Audit Questionnaire

4.4.1 The Skills Audit questionnaire was completed by all ten (100%) of the senior managers, by thirteen (93%) of the aspirants, and by twenty-six (87%) of the classroom teachers. The majority of those who completed the questionnaire had done so before their structured interview and brought the completed questionnaire to the interview. A minority completed the questionnaire after their structured interview and either handed or forwarded the completed questionnaire to the researcher at a later date. Those who did not complete the questionnaire were reminded at least three times that the questionnaire was outstanding, but despite the reminders ultimately failed to complete the questionnaire. Completion of the Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions questionnaire and the Critical Success Factors questionnaire followed a similar response pattern.

4.4.2 An average (arithmetic mean) rating for each of the fifty-seven skills was calculated for each of the three groups of senior managers, aspirants, and classroom teachers. On rare occasions a teacher had failed to give a rating to a skill. In these instances, no rating was inserted by the researcher and the average rating was calculated using only those who had rated the skill. The maximum number of omissions for any particular skill was one by the senior managers, one by the aspirants, and five by the classroom teachers, and was considered, therefore, not to have an appreciable effect on the overall average rating for any one skill. The only exception to this was in the specialised knowledge skill where the participants were invited to specify the specialised knowledge to which they were referring. Many chose to ignore rating this skill altogether, others specified one area of specialised knowledge, and others specified two areas of specialised
knowledge. An average rating for this skill was calculated for each group from the number of areas specified rather than from the number of participants.

4.4.3 One (10%) senior manager, five (36%) aspirants, and five (17%) classroom teachers used the option of adding and rating other skills to the skills audit list. These skills were noted and recorded but as the skills varied considerably and, almost by definition, were rated highly, they have not been included in the strongest and weakest skills audit list shown in Table 1.

4.4.4 In the Skills Audit the arithmetic mean of the majority of skills, for all three categories of teacher, fell in the range of 6.0 to 7.9 on the scale of one to ten. Any skill rated, by a category of teacher, at a strength of eight or above was, therefore, considered to be of a strong strength for that particular category. Any skill rated below six was considered to be of weak strength. The senior managers and the aspirants both rated a total of eleven skills at a strength of eight and above. Six of the eleven skills - managing people, interpersonal skills, control and discipline, leadership, communication - giving, and verbal skills - were common to both groups. These six skills can in general be termed 'people skills'. It is in the selection of the remaining five highly rated skills that the difference between the two groups is accentuated. The senior managers rate at a high level skills such as strategic thinking, problem solving, problem analysis and organisational understanding which may be grouped together under the heading of 'strategy' and refer to the planning and taking forward of the school. The aspirants, on the other hand selected skills such as team working, individual relationships and counselling skills which together might be termed 'people skills'. The senior managers thus rate at a strong level both people and strategic skills, but the aspirants rate only people skills at the same strong level. Strategic skills do not
appear to form part of the role of the aspirants. The aspirants did rate strongly the skill of adaptability and flexibility which, possibly, reflects their having to cope with the dual roles of teaching and management.
### Skills Audit.

#### Strong and Weak skill levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong skill level</th>
<th>Weak skill level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(mean score of 8 or above)</td>
<td>(mean score of less than 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(listed in descending score order)</td>
<td>(listed in ascending score order)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Senior Managers (n = 10).**

- managing people
- interpersonal skills
- organisational understanding
- leadership skills
- control/discipline
- problem analysis
- problem solving
- communication -giving
- verbal skills
- group presentations
- strategic thinking

**Aspirants (n = 13).**

- managing people
- specialist knowledge
- interpersonal skills
- communication giving
- team working
- individual relationships
- control/discipline
- leadership skills
- adaptability/flexibility
- verbal skills
- counselling skills

**Classroom teachers (n = 26).**

- specialist knowledge

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Table 2. Teachers' strong and weak skills levels.
4.4.5 Those aspirants who completed the specialised knowledge skill rating rated its strength highly. Of sixteen examples given of specialised knowledge, eleven (69%) of the examples, concerned the subject taught by the aspirant or the pastoral care of pupils or to assessment. This rating, and the areas specified, probably reflect the amount of teaching undertaken by the aspirants as against the amount of teaching undertaken by the senior managers.

4.4.6 The senior managers rated only two skills at weak strength, whilst the aspirants rate seven skills in the same category. Included in the seven weak skill strengths for the aspirants were organisational politics and financial management. Lack of strength in these skills in their current roles possibly acts as a contribution to the fact that the aspirants have not obtained a senior management role, and certainly reflects a lack of training for senior positions.

4.4.7 The classroom teachers rated highly only strength in specialised knowledge, and gave a weak rating to only two skills, one of which was organisational politics and the other was role playing. The strength of ninety-five per cent of the skills were somewhat bunched together and rated by the classroom teachers as average or just above average. Twenty specialised knowledge areas were specified by the classroom teachers, of which fifteen (75%) referred to the subject taught and a further two (10%) referred to the pastoral care of pupils and to assessment. These results indicate the bias of the classroom teachers' role towards teaching and the lack of management factors in the classroom teachers' role.

4.4.8 The analysis of the data from the Skills Audit Questionnaire supports the derived model of teachers' careers.
4.5. Analysis of the Career Intentions Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Intentions</th>
<th>(Scale 1 - 'not at all' to Scale: 10 - 'very much so').</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. General manager</td>
<td>am 7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Educational manager</td>
<td>am 8.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Specialist teacher</td>
<td>am 6.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew 0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Subject specialist</td>
<td>am 6.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -0.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

am = arithmetic mean (average) : sd = standard deviation : skew = skewness

Table 3. Ratings of teachers' career intentions.

4.5.1 Ten (100%) of the senior managers, twelve (86%) of the aspirants, and twenty-four (80%) of the classroom teachers completed all three sections of the Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions questionnaire. From section one, where the interviewees were asked how they viewed themselves in four career areas, it can be seen, from the arithmetic mean, that although all three groups saw
themselves either as, or becoming, educational managers rather than general managers, the classroom teachers did not really rate themselves as managers of either kind. The arithmetic mean rating given by the classroom teachers for general management was below midpoint on a scale of one to ten and the rating for educational management, although higher, was still only midpoint on the scale. The aspirants in turn gave only an midpoint rating for general management, but a considerably higher rating for educational management. The senior managers gave a high rating to both general management and educational management, but again the educational management rating was higher than the general management rating. In both instances the senior managers' ratings were higher than the aspirants' ratings.

4.5.2 The arithmetic mean rating is supported by the standard deviation which measures the dispersion of the individual ratings, and by the skewness which shows the shape of the distribution of the individual ratings. For both general management and educational management, the standard deviation of the senior managers' ratings is less than either the aspirants or the classroom teachers thus demonstrating a tighter distribution of the individual ratings. Similarly the negative skewness for the senior managers and the aspirants confirms that more of the individual ratings are above the arithmetic mean for each category than below the arithmetic mean. There is a higher negative skewness for the senior managers than for the aspirants with regards to general management. For educational management the negative skewness is lower for the senior managers than for the aspirants, but the very high arithmetic mean for the senior managers reduces the possibility of a high negative skewness.
4.5.3 Conversely, and perhaps not surprisingly, the classroom based teachers, as shown by the arithmetic mean, rated themselves higher than the aspirants and even higher than the senior managers in being a specialist in their chosen subject and in being a specialist teacher. The classroom teachers rated themselves higher as a specialist in their chosen subject than they did in being a specialist teacher. The arithmetic mean ratings are supported by the measures of standard deviation and skewness in a very similar manner to that described in the previous paragraph. The senior managers rated themselves more as specialist teachers than they rated themselves as specialists in their chosen subjects, and the aspirants rated themselves likewise. The aspirants rating for specialist teacher and subject specialist was higher than the senior managers' ratings for both categories. This would appear to indicate that as interest and involvement in management increases, then interest and involvement in teaching and in the specialist subject decreases. This could be the result of a positive decision to concentrate on management, or simply be due to a lack of time to focus on both management and/or teaching and the specialist subject.

4.5.4 The model of teachers' careers is thus supported by the data from section one of the Careers Intention Questionnaire. Senior managers are predisposed towards management rather than towards teaching. The classroom teachers are predisposed towards teaching rather than management, whilst the aspirants lie between the extremes of senior managers and classroom teachers but with a bias towards management as against towards teaching.
### 4.6 Analysis of the Relative Strengths Questionnaire

#### Comparison of Relative Strengths.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Senior Managers n=10</th>
<th>Aspirants n=12</th>
<th>Classroom Teachers n=24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scale 1.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Knowledge</td>
<td>am 7.50</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>5.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.43</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew 0.37</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Management</td>
<td>am 6.90</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.45</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew 0.21</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Management</td>
<td>am 5.20</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.54</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew 0.19</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Knowledge</td>
<td>am 7.10</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.51</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -1.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Management</td>
<td>am 5.60</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.96</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -0.38</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Knowledge</td>
<td>am 6.10</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd 1.92</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skew -0.90</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

am = arithmetic mean (average) : sd = standard deviation : skew = skewness.

Table 4. Comparison of Relative Strengths of four abilities.
4.6.1 In section two, when comparing relative strengths in the abilities of school management, student management, administration, and subject knowledge, the senior managers, as demonstrated by the arithmetic mean, rated their strengths as being in student management, school management and administration over subject knowledge and in school management over student management. The aspirants rated their strengths as being in student management over subject knowledge and administration, and in administration over school management. The classroom based teachers considered their strengths to be in subject knowledge over both school management and administration and in student management over administration. In all the other pairings of abilities, relative strengths were considered to be approximately equal. In the pairings listed above, where relative strength in one ability was indicated over the other, the arithmetic means of the senior managers and of the classroom teachers were generally higher than the arithmetic means of the aspirants, demonstrating a firmer belief in their respective relative strengths. The dispersion of the individual ratings for each comparison, as shown by the standard deviation, was tighter for the senior managers in five out of the six pairings when compared to the aspirants, and in all six pairings when compared to the classroom teachers. The skewness of all eighteen distributions were relatively small except in the case of negative skewness, i.e. more individual ratings above the arithmetic mean than below it, for the senior managers ratings of both school management and administration over subject knowledge.

4.6.2 The senior managers indicated that they considered their relative strengths to be in management factors rather than in subject knowledge. The classroom teachers, in contrast, considered their relative strengths were more in subject knowledge and student areas rather than in management and administration factors. The aspirants, with their relative strengths in student management and
administration occupied somewhat of a midpoint between the senior managers and the classroom teachers and, possibly, confirmed either a lack of management training or why they had not obtained a senior management post.

4.6.3 In section three, when rating themselves as either an expert in teaching, or a general manager who happens to be in teaching, or a hybrid between teacher and manager, only one interviewee rated him/herself as a general manager - the only person who was taking/had taken a postgraduate degree that did not have an education connotation - in this case a Master of Business Administration (MBA). Eighty-five per cent of the senior managers and eighty-one per cent of the aspirants considered themselves to be hybrids between teacher and manager as against fifteen per cent and nineteen per cent respectively who considered themselves to be expert teachers (discounting some in the two groups who, despite instructions to the contrary, elected to place themselves in both categories) whilst the classroom teachers were almost evenly divided between those who considered themselves as expert teachers and those who considered themselves as hybrids between teacher and manager. Many of the classroom teachers do have some management responsibilities, and as one classroom teacher stated during his interview for this research *all teachers are managers in that they have sole responsibility for a class of thirty plus pupils.*

4.7 Analysis of the Critical Success Factors Questionnaire

4.7.1 In the Critical Success Factor (CSF) methodology each interviewee was asked to list up to a maximum of seven critical success factors. Only thirty-two (59%) of those interviewed attempted the task and only thirteen (24%) completed a full list of seven factors, possibly indicating that teachers have difficulty in
formatting objectives, or that they do not generally tend to set themselves objectives or plan for the future. The actual factors listed mounted to 172 (46%) out of the possible total of 378. The senior managers proportionately provided the most CSFs 44 (63%) out of a maximum 70, then aspirants 49 CSFs (50%) out of a maximum 98, then teachers 79 CSFs (38%) out of a maximum 210. Five (50%) of the senior managers listed the full number of seven CSFs but only four (29%) of aspirants did the same and four (13%) of the classroom teachers. Three (30%) of senior managers did not list any CSFs and neither did five (36%) of the aspirants and fourteen (47%) of the classroom teachers.

4.7.2 Sixty-two per cent of the senior managers' CSFs and fifty-eight per cent of the aspirants' CSFs were concerned with career development and management/leadership skills, but only twenty-seven per cent of the classroom teachers' CSFs were related to those particular skills.

4.7.3 Twenty-two per cent of the aspirants' CSFs and fifteen per cent of the classroom teachers' CSFs were concerned with policy/curriculum skills, but only seven per cent of the senior managers' CSFs were concerned with the same skills. Classroom teachers' CSFs were concerned with teaching skills fifteen per cent and interpersonal skills thirteen per cent but these skills hardly featured in the CSFs of the senior managers or the aspirants.
### Critical Success Factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Senior Managers</th>
<th>Aspirants</th>
<th>Classroom Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical Success Factors per person</td>
<td>7 x 5</td>
<td>7 x 4</td>
<td>10 x 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 x 1</td>
<td>6 x 1</td>
<td>7 x 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 x 1</td>
<td>5 x 1</td>
<td>5 x 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 x 3</td>
<td>4 x 2</td>
<td>4 x 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 x 1</td>
<td>3 x 1</td>
<td>2 x 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 x 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0 x 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Critical Success Factors</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Topic:**
- Career Development 14 (32%) 18 (37%) 10 (13%)
- Management/Leadership skills 13 (30%) 10 (21%) 11 (14%)
- Policy/Curriculum skills 3 (7%) 11 (21%) 12 (15%)
- Personal skills 9 (20%) 4 (8%) 16 (20%)
- Interpersonal skills 2 (5%) ---- 10 (13%)
- Teaching skills 2 (5%) 1 (2%) 12 (15%)
- Other 1 (2%) 5 (10%) 8 (10%)
- Total 44 49 79

**Number of possible CSFs**
- 44/70 49/98 79/210

**Percentage of possible CSFs**
- 63% 50% 38%

**Full (7) factors per person**
- 5(50%) 4(29%) 4(13%)

**Nil factors per person**
- 3(30%) 5(36%) 14(47%)

---

4.7.4 Twenty per cent of the senior managers' CSFs and twenty per cent of the classroom teachers' CSFs were concerned with personal skills - almost exclusively time management and self organisation - but only eight per cent of the aspirants' CSFs were concerned with the same skills.
4.7.5 In direction and in quantity the critical success factors listed by the three groups of senior managers, aspirants, and classroom teachers serve to emphasise the differences between the groups. The senior managers generally focus on management factors, the classroom teachers generally focus on teaching and teaching related factors, with the aspirants somewhat in the middle but skewed towards management rather than towards teaching, as might be predicted from the derived model of teachers’ careers.

4.7.6 However, possibly the most disconcerting aspect concerning the setting of CSFs was the high proportion of the teachers who, despite a reminder, did not return the questionnaire. Twenty-two (41%) of all the teachers either did not attempt or were unable to complete the task. Whether this was due to time pressures or difficulty with the task is not known for certain in all cases, but anecdotal evidence tended to point to the latter rather than to the former. The CSF task was the task set to the teachers that, possibly, required the most reflective thought on their part. Failure to complete the task could indicate unwillingness on the part of the individual to reflect on his or her career, or even indicate little future career aspirations for many teachers.

4.8 Conclusion

4.8.1 Quantitative analysis of the Skills Audit, the Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions, and the Critical Success Factors questionnaires has produced evidence, singularly and together, to support the model of teachers' careers that was derived from the qualitative analysis. Teachers can be divided into three groups: senior managers, aspirants to senior manager roles, and classroom teachers. The attitudes, aims and objectives of the three groups differ with the senior managers
being more aligned to management duties and responsibilities and the classroom teachers concentrating on teaching and allied responsibilities. The aspirants to senior management roles fall between the two other groups, but are skewed more towards management than to teaching.

4.8.2 Further support of the validity of the model was provided by the response to a number of presentations made on the research and findings, as detailed in the methodology chapter. The presentations were made to academics, teachers, and businessmen and businesswomen from both the public and private sectors. All the presentations were favourably received. A common response, following the presentations and subsequent question and answer sessions, was for some members of the audience to request further time for discussion. In every case, the audience members stated that they could identify, in their own particular industry or profession, the pattern that had been identified in teaching. Further acknowledgement of the value of the work to date was that the paper presented at the national conference on continuing professional development was subsequently published by Cassell as a chapter in a book on continuing professional development.

4.8.3 The following chapters thus examine the various factors shown to have had an affect on teachers' career options.
5.0 Teachers' Career Planning

5.1 Introduction

5.1.1 The first factor to be examined in detail, having been identified as having an affect on teachers' career options (see Chapter 4, p.49-52) is that of planning the individual career. However, prior to investigating the effect of career planning on the careers of the teachers involved in the research, it is well to remember that the first career planning decision made by the teachers, in relation to teaching, was the decision to actually become a teacher. How each teacher made the decision was analysed together with the effect, if any, of that decision on the subsequent future career of the teacher.

5.2 Why Teachers Elect to become Teachers

5.2.1 The rationale given by the teachers for their choice of teaching as a career fell into four categories: those who had made a definite choice to teach, those who had drifted into teaching, those who had elected to become a teacher either as their second choice or reserve choice career, and those for whom teaching was their second career having previously embarked on and then abandoned a career in another profession or industry. The category terms employed - definite, drifted, second choice and second career - basically encompass the terms used by the teachers to describe the reason for their career choice. A summary of the reasons given by the teachers for choosing teaching as a career is shown in Table 6 below.
Choosing teaching as a career.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Senior Managers</th>
<th>Aspirants</th>
<th>Classroom Teachers</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n =10</td>
<td>n = 14</td>
<td>n = 30</td>
<td>n = 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite</td>
<td>3 (30%)</td>
<td>7 (50%)</td>
<td>11 (37%)</td>
<td>21 (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drifted</td>
<td>4 (40%)</td>
<td>3 (21%)</td>
<td>7 (23%)</td>
<td>14 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second choice</td>
<td>2 (20%)</td>
<td>2 (14%)</td>
<td>3 (10%)</td>
<td>7 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second career</td>
<td>1 (10%)</td>
<td>2 (15%)</td>
<td>9 (30%)</td>
<td>12 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10 (100%)</td>
<td>14 (100%)</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
<td>54 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Reasons for choosing teaching as a career.

5.2.2 Twenty-one (39%) of the interviewees had made a definite decision to choose teaching as a career, representing the highest-scoring category of career choice reason. Fourteen (26%) interviewees had drifted into teaching, and seven (13%) had elected for teaching as, as it were, their second choice of career, being unable to pursue their original career choice. As stated the four categories were allocated on the basis of terms used by the teachers to describe their reason for entering the teaching profession. It could be argued, however, that the two categories of 'drifting' and 'second choice career' could well be amalgamated into one category as they share similar reasons, discussed later, as to why the individuals concerned finally became teachers. If the two categories are amalgamated, the number of teachers in the new category, twenty-one (39%), equals the number of teachers who had made a definite choice to teach. The fourth category of teachers, those who had previously had at least one start in
another profession or industry (one individual had made three previous career attempts) totalled twelve, representing 22% of the teachers interviewed.

5.2.3 More than half of the teachers who had made a definite decision to teach quantified their response either by stating that they had 'always' wanted to be a teacher, or by making a more exact statement such as 'since the age of five (or six or seven)' - three actual examples given, or 'since the 6th form' or 'since university'. Two teachers acknowledged that the fact that their parents had been teachers played an important part in their career decision. The remainder of the teachers within the definite choice category implied that their decision to become a teacher had been a long-term decision, but did not quantify any time or age as to when the decision had first been made.

5.2.4 The majority of the teachers who stated that they had drifted into teaching commented that they had done so due to the fact that they had failed to gain the requisite qualifications necessary for their proposed initial career choice. Some failed to obtain the required number and/or standard of 'A' levels necessary for University entrance, and chose, sometimes reluctantly, to enter teacher training college which, at the particular and relevant time, had a lower standard of entry requirement. Others in this category elected to train for teaching when failure to obtain a high standard degree prevented them from following their proposed choice of postgraduate research. Others, in the absence of any definite career choice, took advice from their school or their parents, or both, to commence studying for a teaching qualification.

5.2.5 Some individuals who had originally decided on a career other than teaching, but who were unable to commence that proposed career, also indicated
that lack of specific qualifications prevented them from undertaking their original
career choice. In half of such cases, the lack of qualifications was physical rather
than educational, as in the case of the individual who was barred from entering the
police force due to an unacceptable standard of eyesight. Other causes of not
entering the original choice of career included lack of funding deemed necessary
to finance further long periods of study in, for example, medical training. Two
individuals entered teaching solely to gain the experience necessary for their long-
term careers, as in the case of a potential educational psychologist, only to
abandon their original career choice and remain within teaching.

5.2.6 Of the twelve teachers who had worked in another profession or industry
before entering teaching, two-thirds had been employed outside of education for
between one to four years before entering teacher training, or entering directly into
teaching. The remaining third of this category had been employed outside of
education for between eight to ten years. Eight of these teachers had made a
definite choice, finally, to enter teaching, whilst the other four admitted that they
had drifted into teaching. If these numbers were to be added, respectively, to the
original definite choice total and the amalgamated drifted and second choice
career total, then there is a final total of twenty-nine (54%) teachers who made a
definite choice to teach, and twenty-five (46%) teachers who had drifted into the
profession. As Ball and Goodson (1985) reported, for many teachers their
decision to teach was a negative decision or a non decision.

5.2.7 If attention switches back to the original reasons for choosing teaching as a
career (as shown in the table) it can be seen that the reason given by each
individual teacher for choosing teaching as a career appeared to have had little
effect on how each individual career developed. Approximately one-third of those
who now were senior managers had made a definite decision to choose teaching as a career. Approximately one-third of those who were now classroom teachers had made a definite decision to choose teaching as a career. But of those who were aspiring to a senior management role half had made the same definite choice of teaching as a career. Forty per cent of those who were now senior managers had drifted into teaching, as had approximately twenty per cent of those who now were either aspirants to a senior manager role or who were classroom teachers.

5.2.8 If the figures in the table are then studied at a horizontal level rather that at a vertical level, it can again be seen that the original reason for choosing teaching as a career had little effect on future teaching career development. For each of the three reasons of definite decision to teach, drift into teaching, and second choice career, half of those in each category had become senior managers or were aspiring to such a role, whilst the other half in all the three categories had become classroom teachers. Only in the category of those for whom teaching was a second career can there be seen to be an effect on future career development. One quarter, only, for whom teaching was a second career had become senior managers or were aspiring to such a role. Three quarters of such decision makers had become classroom teachers. But individuals who have entered teaching as a second career are, almost by definition, older at time of entry into teaching than those who trained for teaching direct from school. This effect on career development can possibly be seen, therefore, as not solely a direct result of the reason for career choice. Other factors such as age, for example, may well be having an influence on the career development of those individuals who chose to enter teaching as a second career.
5.2.9 That the reason for career choice should have little effect on future career development should not perhaps be a cause of surprise. Zunker (1990) has stated that practically every career choice is tentative in that the individual has doubt concerning the credibility of the chosen career and whether it can be sustained across the lifetime period. Career possibilities alter due to factors such as changing economic conditions and the ever-increasing changes in technology. Furthermore, career choice involves not only choice but elimination. When a career choice is made and concentration centres on the chosen career, some interests and talents previously central to the individual are allowed to fall by the wayside.

5.2.10 Starting a career is a time of great change and, for most, is not the time to consider options within the career. Only when the individual has settled into the career, and discovered the validity and value of the various career options can decisions be made as to future career development. As Sikes (1985) found, young teachers under the age of thirty did not necessarily see themselves committed to a lifelong career in teaching, even those who had held a long-term ambition to teach.

5.2.11 For teachers who had decided on a life long career within teaching, such as the majority, if not all, of the teachers interviewed for this research, a number of factors, discussed below, can be seen to take effect in the teachers' career development decisions.
5.3 Career Planning Decisions

5.3.1 For those teachers who had become senior managers, a major factor in their success in reaching such a post was the decision early in their career that they needed to have, and to follow, a career plan. Hirsh and Jackson (1994) state that more employers are now expecting individual employees to take the major responsibility for their own career. For teachers, this research has shown that, to a large extent, this has always been the case. Unless the individual teacher has proactively managed his or her career, the possibilities of achieving success within the selected career option are greatly reduced, especially in cases where the management option has been selected. Six (60%) of the senior managers stated that they had made the decision to plan their career in order to endeavour to scale the hierarchical ladder towards a managerial position. The decision was generally made early in the teaching career. The terms 'quickly' and 'within two to three years of starting teaching' were given by the senior managers as the time scale within which the decision was reached. The senior managers were prompted towards the decision by the realisation that they wanted responsibility and/or the power to influence and effect change. Such characteristics, again cited by six (60%) of the senior managers, could only be gained and used within the management option.

5.3.2 Having a career plan was not essential for the obtainment of a senior management position. Three (30%) of the senior managers stated that they had not mapped out a career structure or career path. Two of these managers believed that they had been 'very lucky' or in 'the right place at the right time'. Hirsh and Jackson note that people who have been successful often comment on the effect that luck has played in their career. Hirsh and Jackson argue that this is true only
to the extent that it is not possible to plan a future career in every detail. Failure to plan is akin to planning to fail. It is necessary to have some goals in mind, and to be prepared to seek opportunities to move towards those goals.

5.3.3 It is worth noting in relation to career planning, however, that all senior managers who had reached the position of headteacher of a school were included in those senior managers who had developed and carried out a career plan. Not all senior managers with a career plan had yet reached a headteacher position, but no senior manager without a career plan had yet risen above the position of deputy headteacher.

5.3.4 Only one senior manager referred to career advice, and that in a negative sense, in that he had experienced a complete absence of such advice throughout his teaching career. The lack of such advice was a cause of regret for him.

5.3.5 Of those teachers aspiring to a senior management role, two (14%) stated that they had held career plans since the early part of their career, one aspirant stating that the career plan was prompted by the realisation that he wanted a position that involved responsibility. A further aspirant stated that only now was he looking seriously at his career, and another aspirant stated that he had achieved the initial part of his career plan but now realised that the plan was inadequate and that he had underachieved.

5.3.6 Four of the aspirants stated either that they had never had a career plan or that they had been negligent in organising the early part of their career. Together with the aspirant who had an inadequate career plan, this gave a total of five (36%) aspirants who regretted their lack of career organisation. Three (21%)
aspirants regretted the fact that they had either received no career advice whilst in
the teaching profession or else the advice they received had, in their opinion, been
poor or bad advice. These two groups together, and discounting the one aspirant
who featured in both groups, totalled seven (50%) of the aspirants, all of whom
considered that their career had been affected by lack of career planning or lack of
sound career advice.

5.3.7 Lyons (1981) found that only some of the teachers that he interviewed
were what he termed 'map makers' with a clearly conceived career map or career
timetable. Others had very short term objectives such as survival to, say, the end
of the school year, whilst others did not see themselves in any sort of competition
for promotion places.

5.3.8 The classroom teachers attitude to career plans varied from the attitude of
the senior managers and of the aspirants to senior manager roles. Only three
(10%) of the classroom teachers stated that they had a current career plan, and
these were all teachers who were at the very start of their teaching career with less
than three years of teaching experience. All three of these career plans were short-
term in nature, and did not extend beyond a maximum of the following three years
of teaching. Of the more experienced classroom teachers, four (13%) had had an
initial career plan, which they had achieved, but no longer had a career plan. Nine
(30%) classroom teachers stated that they had never had a career plan, making a
total of thirteen (43%) classroom teachers without any current career plan. Many
other classroom teachers made no statement concerning career plans, but the
impression given was that they had never had any form of career plan. Two
classroom teachers regretted the fact that they had either never received any

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advice concerning career options during their teaching career, or had received poor career advice.

5.3.9 Seven (13%) of the classroom teachers regretted the fact that they had either received no career advice prior to making their choice of career, or that the advice that they had received directed them to teaching without giving them information on possible alternative careers. Five of these seven were female, ex-grammar school pupils. They believed that they had literally been pushed into qualifying as teachers as teaching was, at the time, considered the correct thing to do for grammar school girls who were unlikely to qualify for university entrance. One teacher stated that she was still exceedingly bitter at her old school for the lack of all-round career advice received. Combining the two groups, and discounting where individuals appeared in both groups, gives a total of seventeen (57%) classroom teachers who either had had no career plan or had received no career guidance with reference to teaching and career options.

5.3.10 The lack of career advice discussed by the teachers has long been a matter of concern. Ranson and Ribbins (1988) refer to a Green Paper entitled *Education in Schools* published in 1977. The Green Paper stated that the school system is such that academic learning and academic careers are promoted, especially to the more able pupils, as more important and valuable than careers in trade and industry. Teachers lack experience, knowledge and understanding of trade and industry. Careers advice thus becomes a cycle, with teachers promoting teaching to pupils who become teachers themselves who can, in turn, only promote teaching to their pupils. The lack of knowledge of careers and career options within the teaching profession is shown by the comments of a number of teachers, including one deputy headteacher, who stated that they would appreciate advice
about career options even at this stage of their career, but that they had no idea as to where they could obtain relevant career advice.

5.3.11 This lack of knowledge of careers and career planning is illustrated by two examples from the experience of the author who, prior to studying for a degree and then commencing this research, owned and managed an employment consultancy. Firstly, on a number of occasions the author was invited to schools to speak to pupils in their GCSE year on the subject of careers, applications for employment or university, preparation of curriculum vitae, and job interviews. At every talk, given each time to approximately one hundred pupils, a number of teachers attended the talk to ensure that pupil discipline was of the required standard. Without exception, the author noted that as much attention, if not more, was paid to the talk by the teachers as by the pupils, and the teachers were always keen to continue discussions in private afterwards. The common theme from the teachers was that at no point in their training had any information been supplied to them concerning careers and career planning, and their expertise in these areas, and in how to apply for jobs, was extremely limited.

5.3.12 The second example concerns two teachers known to the author. One teacher was applying for deputy headteacher positions, while the other was already a deputy headteacher and was applying for headships. In both cases the teachers were gaining interviews, but were not being successful at the interview stage. The author was requested, separately, by each teacher to advise on interview technique. It was most apparent that neither teacher had even a basic understanding of the skills and conduct necessary for a successful interview to take place. The lack of basic career skills was preventing two teachers from obtaining posts for which they otherwise appeared to be eminently qualified.
5.4 Remaining Too Long in One School

5.4.1 The lack of career planning and available career advice is illustrated in that a total of nineteen teachers (35% of all the teachers interviewed) referred to the fact that they had remained in a particular school for too long a period of time. All nineteen teachers considered, in hindsight, that the overlong stay at one school had been detrimental to their career prospects. Jones (1994) pointed out the danger of staying with one organisation for so long that the individual ends up being taken for granted. When the decision to leave is finally taken, it then becomes extremely difficult to sever the links.

5.4.2 Five (50%) of the senior managers considered that they had stayed too long in one school. None of these five was a headteacher but at least three were still actively applying for headteacher posts although they believed that their narrow experience was counting against them. Particularly cited by these senior managers were failure to gain experience of teaching and managing 6th forms. All the senior teachers who were headteachers had moved school a number of times, always building up and extending their experience. Two (20%) of the senior managers stated that they were not risk takers with their career and regretted not taking more chances and changes when they were younger. Three (30%) of the senior managers now placed geographical limits on any move that they would make in order that they would not have to uproot their family.

5.4.3 Eight (57%) of the aspirants cited failure to move on from a school as a major reason why they were still attempting to reach their goal of a senior
manager's role rather than having accomplished such status earlier in their career.

Amongst the reasons cited by the aspirants for not moving school were:

'looking after the job and not himself'

'not being assertive enough'

'aware of the need to change school but did not action the need'

'taking the easy option - cosy with life'

5.4.4 Four (29%) of the aspirants stated that contributing to the reason that they had not moved school was the fact that they had imposed a geographical limitation on jobs they would apply for, due to not wishing to impose a house and area move on their family.

5.4.5 Remaining in one school had not proved to be the handicap to the classroom teachers, in general, that it was to the senior managers and to the aspirants to a senior management role. Many of the classroom teachers were not seeking promotion and had no great desire for any change of school. Others were seeking promotion and six (20%) classroom teachers stated that staying too long in one school had affected their promotion prospects. All six teachers would have liked to climb the hierarchical ladder towards a management post, but believed that reaching such a post was now beyond them. Seven (23%) of the classroom teachers were not prepared to move their residential location and would not apply for any posts beyond commuting distance from their present locality.

5.4.6 Four (13%) of these seven teachers were females who had been successful in climbing the career ladder in the initial part of their career. Having a family, and in some cases a career break, had resulted in a change of attitude towards their teaching career. As one teacher stated 'I now do not have a career plan, if career
is considered moving up the hierarchical ladder. I have been there, seen it, done it, and did not like it.' Ball and Goodson (1985) state that the commonly held concept of a career as a commitment to promotion and professional development over a long-term timescale is not relevant to all teachers. O'Neil et al (1980) identified familial factors as one of six general factors that influenced career development. Nias (1989), in her study of primary school teachers, found that many of the teachers that she interviewed, especially women, no longer considered their career to be the aim of vertical mobility. Instead they had redefined their career to centre around personal interest, and relished the freedom which classroom teaching gave them.

5.5 Rapid Early Promotion

5.5.1 Sikes (1985) states that in the 1960s and 1970s frequent and regular promotions were common for young teachers. Such rapid early promotion had varying effects on the careers of the teachers interviewed for this research. For some, rapidly receiving a number of promotions stimulated them to strive for, and to obtain, a senior management role. For others, obtaining comparatively easily gained promotions early in their career proved, in the long term, to have a negative effect on their career. They came to expect that the run of promotions would continue without the need of additional effort on their behalf, and by the time it was realised that this was not the case it was, as detailed by some of the teachers, too late to revitalise the career. As one aspirant to a senior manager's role stated 'I wanted to progress in my career. I was promoted rapidly over the first five years, but then promotions became blocked and I lost control of my career.'
5.5.2 Four (40%) of the senior managers stated that rapid early promotion had helped convince them that a career in management was a possibility that could be achieved. Four (29%) of the aspirants stated that they had received rapid early promotion, but all four also stated that the rapid early promotion meant that they had remained at one school for too long a period. Short term ambitions were satisfied and staying in the one school was comfortable. In general, all four considered that they had underachieved in their career, and not one of the four was now confident of securing the original ambition of a senior manager's role.

5.5.3 Eight (27%) of the classroom teachers stated that rapid early promotion had been a factor in their career. Four (13%) of these believed that such promotion had been a factor in their remaining at one school, and thus a factor in their being sidelined in the system and not achieving the career level of which they were capable.

5.6 Status of Subject

5.6.1 A further factor in career planning, but more of an involuntary factor than the factors discussed previously, is the status of the subject taught. Bennet (1985) states that there is a status hierarchy of school subjects which favours the academic subjects over the more practical subjects such as Art, Design and Technology, and Physical Education. Teachers of the practical subjects are, by extension, thought of as lower status than teachers of academic subjects. Consequently, teachers of practical subjects have less possibility of career promotions. That teachers of practical subjects are not totally blocked from obtaining promotion up the hierarchical ladder is demonstrated by the fact that one of the senior managers interviewed for this research was a Physical Education
specialist whilst two aspirants for a senior manager's role specialised, respectively, in Art and in Design and Technology. Nevertheless five (9%) of all the teachers interviewed considered that their subject, in each case a practical subject, had been a disadvantage in their career. The five teachers consisted of four classroom teachers and one of the aforementioned aspirants to a senior manager role. Each of the five had wanted promotion and a senior management role. Normally in schools, practical subjects form comparatively small departments with only a limited number of staff and, thus, initial promotion prospects are also limited. Even if initial promotion is obtained, the problem of the low status subject continues. The aspirant for a senior manager's role, who teaches Art, has been unsuccessful in a number of applications for a position of deputy headteacher. He has, as he described it, 'made a big push for Deputy Head posts' and can only put his lack of success down to the low status of his subject.

5.6.2 It must be pointed out that not all teachers of so-called low status subjects believed that their subject had been a handicap in their career and that their subject had prevented them from obtaining promotion, but, again, not all such teachers had indeed sought to gain promotion.

5.7 Conclusion

5.7.1 It has been demonstrated that people enter teaching for varying reasons, and with little knowledge, if any, of the career structures involved in the profession. Some teachers made their career choice at a very early age, whilst still aged in single figures. Career and/or development theorists such as Levinson et al (1978), Sikes (1985), Parsons (1909,) and Holland (1973, 1985) pay no attention to this very early choice of career. Yet very early choice of career is also
demonstrated by some of the midwives and nurses interviewed for this research (see Chapter 11). Very early career choice, and why the individual stays faithful to that choice, would appear to be a neglected area of research.

5.7.2 Other teachers, perhaps more conventionally, made their career choice whilst in their adolescence or aged in their early twenties. This falls in line with the findings of Levinson, but the acknowledgement that, in many cases, career choice was influenced by factors such as the individual’s parents or teachers is contrary to Parsons (1909) theory of rational judgement and Holland’s (1973,1985) trait-factor theory.

5.7.3 Having chosen teaching as a career, and then commenced the career, the teachers interviewed for this research tended to agree with the propositions of Ginzberg (1972) and Super (1984) that career development and career choice was the result of a process rather than a one-off event. Those most successful in climbing the management career ladder decided very early in their career, within two to three years of starting the career, that they wished to become senior managers. This is, again, a contrary finding to those of Levinson (1971) and Sikes (1985) who believe that the first few years of the career are simply a ‘settling-in’ period.

5.7.4 Many of the aspirants to senior management, and many of the classroom teachers, however, as shown earlier in this chapter, had had no specific initial or early career plans, confirming the findings of Levinson (1971) and Sikes (1985), and of Lyons (1981). Indeed, many teachers did not formulate a career plan throughout the length of their career, a fact that in hindsight they blamed for their lack of career progression. Evidence of lack of career planning can be seen in
those who received rapid early promotion and took this to mean that further promotions were guaranteed them. Hall (1976) found that early experiences of success in the career facilitates commitment and involvement in the career and sets the scene for later career success. Whilst this undoubtedly was true for some of the teachers interviewed, for others their reaction was opposite to that proposed by Hall.

5.7.5 Reflection on the lack of career planning by many of the teachers involved in the research leads to the recommendation that teacher training should include time spent on career planning skills. This would enable teachers to adopt a more professional approach to their career, and would assist in future decision making concerning their career and career options, choice of appointments for which to apply, and an increase in interview skills. In turn, when such teachers become members of interview panels, selection procedures and the quality of appointments made would likely increase, leading to higher performance and higher morale on the part of teachers. In addition, teachers would be more qualified to assist their pupils when the pupils need to make decisions about their own careers.
6.0 HAVING A MENTOR

6.1 Introduction

6.1.1 The previous chapter, on career planning, indicated that most teachers entered teaching without a career plan. Nevertheless, it was demonstrated, by those who are now senior managers, that a major factor in the successful climb up the hierarchical ladder, was their decision early in their career that they needed to have, and to follow, a career plan. Realisation of the necessity of a career plan often came as a result of advice from a mentor. Having a mentor is the second factor to be examined in detail, having been identified (see Chapter 4) as having an affect on teachers’ career options.

6.2 Mentoring

6.2.1 The term 'mentoring' derives from Greek mythology, but Bolam et al (1995) state that its current usage dates from the 1970s when companies began to formalise the processes of induction and development of newcomers. Gibb (1994) defines a mentor as 'an accomplished and experienced performer who takes a special, personal interest in helping to guide and develop a junior or more inexperienced person'. (p. 32). Gray (1991) describes the mentor role as encapsulating the roles of teacher, counsellor, negotiator, supervisor, entertainer and coach, whilst Levinson et al (1978) state that the mentor relationship is complex yet developmentally important, with the mentor usually being older,
more experienced and more senior than the mentee. Many of the teachers interviewed for this research had benefited from receiving the advice of such an older person, often the head of the school in which they were first employed, and acknowledged the fundamental effect that that person had made to their career.

6.3 Mentoring in Schools

6.3.1 In both America and Great Britain mentoring is now being used in the support of the newly qualified teacher. In England and Wales, with the increased involvement of schools in initial teacher education, initial teacher training of secondary school teachers now involves student teachers being trained and supported by a teacher mentor. Since 1992 further mentoring support is given during the first year of employment. This follows from the Education (Teachers) (Amendment) Regulations of 1992 which abolished the probationary year for teachers and granted, instead, the status of newly qualified teacher (NQT). Funding was provided for the support of NQTs within schools. One person, be it the head or a teacher appointed by the head, was to be responsible for the development of the NQT during the induction period of one school year. The first year of a teacher’s career is likely to shape his or her entire career, according to Reid et al (1988), and thus it is important that new teachers are correctly advised, guided, trained and encouraged throughout the first year of teaching. Cross (1995) states that research has shown that there are three main functions of mentoring: the transition of formal knowledge and skills, the initiation of the mentee into the rules, values and ethics of the particular profession and organisation, and the building of the confidence and development of the mentee. However, for a NQT to be successfully inducted into a school, support must come not solely from the mentor but from all the teachers, the governors and the Local
Education Authority. This support must come in terms of both time and money. Selection and matching of mentor and mentee is of vital importance. Haigh (1996) has noted that new teachers are given a solid basis for their individual development by the provision of well-designed induction programmes. Such programmes will include a named and trained mentor and a planned and effective mentoring programme. Haigh adds, however, that whilst mentors typically were very senior teachers, it is increasingly becoming the case that newly qualified teachers are being allocated mentors whose experience is much closer in age to the experience of the mentee.

6.3.2 Vonk (1993) states that the aim of initial teacher training, described as the pre-professional phase, is to develop teachers' starting competencies, whilst the aim of induction, described as both the threshold phase and the phase of growing into the profession, is to help starting teachers to develop a professional identity and lay a foundation for their continuing professional development throughout their career. Vonk goes on to state that in many European countries the relationship between training institutions and schools in the education and training of teachers is changing. Initial teacher training of a theoretical basis by institutes of higher education is being replaced by more practical training on the job in schools. Although this eradicates the gap between theory and practice it will not improve the standard of teachers and teaching without the use of trained mentors who are able to provide a professional knowledge base for the newly qualified teacher. Most of initial teacher training is now school-based and as a result of this change there has been renewed interest in the concept of mentoring.
6.3.3 The importance that is nowadays attached in education to the process of mentoring is further illustrated by the fact that the British Government in 1992 initiated a pilot mentoring scheme for new headteachers through the School Management Task Force, in order to promote better school management and headteacher training. Funding provided by the Government covered five days training for both mentors and mentees plus release time for the mentoring process itself. Bolam et al (1995) analysed selective findings from two data sets obtained from mentors and mentees who had taken part in the pilot scheme. Three hundred and three (68%) mentors and two hundred and thirty-eight (65%) new headteachers from all types of school - primary, middle, secondary, and special - responded to a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was on the training, selection and matching of mentors and mentees, and on the perceived impact of mentoring. Sixteen pairs of successful mentors and new headteachers from a range of schools (as reported in their responses to the questionnaire) were individually interviewed to ascertain the perceptions of the main features of successful mentoring relationships and processes. Bolam et al reported that a large majority of those taking part in the mentoring scheme considered it to be very successful and worthwhile, and that the scheme should be established on a permanent basis. Even within a formal scheme such as this the new headteachers reported, as one of the most frequently cited benefits, that the relationship between mentor and mentee was based on an informal/friendly basis. According to Clutterbuck (1994) issues discussed involve how to manage a business, how to deal with people problems and how to obtain resources from the Local Education Authority.
6.4 Formal/Informal Mentoring

6.4.1 Garvey (1994) created a model of the dimensions involved in a mentoring relationship. The dimensions were open/closed, public/private, formal/informal, active/passive, and stable/unstable and the elements could be described as points on a continuum. Garvey described a formal mentoring relationship as one in which the relationship's existence and management are formalised, with ground rules likely to be established. The relationship may well be part of an official mentoring scheme within an organisation. Neither the content of the relationship or the behaviour of the parties in the relationship is necessarily formal. In an informal mentoring relationship, management of the relationship is much more casual. Informality is used in describing the structure and organisation of the partnership rather than its contents and behaviour. Clutterbuck (1994) states that mentoring tends to be most effective in helping people deal with career transitions, but that informal mentoring may not necessarily be to the advantage of the organisation. Gehrke and Kay (1984) reported that the majority of teachers they interviewed who had experienced a mentoring relationship stated that the relationship was voluntary rather than assigned. Levinson et al (1978) found that the adult development of men was enhanced by intense mentoring relationships, but that these relationships were more likely to be informal rather than formal relationships. ap Thomas (1994) reported on a group of thirty teachers taking a part-time in-service course for a Certificate in Management Education. Each teacher chose and used a mentor in their work place to assist them in making connections between the content of the course and their management activity in school. Each mentor relationship developed informally, and the mentors saw themselves as having a moral responsibility towards their mentee rather than having a line manager responsibility. Clutterbuck (1994) states that until recently
mentoring was not an organised process, and whether one obtained a mentor or not was a matter of luck. Only in recent years has there been a formalisation of mentoring relationships, to the extent that one-third of large United Kingdom companies have investigated or applied formal mentoring. Clutterbuck (1991) argues that companies should choose mentors both for their commitment to the mentoring programme and for their communication skills, and goes on to state that 'every volunteer mentor is worth a dozen press-ganged' (p. 35). Furthermore, true mentoring relationships develop naturally, and relationships that are pre-arranged, as in most formal schemes, tend not to flourish nor have the quality of natural relationships.

6.4.2 McNally (1994) states that mentoring schemes have been operated successfully by many American companies since the 1970s. Young managers gain many benefits by having a mentor including a smooth transition into the work environment and protection from feelings of isolation, whilst the mentors also gain through personal development, increased job satisfaction and seeing their organisation through a new perspective. However, Clutterbuck (1991) found that mentoring schemes focused more company resources on the younger managers selected for such schemes than on non-selected colleagues, and, in addition, chose to select potential high-fliers for such schemes thus enabling those selected to become additionally advantaged. The influence of corporate politics on mentoring schemes was looked on unfavourably by some companies. Jacobi (1991) argues that in formal mentoring schemes special experiences afforded to the mentee may be responsible for success achieved by the mentee rather than the mentoring relationship itself.
6.5 Mentoring Value and Mentoring Training

6.5.1 Gibb (1994) states that evaluation of the effects of mentoring is difficult, and that using people as mentors who are not experts in the development of people has a debatable value. Zey (1989) researched mentoring practices in over one hundred top American Companies and concluded that successful mentoring is dependant on the initial training given to both mentors and mentees. Kram and Bragar (1991) believe that implementing a mentoring programme without adequate training is not effective, whilst Philip-Jones (1989) believes that three of the most common problems in planned mentoring programmes are: the assumption that anyone can mentor, lack of qualified mentors, and lack of training for mentees. Gay (1994) states that mentoring is concerned with the development of individuals and not with cloning of mentors. Lee and Walker (1995) proposed that there is no one route into mentoring. Teachers they encountered in their research became mentors by choice, or by chance, or by nomination by senior colleagues. Menter and Whitehead (1995) found that the majority of senior mentors of student teachers on teaching experience in primary and secondary schools had taught for more than ten years with fifty per cent having taught for more than twenty years. A Hampshire Country Council document (1993) states that a mentor must be an effective and credible practitioner with good interpersonal skills and must be a good manager. Cross (1995) states that a successful relationship between the mentor and mentee depends on similar personalities and sense of humour rather than on similar age or same gender. Jayne (1995) believes that where possible mentees should be allowed to select their own mentor. Merriam (1983) argues that the crucial characteristic of mentoring is that the partners in the mentoring relationship like each other and want to work together.
6.6 Time/Work Overload

6.6.1 McNally (1994) states that adding the role of a mentor to a senior employee who is already overloaded with work is not the way to develop newcomers to a profession or organisation. On the contrary, such a method is bound to fail. Without sympathetic support mentoring will break down at the interpersonal level. Garvey (1995) questioned both health service mentees who had just finished a two-year MBA course and their mentors during the time period of the course, and discovered that the biggest concern of the mentors when taking on the role was the time commitment that would be required. Sixty-three per cent of the mentors stated that this had been their major worry at the start of the course, and although by the end of the course this figure had been somewhat reduced, still forty-five per cent of the mentors reported that time pressure had been a serious problem affecting the mentoring relationship. Bolam et al (1995) in their study of headteacher mentoring found that thirty-six per cent of mentors reported that the major problem in the mentoring relationship was finding sufficient time for the process, but of the mentees a lesser figure of twenty-five per cent had time difficulties. This is perhaps not surprising as in a mentoring relationship it is the mentee who would appear to have more to gain. Relf (1995) argues that mentorship in teacher education refers solely to the needs of the new teacher and ignores the school in which the teacher is employed, and its pupils. The mentor, however, is almost certainly a practising teacher in that self-same school and is contractually obliged to put the requirements of the school and the pupils at the forefront. Kerry and Farrow (1995) also refer to the first responsibility of the mentor being to the pupils of the school rather than to the mentee. Mentoring, they state, is demanding both in the necessary skills to be a good mentor and the
time that a mentoring relationship requires. The assumption that having the 
ability to teach a subject is the same as having the ability to teach someone to 
teach is false. Fullan (1993) considered that the move to school-based training 
ignored, to all intents and purposes, the weaknesses of the existing knowledge­
base and vastly underestimated the difficulties of selecting, training and 
supporting skilled mentors. For all the good intentions that may underlie a formal 
mentoring scheme, mentoring relationships will not be successful without 
adequate time and effort being given to the relationship by both the mentor and 
the mentee. If, particularly on the part of the mentor, mentoring is looked on as 
yet another time-consuming job in an already overloaded schedule, then the 
formal relationship will founder. The problems of teacher work overload has been 
discussed in more detail in Chapter 10 of this thesis. Adding a further job, 
mentoring, to an overburdened schedule is a recipe for disaster.

6.7 Professional Development

6.7.1 Brighouse and Moon (1995) state that mentoring can contribute strongly to 
the continuing professional development of teachers, particularly for older 
teachers with no other administration duties. Clutterbuck (1991) refers to 
companies that have realised that, at management level particularly, benefits to 
both the individual and the organisation will accrue when a senior manager tutors 
junior managers. O'Brien (1995) states that mentoring is located within the 
mainstream of line management of an organisation with its focus on both 
individual and organisational interests. Cameron-Jones (1993) argues that the 
distinctiveness of mentoring is contained in its personal aspect which is in 
addition to its professional aspect. What differentiates a mentoring role and 
relationship from other roles and relationships is the involvement of the mentor in
the personal growth of the mentee as well as in the mentee's professional growth. Vonk (1993) believes that the professional development of both the mentor and the mentee is increased in a mentoring relationship. Roche (1979) found that executives with mentors were happier with their career progress than executives without mentors, and also took more pleasure from their work. The process of guiding and developing new and beginning teachers is described by Reid et al (1988) as being an important part of school staff development and managerial programmes, and a process at which some heads are better equipped to deal with than others.

6.8 Research Findings

6.8.1 In general, the teachers interviewed in this research had entered the profession for one of four reasons. Either they had dreamt of being a teacher since their early schooldays, or they drifted into teaching almost as a last resort being unable to think of anything else to do, or teaching was their second choice career, or teaching was their second career. For many of the teachers now aged in their forties the reason for going to teachers training college was simply to go to college. Under the higher education conditions existing at that time they had failed to gain good enough 'A' levels to enter university, but still wished to get away from home. Teachers training college provided a solution. Often, even after three years of training and the gaining of a teaching qualification, there was no real commitment to teaching or the teaching profession. But teaching for them did, by then, provide probably the best opportunity for reasonably well-paid employment. However, the initial reason for entering the teaching profession proved to have little effect on future individual teaching careers. Many of those who dreamt of teaching as a career and wanted to become a headteacher found
that in reality what they enjoyed was teaching itself and so chose not to progress up the managerial ladder. Others who qualified as teachers and took a teaching post as they could find nothing better career-wise, ended up as headteachers or deputy headteachers. Often the factor in this change from teaching to management was the headteacher of the school in which they were first employed. The headteacher recognised in the teacher a talent of which the teacher himself or herself was unaware. The headteacher encouraged initial promotion within the school and, later, further promotion to another school. Frequently the teacher and the first headteacher remained in contact. The headteacher was acting, in today's terms, as a mentor, albeit in an informal manner.

6.8.2 Four (40%) of the teachers who had reached a senior management position and seven (50%) of those aspiring to a senior management role credited as a significant factor in their career the fact that they had had a mentor to guide them on their career path. Those in a senior management role spoke, without exception, of the positive contribution the mentor had made to their thinking on career direction and how the mentor had contributed to their career success. Almost all the aspirants to a senior management role echoed these comments, but there were two exceptions and for very differing reasons. One aspirant had chosen to ignore the advice of his mentor, for family rather than career reasons. He did believe at the time the advice was given, and still believed now, that the advice was correct. As a result of not taking the advice, the teacher in question considered it unlikely that he would achieve his career ambitions. A second aspirant to a senior management role was the only teacher who believed that a mentor had had a negative influence on his career. Advice received and acted upon had led his career into a corner from which it was unlikely that he would be able to extricate himself. Even in this case the teacher acknowledged that the mentor's
contribution was by no means the sole reason for the probable plateauing of his career.

6.8.3 Of those teachers who had chosen to remain classroom based, only five (17%) referred to the influence of a mentor in their career and all were positive about their mentor's contribution. Those teachers who either aspired to a senior management role or had reached such a role, remembered the contribution of their mentor solely in terms of career direction. The classroom based teachers attributed mentorial guidance evenly between career direction and advice on teaching and teaching competencies. The guidance on career direction was to female teachers who, at the time the advice was given, were seeking to climb the managerial ladder. They acknowledged that the mentor had contributed to their rising some way up the ladder. One, however, had made the decision to take a career break in order to raise a family, and on her return to teaching had decided to forsake possible senior managerial status and to remain within the classroom for the remainder of her career. Another was a late entrant to teaching who, through taking the advice given, had risen to a post of special responsibility but who would, through age and family factors, always remain classroom based. Guidance on teaching and teaching competencies was given to and remembered by those teachers who either fully intended to remain classroom based for their entire teaching career, or who admitted that they had struggled to be a competent teacher in their early working days.
6.9 Conclusion

6.9.1 Sixteen (30%) of all the teachers interviewed mentioned the influence of a mentor on either their teaching practice or their teaching career, with the figure rising to nearly fifty per cent if one considers only those in senior management roles and those who aspire to such a role. Yet the question of mentoring or having a mentor was not directly posed to the interviewees. The information was volunteered when the interviewees were asked to detail their career or to describe the success factors in their career. It is a fair possibility, therefore, that asking a direct question concerning mentoring might well have produced an even higher response than the positive incidental factor recorded. Preliminary discussions prior to the construction of the Structured Interview (see Chapters 1 and 4) did not reveal the importance of the topic of mentoring, although the author accepts that indirect references to mentoring may not have been noted. Once the Structure Interview programme commenced references to mentoring, both direct and indirect references, were noted. In order to maintain consistency and validity, the Structured Interview was not expanded to include a question on mentoring. The research demonstrates, however, that the importance and value of mentoring in education should not be ignored.

6.9.2 At the time that the teachers interviewed in this research commenced their teaching careers the term 'mentoring' was not in popular usage, certainly not in education circles. Nevertheless the concept did apply and many of the teachers used the term to describe a person who had been an important influence in their career. Others used terms that implied the concept such as 'I was his protégé'. All the teachers had served a probationary year following university and/or teachers training college before being granted full qualified teacher status. During that
probationary year, and to an extent dependent on the ethos of the school where they were employed, some of the teachers would have come under the care and supervision of an older, experienced teacher in respect of teaching and classroom skills. Others would have been left to struggle alone. But whether there was formal guidance or not, the impact of mentoring for the teachers appeared to be of significance almost entirely in respect of career direction. This is not altogether surprising. In most cases the teachers were recollecting events of fifteen to twenty-five years ago. Realising the direction one wants one's future career to lead, or gaining a career promotion, represents a major event in a person's life. The circumstances surrounding such an event, and the person or people involved, are much more likely to be retained in memory than the acquiring of, or subtle tuning of, professional skills. Where the teachers did mention a mentor figure they all implied that the mentoring relationship was on an informal basis, thus confirming the findings of Levinson et al (1978), Gehrke and Kay (1984) and Clutterbuck (1991). Although some of the teachers stated that they remained in contact with their mentor over a long period of time, they implied that the mentoring relationship was mainly, if not entirely, concerned with career direction and career moves, and was based around the early years of the teaching career.

6.9.3 What does need to be considered is whether the formal mentoring schemes now introduced within schools will have the same influence on, and success for, new teachers as the informal arrangements that have existed within schools over at least the last few decades. Whether, indeed, the formal and informal arrangements could, and perhaps should, co-exist together. There would appear to be an argument that formal mentoring as it is today in schools is primarily concerned with induction to the new school and nourishment of teaching and classroom skills, (Cross, 1995 and Haigh, 1996), whilst informal mentoring is more
concerned with career direction. There is no question that formal mentoring schemes are a valuable addition to the school training curriculum, but there does exist a danger that headteachers and deputy headteachers, who have in the past been the main sources of informal mentoring, may abdicate their role as directors of careers of young teachers in the belief that this role will be the responsibility of, and undertaken by, the appointed mentor. As stated in the main body of this chapter, adding the mentoring role to a senior employee who is already overloaded with work is not the way to develop newcomers to a profession or organisation, (McNally, 1994 and Bolam et al, 1995). There is a movement to pass the mentoring role to either an older, experienced teacher with no other administrative duties, or to a much younger teacher who is close to the age of the mentee. In both cases it would appear to be a question of passing on an additional unwanted job to a junior colleague, in hierarchical terms, who is not in a position to refuse the order, and, possibly, not in a situation of being able to give good, valid advice. Mentoring under such circumstances, certainly in respect of career direction, will not be of a high standard. In addition, it has been shown that imposed and formal mentoring relationships do not have the success of voluntary informal relationships.

6.9.4 In conclusion it can be stated that the process of mentoring has been a valuable influence on many young teachers. Many of the teachers who participated in this research programme referred to successful mentoring relationships and to the help and assistance they had obtained from that relationship. The value of informal mentoring has been acknowledged by the introduction of formal mentoring schemes into schools. There is, however, the possibility that the vigour and impetus that occurs in informal mentoring relationships may not transfer to the formal mentoring schemes, especially if the
mentor and mentee are not compatible, or if either is not fully committed to a mentoring relationship. Furthermore, senior teachers who, usually, have acted as informal and successful mentors may now refrain from so doing for fear of intruding in a formal mentoring relationship.
7.0 CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

7.1 Introduction

7.1.1 Whether or not a teacher has consciously made the decision to plan his or her career, and whether or not the decision was made with the guidance of a mentor, the future of the career is dependant on the amount of attention paid by the teacher to his or her continuing professional development (CPD). This chapter looks at the concept of CPD, at how the teaching profession relates to the concept, and the affect of CPD on the careers of the teachers taking part in the research. CPD is the third factor to be examined in detail, having been identified (see Chapter 4) as having an affect on teachers' career options.

7.2 Individual and Organisational Development

7.2.1 Hirsh (1994) states that over the past fifty years an important model of a career has been that of a vertical progression within a major employing organisation. Employees received security, status and financial benefits in exchange for their loyalty and acceptance of the jobs on offer. The mutual needs of individuals and organisations were met, and a long-term psychological contract (Schein, 1988) existed. Latterly, organisations have stopped accepting responsibility for lifelong careers and, with the loss of effective job security, employees believe they cannot entrust the organisation to look after their careers. Responsibility for career development has moved from the organisation to the
individual. The need, as stated by Spurling (1995), is for individuals to develop flexible careers which are sustained by continuous learning.

7.2.2 Sir Christopher Ball (1994), the Chairman of the National Advisory Council for Careers and Educational Guidance, states that it is widely recognised that learning pays nations, companies and individuals. Learning provides economic, social and personal benefits, many of which have a monetary value, in a world that rewards learning. From this recognition there has arisen the idea of a learning society aiming at lifelong learning for all, together with the realisation that learning and work are not separate entities but are closely linked.

7.2.3 Continuing professional development (CPD) is a key element of lifelong learning, and its central aims are to contribute to business performance and to enhance individual career prospects. The concept of CPD is defined by Tomlinson (1993) as 'the systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for the execution of professional, managerial and technical duties throughout one's working life.' (p. 231).

7.2.4 Bailey (1994) has stated that true CPD enables professionals to remain up-to-date with knowledge, opinions, concepts, technology, and influences that can only be good for business in today's demanding and changing world. CPD enables the company to maximise the knowledge and skills acquired by its members, in order to gain success for the organisation.
7.3 Professional Bodies and CPD

7.3.1 Many professional bodies are insisting on CPD as a prerequisite of membership. The policy of the Institute of Personnel and Development (formed by the merger of the Institute of Personnel Management and the Institute of Training and Development) is that CPD is a central part of the Institute's philosophy and is a requirement for all corporate Members. Since 1 July 1996 the Institute has been surveying the CPD activity of its members, with those seeking to upgrade their status to that of Member and of Fellow being required to demonstrate CPD activity over previous years.

7.3.2 The Engineering Council, which represents forty-six professional institutions with a total of over 290,000 members, aims to promote CPD so that it contributes to business performance, individual career advancement, the image of the profession, and international competitiveness. Every engineer and technician is required to develop and maintain a high level of competence throughout his/her career taking into account changes in technology and business practice. He/she is responsible for taking appropriate action to update and develop knowledge and skills relevant to his/her current job and career path, and to anticipate future requirements.

7.3.3 The Chartered Insurance Institute requires all of its chartered membership to undertake a programme of CPD as an integral part of each individual's overall professional development. From 1 January, 1996 all Chartered Insurers and Chartered Insurance Practitioners have had to complete the CPD requirement of the Institute in order to continue to hold the Chartered title. The designatory letters FCII or ACII are not affected by the requirement.
7.3.4 The Law Society introduced a compulsory continuing education scheme for newly qualified solicitors in 1985. In November 1992 a new CPD scheme came into effect which, in two phases, extended the concept and practice of CPD to the whole profession. The first phase took effect on 1 November 1994 and applied to solicitors admitted on or after 1 November 1982. From 1 November 1998 all solicitors will be required to undertake and record CPD activities. The Law Society states that solicitors already update their knowledge in new and changing areas of law. CPD further enables solicitors to learn new professional and management skills, develop existing areas of expertise and skill, meet the changing demands of client and society, improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the profession, and plan career development. Solicitors are free to choose the subjects relevant to their individual needs. The Law Society recommends, however, that twenty-five per cent of the requirement is by management/skills based training. Twenty-five per cent of the requirement must be gained by attendance at courses accredited by the Law Society.

7.3.5 The Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales refer to Continuing Professional Education (CPE) rather than to CPD when stating that its members must constantly be up-dating their knowledge and skills in order to maintain their professional competence in the ever-changing technical and professional environment of the Chartered Accountant. The Institute requires that all members demonstrate a commitment to CPE. For four specific groups of members it is compulsory that they meet the guidelines on CPE set down by the Institute. The compulsory categories are those seeking Entitlement to Practise, those applying for Fellowship, those supervising training in Training Organisations and Post Qualification Training Organisations authorised by the
Institute, those working in the Reserved Areas of Audit, Investment Business and Insolvency.

7.3.6 The Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors has introduced obligatory CPD for all its members, together with the monitoring of CPD compliance, particularly on transfer to Fellowship. The United Kingdom Central Council (UKCC), the statutory regulatory body for 639,000 nurses, midwives and health visitors in the United Kingdom, introduced on 1st April, 1995 a statutory requirement for CPD which applies to every member re-registering. Registration is a requirement for professional practice in the United Kingdom and members are required to re-register every three years.

7.3.7 Other professional bodies have introduced CPD schemes, but have recommended the process to their members rather than make it compulsory. The two leading bodies of the Information Technology/Information Services (IT/IS) industry, the British Computer Society and the Institute for Data Processing Management have launched a national non-compulsory CPD programme for IT/IS professionals. The launch follows the successful completion of a joint scheme by the two professional bodies which operated on a regional basis. The Institute of Management advocates a voluntary CPD programme, but states that continuance of the development of professional knowledge and competence throughout working life is crucial, and the Institute has supported its members in this key area since its foundation.

7.3.8 All the professional bodies have their own guidelines with regard to the number of hours their members should undertake per year on CPD; whether the CPD should be structured (defined as demanding and entailing involvement with
other persons) or unstructured (less demanding and predominately self-managed); and whether the CPD should totally involve skills directly relating to the particular profession or should include elements of managerial or other non-directly related skills. All professions agree that what is most important with regard to CPD is the outcome(s) gained by the individual. CPD is meaningful only when it facilitates the genuine development of an individual in a planned and structured manner. Amassing hours or points of CPD activity in an attempt to satisfy an annual registration requirement is, in itself, not sufficient to satisfy that requirement.

7.3.9 Many other professional bodies, in addition to those mentioned above, have similar requirements of their members, either for compulsory or recommended CPD schemes. CPD has become an important issue for the professions.

7.4 Teaching and Professional Development

7.4.1 Professional development within the teaching profession differs from most other professions in that it is employer driven, i.e. by the Government, rather than being driven by the profession itself. This is due to teacher development being inextricably linked with school development. Bell (1991) argues that the development process within schools caters for the individual teacher and, also, for the policy needs of the whole school. However, individual teachers, headteachers and senior staff, local education authorities, and the Department of Education and Science (now the Department for Education and Employment) have varying perceptions of the nature and provision of teacher professional development. Bell details a number of approaches, both individual and group, to the professional
development of teachers, and states that, until the mid-1980s, in-service training (INSET) for teachers was mainly conducted through institutes of higher education. The institutes provided courses of varying lengths and intensity, usually produced in consultation with Local Education Authorities. For many teachers, attendance at a course was the prime method, and often the only method, of professional development. Some teachers did have their own individual development plans, although these were normally not structured, and a number of schools had their own development plans for their teaching staff and for the whole school. But courses reigned supreme.

7.4.2 Dean (1991) pointed out, however, that there has been radical change in the process of professional development within education in recent years. She highlights DES Circular 6/86 which was concerned 'to promote the professional development of teachers; to encourage more effective management of the teaching force and to encourage training in selected areas which are to be accorded priority.' It was intended that the planning of the professional development of all teachers should be more systematic and more purposeful. Schools, generally, were provided with funds to organise school-based in-service training and allocated five training days for teachers to work together either on government-designated national or local priorities or on their own professional development. This provision of five days of closure for professional development was considered by Dean to be 'a big step forward in providing opportunities for teachers.' (p.70). The proposals of DES Circular 6/86 were to be known as the local education authority training grants scheme (LEATGS) but soon became more commonly known as grant related in-service training (GRIST). They replaced all existing schemes for in-service training.
7.4.3 Cowan and Wright (1990), however, state that evidence suggests that professional development programmes within schools are poorly managed, and do not take account of the long term needs of the school and of individuals within the school. In-service training days (INSET), which for many schools were the main strategy for professional development, often had isolated themes that were not related to prior or subsequent activities and were not based on long-term professional development plans.

7.4.4 Clark (1992) proposed that responsibility for professional development must be given to teachers themselves as development is voluntary, each individual is unique, and the best teachers already operate as self-directed professional developers.

7.4.5 Jackson (1992) emphasises the difference between development and change. Negative changes are not considered to be part of development, which consists of changes that are desirable and positive such as increases in ability, skill and knowledge.

7.4.6 Dean (1991) stated that whilst it is a common tendency in industry to plan, in a deliberate manner, the succession of people in senior posts, the same tendency does not exist within schools. She believes that teachers should be given the opportunity to acquire management skills in order that heads of year, heads of department, curriculum co-ordinators and deputy heads may be readily replaced when necessary. Management should be a permanent element in the school professional development programme. It is unlikely that a school ever achieves the situation when everyone in a management role is fully trained in all the skills of management and in any case there will always be those aspiring to management
roles who need training. There should, therefore, be opportunities in the course of each year for those in management roles and those aspiring to them to receive training.

7.4.7 Equally so, according to Dean, there are two further main areas which all teachers need to develop. The first area is the acquisition of appropriate background knowledge. This includes terms and conditions of employment, information about the job and the school and what is required in the particular post, knowledge of the way children and young people develop, and theoretical knowledge of learning. The second area is the development of classroom teaching skills which also encompasses pastoral care skills and the administrative tasks of the classroom. Teachers must add to their subject knowledge, develop skills in communicating with and motivating pupils, and recognise the stages pupils have reached in their learning. The management of the school should ensure that there is a school policy for staff development, which includes all staff. There should be planned development for all.

7.4.8 Two important factors in the development of a teacher are the school in which the teacher works and the headteacher of the school. Dean states that the school is the most important learning place not only for pupils but also for teachers. A school that a teacher works in affects his or her development, with the greatest affect coming from the school in which a teacher starts his or her career. This initial school is likely to be the most important single source of learning for that teacher from then on, affecting the way he or she works for many years, perhaps throughout the whole of the teacher's career. Eraut (1975) points out that the headteacher's and senior management's expectations of teachers affects the teacher's performance. Thomas (1991) states that any good headteacher will assist
his or her members of staff to enhance their professional prospects. He argues that any negative effects on schools caused by the departure of good members of staff is normally balanced by an increase in morale and ambition on the part of the remaining members of staff. Riseborough (1981) further argues that promotion brings rewards and incentives to successful applicants, but failure to obtain promotion can spoil careers with the result that unsuccessful teachers become disenchanted and cynical. Commitment and enthusiasm lessens with a corresponding impact on classroom performance.

7.4.9 Morgan et al (1983) note that in selecting headteachers there is a tendency to ignore the ability of the candidates to undertake the management tasks involved in headship. Instead the emphasis is placed on personality factors. What applies to headship appointments is to some extent true of appointments at other levels in schools. Dean (1975) states that heads usually learn from on-the-job experience with very little training, and often with only a minimum amount of help from others.

7.4.10 Lyons (1981) found that over fifty per cent of teachers that he surveyed had some perception of their career goal and the method of obtaining that goal. Over twenty-five per cent had a clear idea of their career route from the start of their teaching career. Slightly under twenty-five per cent had no career route at the start of their career, but developed one in the course of time. Less than half of the teachers surveyed had no clear perception of their goal and the method of obtaining it. Those teachers with strongly held career maps, plus the determination to gain varied experience that enabled them to progress career opportunities, were most likely to reach the top of the career path.
7.5 Appraisal

7.5.1 The process of appraisal, a link between school development and teacher development, is considered vital to the professional development of teachers. The Secondary of State for Education laid down regulations for the compulsory appraisal every two years of all teachers, including headteachers, in a letter to all Chief Education Officers dated 10 December 1990. The Secretary of State's letter stated that appraisal schemes should be designed to:

1. help teachers to identify ways of enhancing their professional skill
2. assist in planning the in-service training and professional development of teachers individually and collectively
3. help individual teachers, their headteachers, governing body and local education authorities (where appropriate) to see where a new or modified assignment would help the professional development of individual teachers and improve their career prospects
4. identify the potential of teachers for career development with the aim of helping them, where possible, through appropriate in-service training
5. provide help to teachers having difficulties with their performance through appropriate guidance, counselling and training. Disciplinary and dismissal procedures shall remain quite separate but may need to draw on relevant information from appraisal records
6. inform those responsible for providing references for teachers
7. enhance the overall management of schools

7.5.2 McMullen (1991) states that if a staff development policy is part of an appraisal system it will act as a focusing device for both management and teachers. But the Teacher Training Agency (1995a) states that appraisal is being
used in a variety of ways. In some schools appraisal has stopped taking place altogether, and in other schools the models of appraisal used fail to provide a systematic approach either to improve teachers' practice or to assessing the impact of training. In far too many schools, the outcomes of appraisal in terms of training needs do not lead to action and are not being linked either to school development planning or to teachers' own professional development planning; unless these three central elements are more explicitly linked, the potential for teachers to develop and schools to improve will not be realised. Job satisfaction comes from developing the job one does. The processes of professional development and appraisal will assist many teachers to develop a clear idea of their future career. Appraisal will be important in helping teachers to be realistic in their career goals. Many teachers will wish to stay in the classroom and continue to develop and improve their skills and these need supporting. Some teachers, not through choice, will spend their careers in the classroom and need to try to stay enthusiastic and thoughtful about their work. Teachers in management must be given opportunities to develop management and leadership skills.

7.6 The Teacher Training Agency

7.6.1 The Teacher Training Agency (TTA) was established on 21 September 1994 under Section 1 of the Education Act 1994 (the Act). It was established under the Act to: fund the provision of teacher training in England; improve the quality and efficiency of all routes into the teaching profession; contribute to raising the standards of teaching; provide information and advice on teaching as a career; and carry out such other functions as the Secretary of State for Employment and Education may order confer or impose on the TTA.
7.6.2 The purpose and aims of the TTA were published in March 1995 in its Corporate Plan. The TTA's purpose is: 'to improve the quality of teaching, to raise the standards of teacher education and training, and to promote teaching as a profession, in order to improve the standards of pupils' achievement and the quality of their learning.'

7.6.3 To meet this purpose, the TTA has a number of aims. Aim number 4 is: 'To promote well-targeted, effective and co-ordinated continuing professional development.'

7.6.4 The TTA (1995b) forwarded, in July 1995, to the Secretary of State for Employment and Education, initial advice on securing a better focused system of professional development for teachers. The advice followed discussions between the two parties, in March 1995, on how to develop more targeted and effective CPD for teachers. The intention is to ensure that public investment in teacher training results in direct improvements in the standards of pupils' performance. The advice concerned particular areas which needed to be targeted as priorities, together with proposals for developing a more strategic direction to in-service training and development of teachers, which could help provide the basis for continuing improvement in schools. The advice came after a fundamental review by the TTA of in-service training, which involved extensive consultation with schools, a series of national and regional conferences, and a MORI survey of the cost, nature and perceived effectiveness of current CPD activity. As well as many thousands of teachers and headteachers, the review involved the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), professional and subject associations, Local Education Authorities, higher education institutions and other public and private sector in-service providers.
7.6.5 The TTA advice proposed eight particular priority areas that required close targeting nationally in order to ensure maximum effect in the school and the classroom. Four of the eight areas concerned teaching or subject knowledge skills, and the remaining four areas focused on management skills. Two of the latter areas featured support and training for subject co-ordinators or special educational needs co-ordinators, and two areas focused on management in schools. The two priorities concerning management in schools are leadership and management of schools, focusing on headteachers, and middle-management in secondary schools, focusing on heads of department.

7.6.6 The TTA state that although some of the eight areas are priorities within current Grants for Education Support and Training (GEST) arrangements, there is evidence that training is not always targeted at the most needful teachers, the most appropriate training is not always provided, and the best trainers are not always employed to deliver the training.

7.6.7 The TTA's consultations have confirmed that designing tailor-made programmes of training and development through careful needs-analysis is more effective than the delivery of 'off-the-shelf' courses. In addition, some element of quality control is necessary to secure high standards of provision. There is general agreement that a strategic approach to CPD is required.

7.6.8 The consultations have also indicated that there is considerable good practice in CPD nationally, and the TTA will ensure, through a variety of means, that such methods become widespread. It is also evident, however, that there are national weaknesses and variations in CPD across the country. The TTA stressed
that resources for CPD are often not targeted to best effect, professional development activities are not sufficiently targeted to meet needs and there is insufficient planning, monitoring and follow-up of professional development activities to ensure that they are having a direct impact on improving teaching and learning.

7.6.9 In particular the TTA noted that, as there is no accountability at national, local or school levels for the deployment of resources on CPD, money budgeted within schools for CPD is sometimes used for other purposes. No national criteria have been agreed that ensure funding is directed towards the most appropriate teachers and at the most useful time in their career. Many teachers subsidise part or all of their own professional development, but individual professional development programmes are rarely part of planned school programmes of professional development.

7.6.10 The five school closure days should be part of a co-ordinated, planned approach to professional development. It was noted that many schools are not using the days as part of a planned professional development. The MORI survey reported that two per cent of respondents have had no closure days used for training and development and five per cent of respondents have had no more than one day out of the possible five days used for the same purposes. Schools often fail to co-ordinate opportunities for 'on-the-job' development resulting in teachers failing to obtain the experiences they require in order to improve their teaching skills or learn new skills in preparation for middle and senior management. Few schools have strategies for evaluating outcomes of development activities or the contribution of such activities to the improvement of individual classroom practice or whole school performance. Less than a quarter of respondents to the MORI
survey had noted any link between their appraisal and their professional development, and the annual GEST cycle was perceived as not allowing for medium or long-term planning.

7.7 Proposals of the Teacher Training Agency

7.7.1 The proposals made by the TTA are not compulsory, and impose no obligation on teachers or school but seek to establish some key elements and principles that will assist teachers and schools to maximise the effectiveness of training. The intention of the TTA is that the proposals be used as a starting point, with additions and amendments to be made in the future, when, and if, appropriate.

The proposals aim:

1. to set national standards of excellence
2. to provide opportunities for teachers to fulfil expectations through planned and targeted training and development programmes
3. to secure the effectiveness of training at local and school levels.

7.7.2 The national standards set would relate to different key roles of teachers and would establish clear and explicit statements of expectations for teachers in each of the roles. The establishment of national agreed standards will lead to a focus for setting targets, the planning of training and development programmes, the review of performance, and a more co-ordinated and consistent approach towards the improvement of the quality of teaching. The TTA will work with the professions and related groups such as OFSTED, LEAs, school governors, higher education institutions, subject associations, and professional associations to
develop and adopt the agreed national standards. Schools and teachers will be helped to set targets for teachers' development and career progression, and to focus and improve training programmes at national, local and school levels. Agreement of standards and expectations will provide a framework for CPD, and a basis for systematic and continuing improvement in schools.

7.7.3 The TTA, whilst believing that standards could be set for a wide range of professional responsibilities, have chosen to concentrate on developing criteria for four key points in the profession.

The four key points are:

a) newly-qualified teachers
b) expert teachers
c) experts in subject leadership and management
d) experts in school leadership and management.

7.7.4 On completion of initial teacher training, newly-qualified teachers are awarded Qualified Teacher Status at the same time as they are awarded a Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) or a Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) degree. Whilst training they have to demonstrate competence in certain criteria. The TTA proposals will make these initial standards more explicit, by clarifying the expectations within each broad area of competence, whilst avoiding a narrow competence-based approach. The new explicit standards will, also, serve as a reference board for experienced teachers wishing to change subject areas and/or pupil age ranges. They will be able to compare their current abilities and skills in the proposed new area against national standards in that area, and set targets for their own personal development.
7.7.5 In addition to the explicit standards set for newly-qualified teachers, new agreed standards will be set for excellence in the classroom. The status of teachers will be enhanced. Teachers who wish to remain classroom-based, and their managers, will have established, higher criteria against which to target their training and development.

7.7.6 The standards for excellence in the classroom, together with criteria developed for heads of department and subject co-ordinator training, will ensure that subject teaching is as effective as possible. The standards will assist heads of subject teams as well as those seeking to obtain such positions.

7.8 Standards for Headteachers

7.8.1 Criteria for the standards expected from new headteachers are already described in the Headteacher's Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP) under which training is provided for headteachers. Initially newly appointed headteachers received up to £2,500 towards their HEADLAMP training, which must be provided only through trainers registered with the TTA. The programme has now been extended to those preparing for headship and to headteachers in post for more than six years. HEADLAMP is the start of a more systematic approach to preparation for headship. The criteria help to focus both specialist headteacher training programmes and reflection by headteachers on the skills and abilities they require in their position and in their school. Dean (1991) has stated that heads and senior management must ensure that they allot themselves time for evaluation and reflection and also create time and encourage all teachers to reflect on and evaluate their performance. The establishment of
further criteria will set targets for the planning and co-ordination of individual training and development programmes.

7.8.2 Following on from HEADLAMP has been the introduction of the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). The TTA states that it has developed the NPQH in order to help raise standards in education by ensuring excellent leadership in schools. The aim of the NPQH is to prepare aspiring teachers for what the TTA describes as 'the most important role in schools'. The NPQH is part of the professional development framework for teachers which is being established by the TTA. It is based on national standards for headteachers which are being developed by relevant interested parties from both within and without the teaching profession. The standards will be used for the training of current and aspiring headteachers, and in addition to setting out the knowledge, understanding, skills and attributes which relate to the key areas of headship, the standards also reflect work on management standards prepared by experts outside of education. Confirmation that the NPQH includes general management as against purely educational management comes from a newly-appointed headteacher who has recently commenced studying for the qualification, and also that the standards reflect many of the skills listed in the Skills Audit questionnaire that was presented to the interviewees. The standards come in five parts:

1. Core purpose of headship.
   professional leadership ensuring high quality education for all pupils.

2. Key outcomes of headship.
   covering ethos of the school, teachers, pupils, parents, governors, staff, accommodation and resources.

3. Professional knowledge and understanding.
   a range of thirteen areas relevant to all schools.

Leadership skills, attributes and professional competence
decision making
communication skills
self-management

5. Key areas of leadership.

strategic direction and development of the school
teaching and learning
leading and managing staff
efficient and effective development of staff
accountability.

7.8.3 Achievement by teachers of the NPQH is a signal of readiness for headship, and will provide a base from which newly-appointed headteachers can continue to develop their leadership and management skills. To obtain the NPQH it is necessary for six stages to be completed. The six stages are:

1. Application and selection.
2. Initial needs assessment.
3. Training and development based on one to four modules according to need.
4. Assessment against any remaining standards.
5. Final assessment.
6. Award of the qualification to successful candidate.

7.8.4 The TTA invites applications from those already demonstrating the potential to be a headteacher, but state that applications are not confined to teachers. Those with experience and expertise in other fields are invited to apply.
Cost of the qualification is at present between £2000 and £2900 depending on the number of modules it is deemed necessary for the candidate to take. Funding through Grants for Education Support and Training (GEST) or other sources is available to candidates, but award of funding is not automatically granted to successful applicants.

7.8.5 The NPQH is a voluntary scheme which was proposed by the previous Conservative Government. David Blunkett, the current Education and Employment Secretary, has welcomed the NPQH, but states that the present Government intend to make a new head teachers qualification compulsory for all who aspire to run a school. The new qualification will not be the NPQH. The initial aim of the Government will be that up to 24,000 existing head teachers would undergo 'fast track' training in order to gain the new qualification.

7.8.6 The setting of national standards for teachers and the encouragement of schools and teachers to rigorously set their own expectations and targets at local and school levels will not ensure good practice unless schools provide opportunities for planned programmes of targeted training and development. The TTA, therefore, proposes that at least three out of the five school closure days should be used as part of schools' planned programmes of professional development. The current professional development of all staff throughout the year should be reported in the governors' annual report to parents. Schools should receive guidance on making effective use of day to day activities which provide professional development and training opportunities.

7.8.7 Individual teachers should be expected to take responsibility for their own CPD, for keeping up to date and improving their knowledge, abilities and skills,
and for setting their own targets for improvement. They should actively seek out opportunities for improvement and not passively await opportunities offered by the school.

7.8.8 To secure the effectiveness of training at local and school levels it is important that the most appropriate teachers are targeted for particular purposes, that the training is of high quality and the training programme is seen to have a direct effect on improving practice in schools and classrooms. Schemes are to be developed for needs assessment, quality provision, and practically-based evaluation and monitoring provision. Practical advice for schools on these matters will be developed.

7.8.9 The TTA review identified appraisal as a key element in ensuring that teachers receive appropriate training at the appropriate time, that there is a systematic approach to training, and to the assessment of the impact of training. The use of appraisal was found to vary considerably from school to school with some schools having stopped appraisal altogether. Even when appraisal is undertaken, the outcomes are often negligible in terms of training needs and are not linked to school development planning or to teachers' personal professional development planning. The TTA is to review appraisal for staff development purposes.

7.8.10 As previously stated, the TTA has as one of its aims the promotion of well-targeted, effective and co-ordinated continuing professional development. The proposals, as outlined above, endeavour to create a structure for staff development within schools, a structure that has been identified as missing by a number of authors e.g. Bell and Day (1991), Dean (1991), Cowan and Wright
The problem that the TTA faces is to successfully convince the teaching profession, as a whole, that CPD is not yet another poorly-planned, poorly-funded and short-term innovation that is being foisted on teachers. Unlike other professions, the teaching profession, itself, is not the prime promoter of the CPD initiative.

In most, if not all, other professions it is the members of the profession who have instigated, through their professional institutes, the introduction of CPD. This is regardless of whether CPD has been introduced as a compulsory or voluntary measure. The teaching profession is being instructed to introduce CPD by the Government, through the aegis of the TTA. The past few years have been characterised by numerous Government interventions in school policies. Many of the changes in policy brought about by these interventions have proved to be short-lived, before being altered again by further interventions. A particular example is the various changes in the national curriculum. Other interventions such as the introduction of OFSTED inspections of schools, and hence the inspection of teachers, have created extra and often stressful work for teachers, and, as such, are not viewed favourably by many in the profession. If numbers of teachers are to view CPD as an imposition thrust upon them, in the same light as they view other recent education policies, then the whole concept of staff development within schools will continue to meander, ranging along a continuum from very strong to very weak, and dependent on the commitment of the senior management team of each individual school.
7.9 Research Structure

7.9.1 Investigation of the staff development policies of the six schools involved in the research was not, in itself, part of the structure of the research. Nevertheless, it was noted that two of the schools had been awarded the Schools Curriculum Award and one school was seeking Investors in People status. Two of the schools were heavily involved in initial teacher training, one through its local university and the other through School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT). One of the schools was combining its staff development programme with a local institute of higher education development programme in order that interested members of the school staff could obtain further academic qualifications. It was demonstrated, therefore, that at least some of the six schools had practical evidence of involvement in staff development, rather than just having a notional staff development programme to which little or no attention was paid.

7.9.2 All teachers taking part in the research were asked, during their structured interview, to give details of their CPD under the terms of three headings:

1. professional activities
2. courses, conferences and seminars attended
3. self-directed/informal learning.

7.9.3 The interviewees were also requested to estimate the amount of time spent on average each week on CPD, both in school time and during their own time. Finally, for this section of the research, the interviewees were asked for their experiences of appraisal.
7.9.4 The findings are summarised in Table 7 below, before being analysed and discussed in greater detail.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continuing Professional Development.</th>
<th>Senior Managers</th>
<th>Aspirants</th>
<th>Classroom Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=10</td>
<td>n=14</td>
<td>n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>External to the school</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal only</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Courses Attended (within past three years)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many</td>
<td>40%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>50%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Course Attended.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal development</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject/Pastoral</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-directed/Informal Learning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications since commencing teaching:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree/Diploma etc.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>30%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>70%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information Technology'</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevant Television</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Applications</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent on CPD.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not quantifiable</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>0-2 hours per week</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraiser</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appraisee</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Analysis of teachers' continuing professional development.
7.10 Research findings

7.10.1 Professional Activities

7.10.1.1 The senior managers were all involved in professional activities beyond the borders of their own school. All were members of town and/or county education associations. (It should be noted that some of the schools, whose teachers took part in the research, were situated in large towns that had a number of secondary schools. In such towns, education associations had been formed whose membership was restricted to teachers employed only at schools in that town. Town education associations were in addition to county education associations, membership of which were open to teachers employed throughout a particular county. Membership of a town association did not preclude membership of a county association. Other schools, where teachers took part in the research, were situated in rural areas, and were the only secondary school in their town. Teachers at these schools were members only of county education associations). Nine (90%) of the senior managers, the only exception being a recently appointed deputy Head, belonged to groups which were both planning and support groups, with titles such as town/county Secondary Heads Association or town/county Deputy Heads Group. The titles of the groups, but not their functions, varied from location to location. Some of the senior managers represented their town association on their county association. Eight (80%) of the senior managers had involvement with their town and/or county Local Education Authority (LEA) through being members of committees of, for example, assessment co-ordinators, Inset co-ordinators, and mentor training. Two represented their town-county association on committees outside of school
education such as, for example, county Child Protection Committees or county Training and Enterprise Councils.

7.10.1.2 Seven (70%) of the senior managers listed lecturing as part of their professional activities. For five of the seven, their lecturing was paid work, either as a consultant or at further education establishments or through SCITT. The remaining two lectured on county INSET courses and to various educational groups.

7.10.1.3 Other professional activities detailed by the senior managers included two (20%) working with the Home Office and the Police, and three (30%) involved in education and industry links. One senior manager was a trained counsellor, a school governor (not at the school at which he was employed), and was training to be a magistrate. Another senior manager was an author on educational themes, an editorial panellist, magazine reviewer, research supervisor, and an education consultant. A third was a County Councillor, and a fourth had been a member of a national education council.

7.10.1.4 Seven (50%) of the aspirants were involved in town/county education associations, generally in Heads of Department groups such as town/county Heads of Geography, Heads of Religious Education etc. but others as members of, for example town/county Careers association or Co-ordinators groups. An eighth aspirant was currently applying to be a panel member of a County Examination Board. Four aspirants (29%) were school governors, three being teacher/staff governors of the school where they were employed, one having in the past been paid part-time as a governor trainer, and the fourth being a parent governor of another school where his children were being educated. Two
aspirants (14%) were involved in educational publications. One had co-authored a science textbook and the other was an educational consultant for two computer magazines. Four aspirants (29%) stated that their professional activities were all internal to the school at which they were employed.

7.10.1.5 Fifteen (50%) of the classroom teachers had an involvement with town/county associations. Normally the involvement was as a member of, say, the town/county Science Teachers or English Teachers Group, but in some cases it was as a member of the Heads of Department Group of their particular subject. Five (17%) declared additional employment as lecturers in further education, or as private tutors, as part of their professional activities. Two were union members, one was a teacher governor, and one was an examiner and moderator for four examination Boards including one overseas Board. Eight classroom teachers (27%) stated that they were not involved in any professional activities whatsoever, whilst a further four (13%) reported that their professional activities were internal to the school of their employment.

7.10.2 Courses/Conferences/Seminars

7.10.2.1 When requested to give details of courses, conferences and seminars that had been attended over the past few years, the predominant response by far, for all the three groups of senior managers, aspirants and teachers, was in relation to courses attended.

7.10.2.2 Four of the senior managers (40%) stated that they attended many courses, with the acknowledgement that they were now in a position to plan and choose the courses they wished to attend. The courses attended were for school
and personal development, on a needs to know or interest basis, and were not school-subject oriented. Five senior managers (50%) reported that they attended few courses now, although that might not have been the case in the past, with one stating that he was now very selective of courses attended, despite his enjoyment of professional development work, due to his commitment to teach. For all of these nine senior managers, the courses that they attended now, whether many or few, related to professional development rather than subject courses. One senior manager had not attended any courses in recent times but had recently attended a national conference.

7.10.2.3 The aspirants were equally divided between those who stated that they had attended many courses recently and those who stated they had attended few courses recently. Seven aspirants (50%) now attended only personal development courses, four (29%) attended only subject courses, and three (21%) attended a mixture of personal development and subject courses. Two aspirants (14%), both included in those who attended many courses, stated that they were great believers in the value of attending courses and were now encouraging younger members of their departments to attend courses even at the expense of their own attendance. Three (21%) stated that lack of funding was the cause of their attending only a small number of courses.

7.10.2.4 Nine (30%) of the classroom teachers stated that they attended many courses, seventeen (57%) stated that they attended few courses, and four (13%) attended no courses at all. The outstanding majority of courses attended were subject courses, by twenty-one (70%) classroom teachers whilst five (16%) had attended pastoral courses. Six (20%) classroom teachers had attended at least
one personal development course in addition to either/or a subject or pastoral course.

7.10.2.5 Six (20%) of the classroom teachers stated that their attendance at courses was restricted either by funding restraints or by the difficulty in obtaining time off work. Two teachers stated that no matter the number of courses they applied to attend they were aware that they would only be granted permission to attend one in any school year. Teachers working in areas such as special needs, multi-ethnicity or equal opportunities generally were encouraged, or were more easily granted permission, to attend courses, as were teachers in subjects where their school was lacking in expertise e.g. a language teacher being encouraged to attend courses to learn and teach a second language.

7.10.2.6 Three of the four classroom teachers who stated that they did not attend courses did actually qualify their statement by saying they did attend compulsory in-service training (INSET) courses. In-service training refers, in general, to any training received by teachers but is used in this context to describe training delivered during the five school closure days. With one exception, who was another classroom teacher, these were the only mention of INSET courses by any of the interviewees. The quality of INSET courses was not rated highly by those teachers who did mention them, being described as 'usually drivel', 'not profitable', and 'IT-ad nauseam'. One of the non-attendees stated that he avoided courses as he believed them to be 'complete flops' and he also had a conscience about leaving the children in his classes.
7.10.3 Self-Directed/Informal Learning

7.10.3.1 Six of the senior managers (60%) had obtained a Masters degree after commencement of their teaching career, and one had registered for a Doctorate. Four of the degrees were education based, and the fifth indirectly related to education. The only total exception from an education based degree was that of a senior manager with a Masters in Business Administration. A further senior manager already held a Masters degree before starting his teaching career, making seven (70%) of the senior managers qualified to Masters' standard. Another had obtained an Advanced Diploma in Education. The remaining two senior managers had not obtained any additional qualifications after commencing their teaching career. One had considered studying for a Masters degree but had not been able to obtain the necessary funding, and was not in a position to fund the studying himself.

7.10.3.2 Eight (80%) of the senior managers stated that their other main form of self-directed/informal CPD was reading. Four of these stated that they read widely and/or heavily, but two commented that they found it difficult to read as much as they would like to because of time restraints.

7.10.3.3 Six (43%) of the aspirants had obtained a Masters degree since commencing their teaching career. A further aspirant, a late entry to teaching, held a Masters degree before starting teaching, making seven (50%) of the aspirants qualified to Masters standard. In addition, three more were either studying for a Masters or had studied in the past but not completed the course. A fourth was considering starting a Masters course. Two aspirants had obtained Advanced Diplomas in Education, and another had obtained a Degree.
7.10.3.4 Thirteen (93%) of the aspirants emphasised reading as a self-directed/informal form of CPD, with three stating that they read 'lots' and one finding it difficult to allot the necessary time. One aspirant stated that reading was a new development for him, and previously his knowledge of theory had been weak.

7.10.3.5 Three (21%) aspirants allocated much time to working with computers and improvement of IT skills, two (14%) to job applications, and one watched relevant documentaries on television. Four (29%) aspirants stated that they planned their CPD, but for only one of the four had this been a career-long process. For the other three, CPD for most of their career had been a reactive and somewhat ad-hoc process. One aspirant stated that he was unable to allocate time to spend on any self-directed or informal CPD.

7.10.3.6 No classroom-based teacher had obtained a Masters degree since commencing teaching, although one late starter to teaching possessed a Doctorate and another held a Masters. Twelve teachers held degrees before commencing teaching and another held a Higher National Certificate in Mechanical Engineering. Fourteen (47%) of the teachers thus were qualified to degree standard or higher before starting teaching, and a further five (17%) obtained a degree after starting their teaching career. In addition, one teacher had gained an Advanced Diploma in Education, two teachers Diplomas in Education and one teacher a Certificate in Education, all since starting teaching. One teacher was enrolled to start a Masters degree. One teacher had began studying for a degree and regretted that it had not been completed.
7.10.3.7 Twenty-one (70%) of the teachers read as part of their self-directed or informal CPD. Four watched relevant items on television. Six (20%) were improving their computer skills, three of whom had purchased their own personal computer. Three teachers itemised reflection and planning as an important part of their CPD, and a further three rated discussion with colleagues. Three (10%) of teachers stated that they considered time outside of school to be their own time and avoided anything to do with work.

7.10.4 **Time Allocated to CPD**

7.10.4.1 Most of the interviewees found it difficult to allocate how much time they spent weekly on CPD. Four (40%) of the senior managers stated that their CPD was continuous, although one acknowledged that the time varied from week to week. Four more stated that the time they spent on CPD was not quantifiable. Of the two senior managers who were able to place a time, one stated ten hours and the other stated six hours.

7.10.4.2 Two (14%) of the aspirants stated that their CPD was continuous, six (43%) that the time was not quantifiable, and four (29%) that the time spent was variable. Of the two aspirants who were able to place a time, one stated four hours and the other less than two hours.

7.10.4.3 Three (10%) of classroom teachers stated that their CPD was continuous, thirteen (43%) that their CPD was not quantifiable and two (7%) that it was variable. One classroom teacher spent ten hours a week on CPD and another between four and six hours a week. Ten (33%) spent two hours or less per week on CPD. Comments from these ten included:
'talking with colleagues'
'when able to fit in'
'lots of reflection'
'variable but little'
'avoids professional development - a waste of time'
'when the word 'initiative' is mentioned the whole staffroom groans'

7.10.5 Appraisal

7.10.5.1 All the senior managers had experience of appraisal both as appraisers and appraisees. All had received training of some sort, either through INSET (school closure days), LEA courses or management courses. One senior manager who had introduced an appraisal system to his school considered that the introduction had gone well. He had brought an LEA adviser into the school for initial training and again after the staff had had time to reflect on the process. A video computer package on appraisal was made available for the staff. The senior manager now believed that it was necessary to look at the setting of appraisal targets, mentoring and increasing the rigour of the process.

7.10.5.2 The lack of rigour of teacher appraisal was a common concurrence mentioned by the senior managers. Comments included:

'Safe - appraising what one is good at rather than what one needs to develop'
'Bland - targets are set but not monitored'
'Too soft - process needs bite to work'
'School appraisal not a patch on [external] assessment'
'Constructive criticism leading to reflection, then action, followed by improvement in performance must be acknowledged as legitimate and a valid part of the process'
'The problem is giving appraisal a high enough priority to actually carry out the process'
'Appraisal is fantastic for development purposes but anathema for weeding out people'

7.10.5.3 Another senior manager who had introduced appraisal into his school two years previously commented that the system had encountered much 'professional cynicism and scepticism.'

7.10.5.4 Ten (71%) of the aspirants were appraisers, having appraised other members of staff of their school, and twelve (86%) had themselves been appraised. Of the two aspirants who had not been appraised, one was halfway through the process when his appraiser was taken ill. Despite the appraiser's long absence, the appraisal had not been continued, or restarted by another appraiser. The other unappraised aspirant was due to be appraised within a short time, but was not scheduled to receive any training before the appraisal began. Two aspirants from one school, who were not appraisers, commented that their school did not consider them senior enough to appraise other members of staff, even though they held reasonably senior grades. Both were, in fact, more senior than a number of appraisers in some of the other schools that took part in the research.
The aspirants were equally divided between those who valued appraisal and those who did not, although there were more, and longer, negative comments about the process than there were favourable comments. Positive comments by aspirants about appraisal were:

'positive and motivating'
'appraisal worthwhile exercise'
'good INSET training'
'process enjoyable and beneficial but incredibly long and drawn out'

Negative comments included:
'good idea but underfunded'
'several days INSET training - not particularly valuable'
'2 day INSET training - did not learn much'
'very limited amount of INSET training. Whole process rushed. Quite useful but could have been so much better'
'if had not received appraisal training whilst studying for M.A. then appraisals I conducted would have been a mess'
'mainly on-the-job training not perfect but best available at difficult times. More organised training desirable'
'no staff input on final appraisal document'
'cursory appraisal'
7.10.5.6 One of the aspirants had attempted to start a bottom-up appraisal system in his faculty but had been reprimanded for so doing. Another aspirant commented that, under their previous Head, appraisal in her school had been conducted, but had not been taken seriously. With the new Head things were different.

7.10.5.7 Eight (27%) of the classroom teachers were appraisers in their school. Eighteen (60%) classroom teachers had been appraised and the remaining twelve (40%) were either awaiting appraisal shortly, or had been given no indication that they were to be appraised. Of those who had been appraised, nine believed the process to be good, six had an opposite opinion, and three were neutral. Those classroom teachers who approved of appraisal, had, in general, received INSET training only. This they believed to have been of a good standard. They also appeared to have been allowed to have an input into the process. Comments received included:

'if appraised from the outset, would have had a career plan'
'at the time thought the process unfair - now considers it useful'
'useful exercise setting targets and showing one how to be effective'
'very informative and helpful - INSET training not helpful'

7.10.5.8 Comments from those classroom teachers who considered the appraisal process to be poor included:

'process no use'
'whole process rubbish'
'appraisal not effective'
'query the value of the time spent on appraisal'
8. (27%) of the classroom teachers who had been appraised or were shortly to be appraised considered that the INSET training they had received was of a poor standard being 'inadequate', 'not useful', 'not very effective', 'no help', and 'five laborious days which were a waste of time.' It should be pointed out that most did not receive anything like five days of appraisal training. A further five (16%) classroom teachers had not received any training for appraisal, apart from, in a couple of cases, being given a school appraisal booklet to read.

Two teachers reported that their appraisals had started with observed classroom teaching, respectively two months and six months previously, but there had been no follow-up or discussion since. One teacher reported that he had missed an initial appraisal interview two years previously and had not received any further contact.

Three (10%) classroom teachers stated that they had been allowed to choose their appraiser, with one indicating that she would have refused other appraisers. Despite selecting the appraiser, a second teacher remarked that the process was rushed, not well arranged, and suffered a lack of information, training and time. The third teacher stated that the process became friendly rather than testing.

A dissatisfied appraisee believed that appraisal had been foisted on schools as yet another job to be done. If appraisal were to be carried out properly and objectively then it would be valuable.
7.11 Discussion

7.11.1 Introduction

7.11.1.1 Analysis of the structured interviews strongly suggests that the higher a teacher is in the hierarchical scale then the greater the commitment of that teacher to his or her continuing professional development. Whilst there are exceptions to the rule, it can be seen that, in general, senior managers have a broader diversification of professional activities, have studied for and obtained higher qualifications, read more widely and in greater depth, and appear to devote more time to all these activities than either the aspirants or the classroom teachers. In courses attended, slightly more aspirants than senior managers stated that they attended many courses, but the rate of attendance of the senior managers at courses was higher than that of the classroom teachers. The commitment of the senior managers to appraisal is again higher than the other two groups. In turn, the aspirants' commitment is greater than that of the classroom teachers both in relation to continuing professional development, in all its facets described here, and to appraisal.

7.11.2 Professional Activities

7.11.2.1 All of the senior managers, with the exception of a newly-appointed Deputy Head, were actively involved in their town and/or county Heads or Deputy Heads Group. Only half the aspirants and half the classroom teachers were similarly involved, at their respective levels, with comparative groups. Membership of such groups conveys three advantages to senior managers that are not open either to the aspirants or the classroom teachers. Firstly, head teacher
groups, although not deputy head groups, tend to have political influence at local level, and when united together, at national level. Head groups, being by definition comparatively small in total membership, give the individual real opportunity to influence local and national government policies. For aspirants and classroom teachers, the opportunity to voice their opinions occurs through membership of one of the teaching unions. The very size of the unions means that the power of the individual voice is much diluted. Union membership is also, of course available to the senior managers.

7.11.2.2 The second advantage is that the power of the head teacher groups, and the prominence of the head teacher position itself, brings invitations to join other groups and committees, both within and without education. The professional activities of those interested senior managers can thus become, to a great extent, self-perpetuating, and this is demonstrated by the number and variety of professional activities undertaken by the senior managers. It is fair to state, however, that most of the professional activities are directly or indirectly related to education.

7.11.2.3 Thirdly, membership of town and/or county groups, at any level, gives the opportunity to network. For senior managers, and especially head teachers, networking can help alleviate the isolation that may be brought about in holding the position of chief executive of the school. Other grades of teachers, with colleagues in the school holding similar or identical positions to themselves, are unlikely to have such feelings of isolation.
7.11.3 Courses/Conferences/Seminars

7.11.3.1 Bell (1991) stated that professional development for many teachers solely consisted of attending a course. In relation to courses, conferences and seminars attended, this was certainly borne out by the interviewees. All referred to attendance (or non-attendance) of courses, but only two referred to having attended a conference and no mention, whatsoever, was made in respect of seminars. Courses, Bell argued, tended to fall into three groups: courses for enhancing existing qualifications, top-up courses for further developing existing skills, and courses for the remedy of particular weaknesses or difficulties. The last two types of courses are closely related and often indistinguishable. They differ from qualification courses, and this distinction was involuntary backed up by the majority of those interviewees who had attended qualification enhancement courses as well as top-up/remedial courses. When requested to detail courses they had attended, the teachers detailed only top-up/remedial courses. Qualification courses, as far as the interviewees were concerned, were to be listed under self-directed learning, in that they had elected to undertake a long-term period of study and, in most cases, funded that study themselves. Non-qualification courses were normally short-term ranging from half a day to, possibly, a number of weekends and evenings.

7.11.3.2 The courses attended by the interviewees ranged along a continuum from school and personal development courses for the senior managers, through a mixture of development and subject courses for the aspirants, to mainly subject courses for the classroom teachers. Throughout the six schools, there was an imbalance as to who could attend courses. The higher a teacher was in the hierarchical scale, the more opportunity he or she was given to attend courses.
More than one classroom teacher stated that they were allowed one token course to attend in a school year, and often that course was not of the teacher's choice. Some of the higher graded teachers did indicate that they were opting out of attending courses to enable younger, less experienced members of staff to attend in their place. It was acknowledged that time and funding restrictions limited the number of courses that could be attended. Exceptions to those restrictions were equal opportunities courses. Little mention was made of the Inset courses received by teachers on the five school closure days, and what mention was made was very negative. The quality of such courses was considered to be extremely poor. The Teacher Training Agency (TTA) noted that many schools did not use the five closure days as part of a planned professional development and failed to co-ordinate opportunities for 'on-the-job' development, with the result that teachers failed to improve their teaching skills or learn new management skills. The position may be much worse than believed with teachers at best ignoring training received on the closure days, and at worse regarding such training in a very negative light.

7.11.4 Self-Directed/Informal Learning

7.11.4.1 It is, nowadays, generally perceived that to secure a senior manager's position in a secondary school it is necessary to hold a Masters degree. Most senior managers and half the aspirants held Masters degrees, with a number of other aspirants either studying for such a degree or having tried and abandoned an attempt to obtain such a degree. Over eighty-five per cent of the senior managers and aspirants who held a Masters degree had obtained the degree after the commencement of their teaching career. Some had been supported by their school financially and/or in time, others were self-financing. Other senior
managers and aspirants had obtained lesser qualifications. Fewer classroom
teachers (approximately a quarter of those interviewed) had obtained further
qualifications since commencing teaching, but none had obtained a qualification
as high as that of a Masters degree.

7.11.4.2 Other than studying for further qualifications, the most popular
form of self-directed/informal CPD was reading. A big majority of teachers at all
levels listed reading as part of their CPD. The Times Educational Supplement
(TES) was the most quoted example of publications read by the interviewees. In
addition to a welter of articles on education, this journal is also the largest source
of school job vacancies. Two aspirants stated that preparing job applications
formed quite a major part of their present CPD. Twenty per cent of both aspirants
and teachers, of whom a number had purchased their own personal computer,
spent time improving their computer skills. Computer skills or information
technology were not mentioned by the senior managers.

7.11.5 Time Spent on CPD

7.11.5.1 The majority of the interviewees found it impossible to state how
much time they spent on CPD in an average week, although the implication was
that the senior managers, in general, spent more time than the aspirants who in
turn spent more time than the teachers. With a few exceptions, only those
interviewees who spent little time on their CPD were able to quote with any
degree of accuracy the actual time so spent. In the vast majority of cases these
were classroom teachers, one-third of whom spent two hours or less per week on
CPD, with some stating that they spent no time in any week on CPD. Of those
who stated they spent a little time on CPD, at least one stated that the CPD time was accumulated in attending compulsory staff meetings.

7.11.6 Appraisal

7.11.6.1 The TTA stated that the use of appraisal varied considerably from school to school with some schools having stopped appraisal altogether. None of the schools involved in the research had reached that bottom line, but, equally so, it could not be argued that any of the schools had implemented a successful appraisal scheme. At best, the reactions to appraisal could only be described as mixed. There was often a difference in perception between those senior managers responsible in a school for the introduction of appraisal, who considered the scheme to be successful, and some of the classroom teachers in the same school who held diametrically opposite opinions. But many of the senior managers did not actually believe that appraisal was successful. Allowing people to choose, in some cases, their appraisers and, in all cases, the particular skills which were to be appraised resulted, as far as the senior managers were concerned in an appraisal environment which was a safe and soft option.

7.11.6.2 Although most of the senior managers and aspirants had been appraised, this was not always the case with the classroom teachers despite the requirement that every teacher should be appraised every two years. In some instances those most vigorous in their dislike and opposition to appraisal managed to avoid the process altogether. It appeared that a subjective selection process for appraisal was prevalent in some of the schools. In other instances, the appraisal of an individual teacher had not been completed despite the process having commenced months or even years beforehand.
7.11.6.3 Reactions to INSET training for appraisal was again mixed. Some teachers were happy with the training they received, others in the same school, and having attended the same training, were not enthusiastic. In some schools it was not possible to reconcile senior managers' accounts of the training delivered to the staff with the recollections of that training by some of those self-same staff.

7.11.7 Planning of CPD

7.11.7.1 As stated earlier some of the six schools at which the research took place could demonstrate practical evidence of involvement in staff development, rather than just having a notional and, probably, ignored staff development programme. What each school's staff development programme, whether theoretical or practical, failed to demonstrate was how far, or how little, the programme had permeated the whole school and, thus, helped to develop a culture of staff development that encompassed all of the teaching staff throughout the whole school. As the interviews proceeded it became evident that, in all the schools, staff development was, in general, much more of a concern for those teachers high on the managerial ladder, with a diminishing of interest the lower teachers were on the hierarchical scale. The more senior position a teacher held then the more likely that he or she was involved in the school staff development programme. The interest of such individuals went beyond the whole school programme, and was shown in the extent and variety of their own personal development and the amount of time they devoted to that development. The less senior a teacher, in terms of the hierarchical scale, the narrower their personal development interests, and the less time given to personal development if, indeed, any time was given at all.
Three (30%) senior managers and four (29%) aspirants volunteered the information that they planned their CPD, but only two people, one person in each category, claimed that their CPD had been planned from the start of their career. The remainder, of those who stated they planned their CPD, reported that initially the planning had been in reaction or response to situations, but had changed gradually to being a proactive process. No classroom teacher stated that their CPD was planned.

There is no doubt that some classroom teachers do not have the slightest interest in CPD and, for themselves, are actively against the concept and against any form of staff development. Other classroom teachers are interested in gaining as much development as is possible, but find that their development progress is impeded by a lack of resources, including funding resources. It appears to be that many schools have a tendency to concentrate their resources on their supposed 'high-fliers', with the result that there is a very uneven and unequal spread of training across the whole school staff. Development training results in the 'haves' and the 'have-nots'. Most of the training received by the 'have-nots' is through INSET and the five school closure days, and such training is generally considered by the recipients to be of dubious quality and to be inadequate. The challenge for the Teacher Training Agency is to ensure that CPD is implemented across the board in schools as a visible and viable process, and that the process can bring benefits to not only the professional life of the teacher but to the total life of the teacher. The implementation, however, is unlikely to be successful without adequate funding and time resources. Those teachers already interested in the development of their skills will embrace the concept of CPD. Those neutral to, or opposed to development will ignore the new processes. If members of the teaching profession are required to produce evidence of thirty-five hours of CPD
activity per year as are, for example, members of the Institute of Personnel and Development, then evidence will be produced. Whether the 'evidence' in many cases will be a true record of developmental work is perhaps unlikely. For CPD to be successful, the individual must have ownership of his or her own CPD. Many teachers, as has been demonstrated here, are simply not interested. CPD will be perceived by them to be yet another Government intervention causing a further extension to an already crowded personal timetable.

7.11.7.4 The problem for staff development and CPD within school is encapsulated by the recent problems encountered by the school mentioned earlier that had combined its staff development programme with a local institute of higher education in order that interested members of staff could obtain further academic qualifications. First of all, those members of staff who did not wish to extend their CPD to the extent of gaining further qualifications, but were still interested in their development, tended to be ignored by the system. Latterly, the two prime movers of the initiative in the school have obtained more senior posts in other schools. Without the drive and expertise of these two people, the school staff development plan has ceased to exist.

7.12 The Value of CPD

7.12.1 The progress of the research served to highlight the varied approach and commitment that teachers had to their professional development. Many teachers devoted considerable time and effort to their development, and were continually seeking new approaches to, and new ideas for, the improvement of their professional skills. At the opposite end of the scale were teachers who had no interest whatsoever in any form of professional development. This group is
exemplified by the teacher who, when being interviewed claimed to 'avoid being trained and avoided professional development' considering so much of it to be 'a complete waste of time.' If the two groups of teachers, one group totally committed to their professional development and the other group against any professional development, were to be labelled as opposite ends of a continuum of commitment to professional development, then the research has shown that other teachers can be placed at all levels along the continuum.

7.12.2 Reflection by the author on the varying commitment shown by teachers to their professional development extended to the author beginning to feel doubts concerning the value of any enforced system of continuing professional development imposed on teachers by the Teacher Training Agency. If some teachers can at present successfully, from their point of view, avoid any form of professional development and can avoid the mandatory process of appraisal, then there is, at least, the potential to avoid any official system of continuing professional development. Even if the system were to entail individual completion of an annual report of development undertaken by each teacher in the preceding twelve months, the question arises as to what is to prevent a teacher falsifying his or her report. It should be pointed out that these doubts are not a reflection solely on the propriety of teachers, but extend to any system of continuing professional development imposed by any professional body on its members. The doubts felt by the author in regard to execution of continuing professional development, and to self-reporting of development undertaken, were echoed in a recent article concerning medical practitioners and their response to the introduction of continuing medical education.
7.12.3 An anonymous column entitled 'a doctor blabs' is a feature of the magazine Rx which is issued weekly with the Sunday Telegraph newspaper. The magazine is devoted to health and fitness topics, and the column casts a cynical eye on the activities of physicians. The column of the 13 July 1997 issue was devoted to the topic of Continuing Medical Education (CME).

7.12.4 The author, who claims to be a doctor, stated that a doctor who was appointed as a consultant or as a General Practitioner (GP) partner enjoyed a high degree of job security. In many cases the result of such job security was that professionalism gave way to complacency. The Royal Medical Colleges, which monitor standards in the profession, discovered that treatments of particular conditions, e.g. breast cancer, varied wildly, and, consequently, so did the outcomes for the patients. The Royal Medical Colleges, therefore, introduced the concept of CME to ensure that consultants and GP partners continued their medical education, and were up-to-date with the rapid advancements that now occur in medical science.

7.12.5 Under the requirements of CME, and in order to maintain their position, doctors have to obtain a required number of points in a fixed time period, the points being awarded for attending conferences and lectures, writing articles and books, or for reading about advances in the doctor's specialism.

7.12.6 The columnist points out the loopholes in the system. Despite being paid the sum of £2000 per annum as an inducement to attend conferences, many doctors signed the conference register on the first morning of the conference but, singularly, failed to attend any lectures. Acknowledgement that such behaviour existed was shown by the fact that the Royal Medical Colleges had to tighten the
rules of CME approved conferences to require that doctors now sign in at every session of a conference in order to be granted the CME points. However, the advent of CME has spawned an industry of CME approved conferences, and it is possible for doctors to attend a number of conferences, earn CME points for each conference, and yet receive the same information at each conference. Furthermore, attendance levels at conferences are linked to the popularity of the conference venue. In the early part of the year, conference venues are likely to be situated in ski resorts, whilst in autumn the most popular venue is the Caribbean. The inference is that the conferences are still being treated more as a holiday than as an educational event. No conferences are arranged for the summer months as doctors are invariably on holiday.

7.12.7 Turning to the reading of journals, the columnist would like to know how it is possible to check that somebody has indeed read the article or journal that they have claimed to have read and for which they have claimed CME points.

7.12.8 In summary, it can be seen that, although the 'evidence' provided is totally of an anecdotal nature, the columnist is extremely cynical with regard to the efficacy of Continuous Medical Education and, by extension, cynical with regard to any self-reporting system of continuous professional development.
7.13 CPD Honesty Questionnaire

7.13.1 The views of the anonymous writer of the article coincided with questions that were being raised in the mind of the author of this programme of research. To ascertain the value, or otherwise, of these questions or doubts, the decision was made to conduct a survey of professionals who were members of professional institutions which had introduced compulsory or voluntary systems of continuing professional development for their members. The object of the survey was to find the degree of honesty with which the professionals completed annual reports of their CPD. The survey consisted of a simple questionnaire (see Appendix C) which was to be completed anonymously. The questionnaire asked for the respondent’s profession, job title, age, professional association, whether the association had introduced CPD as a compulsory or voluntary measure, was the CPD self-certifying, and the honesty or otherwise of the respondent when completing the self-certifying form.

7.13.2 Through a nursing contact and a midwife contact of the author, one hundred questionnaires were distributed to the midwifery unit of a general hospital, to the nursing staff of a private hospital and to a group of senior nursing managers who were attending a regional council meeting. Thirty-nine volunteers in all completed the questionnaire, of whom twenty-five were midwives and fourteen were nurses.

7.13.3 Three midwives held the title of Senior Midwife and twenty-two were midwives of varying grades. Three of the nurses were Matron Managers, four were Sisters, one was a Staff Nurse, five were Registered General Nurses, and one was a State Enrolled Nurse. Sixty-four per cent of the respondents from both
groups were in the age group thirty to forty-nine, with more of the remainder of the midwives being aged under thirty than aged fifty or over and the reverse applying in the case of the nurses. There was thus a wide spread of age and experience covered within the survey. The midwives were members of the Royal College of Midwives, and the nurses were members of the Royal College of Nursing.

7.13.4 Eighteen (72%) midwives stated that they were totally honest when they completed the self-certification of their CPD and eleven (79%) of the nurses stated the same. Seven (28%) of the midwives and three (21%) of the nurses stated, however, only that they were mainly honest in completing their self-certification. In other words, there was admittance by more than one-quarter of those surveyed (26%) that they employed a degree of dishonesty, even if that degree was possibly relatively small, when completing the self-certification of CPD undertaken. None of the midwives or nurses admitted to being only slightly honest or being completely false when completing their self-certification. The terms 'mainly' and 'slightly' were deliberately chosen for the questionnaire as it was believed that a general question was more likely to be answered rather than any attempt to strictly quantify the amount of honesty (or dishonesty).

7.13.5 The age or position of the midwife or nurse did nor have an effect on the honesty of the self-certification. The fact that such a large proportion of midwives and nurses were not totally honest in the completion of the self-certification of their CPD raises questions as to whether they have undertaken the development that they claim, and whether any learning processes have taken place. The value of the whole concept of CPD is obviously negated when professional practitioners submit false claims of development that they have undertaken.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Midwives. n=25</th>
<th>Nurses n=14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior midwives.</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>3 (21%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwives.</td>
<td>22 (88%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matron Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (21%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Nurse</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered General Nurse</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Enrolled Nurse</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>6 (24%)</td>
<td>2 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>9 (36%)</td>
<td>7 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>7 (28%)</td>
<td>2 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>3 (21%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CPD is compulsory/voluntary.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD is compulsory</td>
<td>19 (76%)</td>
<td>14(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD is voluntary.</td>
<td>6 (24%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Certification of CPD.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD is self-certifying</td>
<td>17 (68%)</td>
<td>14(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD is not self-certifying.</td>
<td>8 (32%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Honesty.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally honest when self-certifying</td>
<td>18 (72%)</td>
<td>11 (79%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly honest when self-certifying</td>
<td>7 (28%)</td>
<td>3 (21%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Analysis of the midwives and nurses questionnaire.
7.13.6 Of equal concern is the fact that six (24%) of the midwives believed that CPD is a voluntary process. The United Kingdom Central Council for Nursing, Midwifery and Health Visiting (UKCC) has four statutory requirements for practitioners to maintain effective registration on the UKCC Professional Register. Under the heading of Post-Registration Education and Practice (PREP) the four statutory requirements are:

1. Completion of five study days every three years
2. Completion of a Notification of Practice form every three years
3. Completion of a Return to Practice programme if the practitioner has had a break in practice of five years or more
4. Maintenance of details of professional development in a personal professional profile.

7.13.7 The minimum of five days (or equivalent) study every three years must be on relevant topics for professional development and updating. The UKCC sets out five categories into which appropriate development and updating must fit. The five categories are:

1. Reducing risk
2. Care enhancement
3. Client and colleague support
4. Practice development
5. Education development.
7.13.8 For each of the five categories, the UKCC lists a number of potential development examples. The intention of the UKCC is for personal and professional growth to be non-prescriptive, with more control and choice over their development given to the individual midwife. The personal professional profile must contain a summary of key personal and professional details, plus a record of learning experiences and a record of professional development.

7.13.9 The UKCC states that it intends to trust practitioners on its Register to confirm honestly that they have fulfilled all the requirements for effective registration, but that there will be a random audit of profiles to evaluate standards and identify those who need help and advice in the early years of the new requirements. Any practitioner found to be guilty of deliberately and fraudulently falsifying their profile may be subject to professional conduct disciplinary process.

7.13.10 Completion of CPD for midwives is thus a mandatory and statutory process, omission of which would result in the loss of ability to practice. That nearly a quarter of the midwives who completed the questionnaire do not realise the implications of not maintaining their professional development can only be described as worrying. The concept of PREP was first proposed in 1990, and went through a comprehensive consultative progress stage between 1991 and 1993. In 1994 standards were agreed and PREP was introduced on 1 April 1995. During the six years that PREP took to come on line, a range of publicity activities were undertaken including conferences across the United Kingdom, articles in the professional press and in the UKCC's publication register. Fact sheets were prepared in order that all registered nurses, midwives and health
visitors had their own personal set of information on the requirements which affected their continuing registration with the UKCC. It is accepted that the first practitioners to renew their registration under the new system will not do so until April 1998, but equally all practitioners renewing their registration after March 1995 were given an explanation of what the UKCC required of them when they were next to renew their registration. With registration occurring every three years, that means that the vast majority of practitioners will have renewed their registration and received full information of what is required under PREP. In short, there would appear to be no reason why a midwife should not have knowledge of what is required for renewal of registration yet the responses to the questionnaire show that this is obviously not the case. Interestingly, the nurses would have received the same information from the UKCC as did the midwives, and all fourteen (100%) of the nurses understood what is required of them for renewal of their registration. Similarly all the nurses understood that the system of reporting their CPD was by self-certification, but eight (32%) of the midwives did not realise that this was what was required of them. The only possible explanation for the discrepancy in the perception of the midwives and nurses is that, even prior to PREP, midwives had to renew their registration every five years whilst the same requirement did not exist for nurses. It is possible that some of the midwives may be confusing the requirements of the old and the new systems.

7.13.11 Concern also arises as to the quality and quantity of the professional development undertaken, if midwives believe that their professional development is voluntary rather than mandatory. It should be noted that when the individual midwife believed that professional development was compulsory the level of honesty in self-certification of professional development was higher than when the midwife believed that self-certification was voluntary. Although those who
believed that professional development was voluntary amounted to slightly less than one-quarter of those surveyed, they accounted for slightly more than half of those who admitted to some dishonesty in the completion of their self-certification. The strength of belief in CPD of the professional association or ruling body of the profession would thus appear to have an effect on the strength of belief in CPD of the individual members of the association. When the professional association has a strong enough conviction in the concept of CPD to deem it mandatory for its members, and the members are aware of this, then more members will undertake development, and be in a position to honestly record such development, than when CPD is deemed to be voluntary. However, as is shown in the case of both the midwives and the nurses, this does not totally apply. Some midwives and some nurses submitted false claims of CPD even though they understood that completion of CPD was mandatory.

7.13.12 What is demonstrated by the survey is that reliance on individual self-certification of CPD undertaken is a process that is open to abuse, and a process of which some members will take advantage. The UKCC states that it intends to trust practitioners on its Register, but will also conduct a random audit of profiles. How an audit can prove honesty or prove a lack of honesty on the part of a practitioner has yet to be demonstrated.

7.13.13 If any professional association or ruling body of a profession wishes to ensure that the concept of CPD has value for its members, and for the profession as a whole, then it is necessary for the profession to introduce a strong controlling mechanism for evaluating the CPD of every member of that profession. A particular suggestion is that each member of the profession, in addition to the record of their CPD undertaken, produces a reflective journal that demonstrates
the learning that has been gained from the development undertaken. Without learning there is no development. The effort to fake a reflective journal would probably be harder, and require more work, than that necessary to produce an honest journal. Naturally, guidelines on reflective journals would need to be produced by the professional association, and a strong system of marking/auditing/evaluating the completed journals would need to be put in place. Such requirements would entail, possibly, considerable costs. For the teaching profession, however, it is argued that the costs involved in such a system would be minimal as a checking system is already in place. Reading and evaluation of reflective journals and the CPD records of teachers could simply be added to the procedures of school OFSTED inspections.

7.14 Conclusion

7.14.1 The advent of the concept of CPD can be traced from the theories of Ginzberg (1972) and Super (1984) who were pioneers in the belief that career development was a lifelong process, and through the work of theorists such as Hall (1976) and Schein (1978) who believed that each individual must take responsibility for managing his or her own career (see literature review Chapter 2). The realisation, by employees, that organisations can no longer be trusted to look after the individual career, embodied by the loss of effective job security, has accentuated the necessity for individuals to accept responsibility for their lifelong career development. The need, according to Spurling (1995), is for individuals to develop flexible careers which are sustained by continuous learning. The drive towards continuous learning, of which CPD is a key element, is mainly through professional bodies, and some large organisations, with the Engineering Council and the Institute of Personnel and Development being amongst the leaders in the introduction of the concept.
Rapkins (1996) noted that what she termed ‘old and established’ professional bodies tended to have mandatory policies of CPD, whilst what she termed ‘new and/or developing’ professional bodies were more likely to have voluntary CPD policies. Mandatory policies demonstrated commitment to the professional standards and the continuing competence of the members of the profession, whilst voluntary policies were an attempt to raise the standards and profile of the professional body through demonstrating the continuing competence of its professionals. Professional bodies with mandatory policies monitored their members compliance with regulations, whilst professional bodies with voluntary policies generally required that their members self-monitored their learning outcomes. Whichever method of monitoring was employed, self-certification of the CPD undertaken was required. And it is here where lies the weakness of CPD. This programme of research has shown, through its investigation of midwives and nurses as reported earlier in this chapter, that self-certifying systems of CPD are open to abuse. Over twenty-five per cent of a sample of midwives and nurses admitted that they were dishonest when completing self-certified reports of CPD. Doubts on the verification of the CPD of medical doctors have also been expressed. The monitoring and audit systems that professions have in place, if they have any, are perceived as not being rigorous enough to prevent cheating, if cheating is so desired.

The reasons for this lack of rigour are two-fold. The first reason is the impracticality of monitoring unstructured CPD activities, i.e. CPD that is predominantly self-managed and that does not entail involvement with other persons. The second reason is the cost of monitoring all CPD activities, whether structured or unstructured, of every member of a profession. Even those professions that have a monitoring and audit scheme in place can only afford, in terms of money and time, the investigation of the CPD activities of a small percentage of their members.
7.14.4 Any profession that has instituted a monitoring and audit process of CPD is tacitly acknowledging the possibility of dishonesty in self-certification of CPD, and tacitly admitting a potential weakness in the system of CPD. But tacit acknowledgements and admissions apart, the literature on CPD does not discuss any possible weaknesses in the system. As stated in Chapter 2, the majority of the literature on CPD is derived from the professions, and with CPD meant to demonstrate commitment to professional standards and competence it cannot be expected that methods of circumventing the system will be aired. What must be stated is that CPD is a valuable developmental tool for the individual, the profession and the organisation, but for full value to be obtained strong monitoring and audit processes must be put in place.

7.14.5 CPD is being introduced to the teaching profession through the aegis of the Government, and not through the profession itself. The policy of the Government, through the TTA, is that CPD for teachers should be voluntary rather than mandatory. But as has been shown earlier in this chapter, some teachers have little, if any, commitment to personal development. This lack of commitment, allied to a voluntary policy of CPD, must call into question the value of CPD as a developmental tool both for the individual teacher and for the teaching profession as a whole. The concept of CPD is excellent, but the application of CPD is not necessarily of the same standard. Without a strongly monitored, audited, and mandatory policy of CPD it is more than likely that some teachers will abuse the system, as this research has shown to happen in other professions. A system of CPD for teachers that is known to be open to abuse will likely imitate the appraisal system in schools - little used and of little value. For CPD for the teaching profession to be of value, the CPD records of individual teachers must be accountable to the senior management of the school, the governors of the school, and to OFSTED inspection.
7.14.6 As was demonstrated earlier in this chapter, senior managers in the teaching profession were, in general, more committed to CPD than were the aspirants to senior manager positions who, in turn, were more committed to CPD than were the classroom teachers. Some classroom teachers spent no time or very little time on CPD. CPD as a monitored system applicable to all teachers will result in increased development for most, if not all, teachers and will serve to reduce the gap in development between senior managers and classroom teachers. Such increased development will result in a narrowing of the difference between the two orientation of teachers that were shown in the model of teachers' careers (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.5).
8.0 HOURS

8.1 Introduction

8.1.1 For those teachers who have decided not to pursue a career up the management ladder, a strong factor influencing their decision was the large number of working hours deemed necessary by those who have obtained a management position or who seek management promotion. Without exception, all the teachers involved in the research worked additional hours either at school, or at home, or at both school and home. The classroom teachers questioned the over-long working hours of the senior managers. Many classroom teachers, however, worked extra hours in second jobs. The hours that teachers work is the fourth factor identified (see Chapter 4) as having an affect on teachers’ career options.

8.2 Teachers’ Working Hours

8.2.1 Mooney (1994) stated that a number of surveys have shown that the average time spent on work during a term-time week to be between fifty and fifty-five hours for secondary school teachers and fifty hours for primary teachers. If it is accepted that the average school day is approximately six hours long and the average school week thirty hours long, then teachers are working on average twenty hours per week over and above their contracted time. Although some work out of school time involves pupil contact, the majority of this ‘overtime’ is due to administration and school management duties. It is arguable that the higher
the management position reached then the more likely the increase in administration and school management tasks, and the likelihood that the more senior the teacher the longer the hours worked. If, as stated, teachers are working on average twenty hours per week over and above their contracted time, then it is probable that some teachers will be working thirty hours and more 'overtime' whilst others are working ten hours and less. Thus some teachers will have a term-time working week of sixty hours or more, much of which time is spent, as stated earlier, on non-productive work. Bercusson (1994) reports that The Council of Ministers of the European Union approved, on 23 November 1993, a Council directive on the organisation of working time. Article 6 of that directive prescribes a maximum working week of forty-eight hours, including overtime.

8.2.2 It was found that all the teachers interviewed for this research worked additional hours over and above those of the normal school day. Management teachers, defined for the purposes of the research as headteachers and deputy headteachers, worked on average an additional thirty-two and three-quarters hours per week. Those aspiring to management worked an average of twenty-four and a half additional hours, whilst classroom based teachers averaged seventeen and a half additional hours per week. The overall average was an extra twenty-two hours per week thus confirming previous research as indicated by Mooney (1994). Individually, the additional hours ranged from an extra five hours per week to an extra fifty-one and a half hours per week. Although there were variances in the groups, in general classroom based teachers worked less hours than those who were either in management positions or were seeking such a position. It should be noted that the two management teachers who worked the most hours per week of all the teachers interviewed, each approximately working an eighty hour week, have both recently had to receive medical attention and time off work for stress-
related illness (Scannell 1995). A 1995 report by Austin Knight, Europe's largest recruitment organisation, confirms that working long hours is not endemic only to teachers. Twenty-five per cent of British men regularly work fifty hours or more per week. Most employees believe that working long hours is now a regular feature of the workplace and a necessity if career advancement is to be obtained. The report concludes that the culture of long hours has reached epidemic standards and threatens economic recovery, health and family life. The damage to health brought about by working long hours is obviously a major cause of concern. What should also be of concern is some of the duties undertaken, which help to accumulate the high total of hours worked.

8.3 Administration Time

8.3.1 Regardless of whether they have a management or classroom bias, teachers spend an inordinate amount of time on administration and management. A Warwick University study in 1991, quoted by Mooney (1994), reported that secondary school teachers taught for thirty-one per cent only of their working week. According to a report by the National Commission on Education (1993) much of the remainder of the time is spent by teachers on duties that do not require a qualified teacher to do them. Amongst examples given in the report are marking attendance registers, supervising the playground, issuing and collecting notes to parents, collecting money, photocopying worksheets and preparing displays.

8.3.2 Without any prompting on the part of the author, a number of classroom teachers voiced their disquiet concerning regular administration duties carried out by senior managers which, in the opinion of the classroom teachers, should not
have formed part of senior management responsibilities. One particular classroom teacher commented on the stress she felt at regularly seeing the deputy headteachers at her school doing minor jobs such as the putting out of chairs in the school hall.

8.3.3 A particular and time-consuming example of such a regular duty was witnessed by the author during time spent at one of the schools that took part in the research. A deputy headteacher spent a minimum of three-quarters of an hour every lunchtime issuing duplicate bus passes to pupils who had either lost or mislaid their bus pass, or had simply left the pass at home. The deputy headteacher in question worked long hours at school, and also worked at home a minimum of four nights per week and every weekend. He claimed to work an additional twenty-seven and a half hours per week outside of school hours, but observation of his working day together with comments received from his colleagues, gave the impression that this was a very conservative estimate. When the author queried the necessity of the bus pass duty, and suggested that a short break from work at lunchtime would be beneficial to the deputy headteacher, the reply received was that he, personally, had to do the duty as he could not entrust such work to any other member of staff. Whilst accepting that the individual in question was a hard-working and competent professional who was well-respected by colleagues, pupils and parents alike, the question has to be voiced as to how many hours of his working week were spent on such mundane duties, why he felt unable to delegate simple duties, and what effect his long working hours were having on his total working performance.
8.3.4 In presentations given to various groups on the research, the author has made a point of mentioning what he terms 'the bus pass syndrome'. Whether the presentation was made to groups of teachers or to groups of professionals who were non education related, without exception members of each audience have always volunteered examples of similar regular non productive and non cost-effective duties carried out by their particular senior managers. Comments invariably follow on the negative effects that such actions have on the other members of staff.

8.3.5 A classroom teacher commented on the stress and frustration attached to attending meetings and discussions that she perceived were held only to justify the status of the person calling the meeting. Here, all attendees at the meetings were working additional hours for little or no perceived results. The classroom teacher stated that such meetings caused her stress which was far in excess of any stress that resulted from her classroom duties.

8.3.6 A general comment by another classroom teacher referred to the 'awful' amount of time wasted by senior management.

8.3.7 Other classroom teachers, again with no prompting on behalf of the author, commented on the hours worked by some members of senior management. One teacher stated her admiration for a particular senior manager who she believed to be a hard worker. Nevertheless, she felt that the inordinate amount of time and effort that that senior manager put into his job 'spoilt it' for others who cannot be expected to work to what she termed to be 'abnormal' standards. A second teacher stated, somewhat similarly, that he looked at a particular senior manager and the sacrifices the senior manager had made in relation to time spent working
and time spent with family. The classroom teacher had no wish to make such sacrifices himself. A third teacher remarked that she admired colleagues who arrived very early in school, but was not prepared to do so herself.

**8.3.8** A number of the senior managers, in their own structured interviews, reflected the comments of their more junior colleagues. One senior manager volunteered the comment that he was afraid of burning out. He was looking to retire at the age of fifty-five, and was making pension provisions for that early retirement. A second senior manager regretted the time he had spent on the job that he now considered should have been spent with his wife and family. In hindsight, he now realised that over the last nineteen out of twenty years he had sacrificed an awful lot in terms of personal relationships. He concluded his statement with the sad comment that he did not really know his sons for the first two to three years of their life.

**8.3.9** A third senior manager reversed the comment on performance of mundane duties. She claimed that teachers were not organised, and gave as an example seeing teachers queuing to use a photocopier when the school had an administrative assistant to do such jobs.

**8.4 Concurrent Careers**

**8.4.1** In a surprisingly large number of instances, the teachers who do not take management positions, at least partly due to the amount of time the positions require, opt to use the time 'saved' by working in a second or concurrent job. Many classroom based teachers will work the same amount of hours as teachers on the management ladder, with the difference that classroom based teachers
choose to do their work in a setting other than the school (Scannell 1995). Some have jobs connected with education such as taking evening classes in further education or conducting personal tuition classes. Some, particularly those whose subject is arts or craft related, have a second job based on the subject they teach but outside of education e.g. an art teacher who receives regular painting commissions. Others have jobs not connected with teaching. Examples highlighted by the research included owning and managing a light engineering company, owning and managing an insurance brokerage, network marketing, managing an office cleaning business, taxi driving, professional sports referees, professional gambler. If professional gambling appears to be an unusual second occupation for a teacher, the author can report that when discussing the findings of the research with a deputy headteacher whose school had not taken part in the research, the deputy headteacher immediately stated that a member of her school staff also had a second income from professional gambling! Some teachers had second jobs which involved responsibility and time commitment, although the 'jobs' were, perhaps, not financially rewarded. Examples in this category included church minister, lay pastor, and leading a community project. Most, although not all, of the teachers with second jobs were male classroom based teachers. In all ten teachers, representing nineteen per cent of those interviewed, reported a second income, of which the income of seven teachers (13%) came from non-educational work. Female based classroom teachers often reported that they limited the hours they spent on school work in order to devote as much time as possible to their own families. These findings confirm a study by Sikes (1985) which she conducted into secondary school teachers' perceptions and adaptation to reduced promotional opportunities consequent upon falling school rolls. She found, in a survey of 105 male teachers, that over ten per cent had business/commercial interests including shops, restaurants, a market garden, a
travel agency, a publishing company, and antique china repairs. Sikes also reported a gender difference in that women make the largest investment of their time in their families.

8.4.2 Financial reward, as has been shown, is not the only motive for taking a second job or building up a concurrent career. Researchers have highlighted a number of reasons for taking such a step. Levinson et al (1978) in their research on life and career development describe the Age Thirty Transition as a period, for many people, to establish a stable career basis and plan a life structure for the future. This period is followed by a Settling Down phase where the end point of the career comes into view. It is during this period that the decision to build up an alternative career is made. Sikes (1985) argued that those teachers who, by the age of forty, have not reached the positions they hoped for have to come to terms with where they are. Some adapt both their perception and the nature of the commitment to their job. They change from seeing teaching as a career in which they hope to reach a senior position to viewing teaching as a worthwhile and interesting job in itself. Some decide that the efforts required to obtain a senior post are wasteful and so cut down on what they do, while others build up an alternative career.

8.4.3 Bennet (1985) states that art teachers have poor perceptions of career opportunities within the educational system. Bennet found that factors inhibiting art teachers' promotion include the low status of art as compared to more academic subjects, and poor regard both of art teachers' capabilities and their academic qualifications. He believes that art teachers may understand 'career opportunities' in broader terms than advancement in the formal hierarchy, and that continued development in their subject area may hold or create opportunities in career
development outside teaching. Career needs and satisfaction are met through involvement in activities outside teaching, not simply as an extension of the teaching career, but, in some cases, as a concurrent career. He suggests that the development of a concurrent career in an enterprise outside of teaching can provide material and/or psychic rewards in return for the investment of time, energy and, possibly, emotions.

8.4.4 Crowther (1993) quotes a 1990 report of the Queensland Board of Teaching Education which stated that 'Teaching appears to be of low and decreasing attractiveness, relative to other professions, as indicated both by the quantity and quality of those choosing and remaining in teaching as a career.' (p. 9). Pearce (1993) states that only a minority of teachers are there because teaching is what they actually want to do. With senior members of the teaching profession expressing such thoughts, it, perhaps, should not come as a surprise to learn that many teachers are not gaining career satisfaction from teaching, and that some teachers will seek to gain that satisfaction from pursuing a concurrent career.

8.4.5 Within any profession, occupation or organisation there will always be, at any given time, people who are disenchanted with the present state, or supposed future state, of their career. The high number of teachers who feel that way leads to conjecture as to how members of the teaching profession compare with members of other professions. An interesting and useful avenue for extension of this research would be to investigate whether, for example, solicitors, accountants and engineers view their career and their career prospects in the same light as that of teachers, and if so, whether members of such professions engage in concurrent careers to the same extent as do members of the teaching profession.
8.5 Conclusion

8.5.1 Research undertaken by Mooney (1994), and by the School Teachers’ Review Body, as reported by Dean (1997) and Passmore (1996) (see Chapter 10), demonstrates as incorrect the oft-held belief that teachers work only during school opening hours, with a resultant working week shorter than that of the average full-time working professional and/or full-time working employee. Actual teaching duties are shown to amount for only approximately one-third of teachers’ working time. This programme of research supports the findings of Mooney and the School Teachers Review Body, and further shows that the higher a teacher is up the management ladder then the more hours a teacher is likely to work and the more hours are spent on management and administration rather than on actual teaching.

8.5.2 Many of the additional hours are, however, spent on mundane tasks that possibly should be carried out by junior teaching staff or by non-teaching staff. Twenty-one (70%) of the classroom teachers interviewed for this research stated that the additional hours that had to be worked, in order that they kept on top of their job, was a factor of concern and stress to them. Seven (33%) classroom teachers declared outright that they had not sought promotion up the management ladder because of the extra hours that would be required of them in a post of greater responsibility. Other classroom teachers implied the same, though stopping short of expressing such a statement. The research has demonstrated, however, that classroom oriented teachers work a similar amount of hours to those of management oriented teachers. But whereas the management teachers’ additional hours are devoted to school and school duties, the classroom teachers’ additional hours encompass interests outside of school and school commitments.
9.0 AGE

9.1 Introduction

9.1.1 The United Kingdom, unlike some other countries, e.g. the United States, Canada, France, and Germany does not have an Age Discrimination Act in relation to employment. Indeed, a Private Members Bill advocating a ban on job advertisements which specify an upper age limit was presented to the House of Commons in February 1996, and was defeated. According to Worsley (1996) there are four major causes of discrimination: sex, race, disability and age, and of the four, in the United Kingdom, only discrimination on the grounds of age has no legislation addressing it. Although none of the teachers interviewed in this research protested that they were being discriminated against, nevertheless age was a very important factor in the consideration of how they viewed their future career prospects. Age is the fifth factor identified (see Chapter 4) as having an affect on teachers’ career options.

9.2 Age and Career Opportunities

9.2.1 Many teachers in the forties age group felt that promotion was close to being a thing of the past, if it had not already reached that stage, and assuming that it was ever wanted in the first place. Few teachers considered that they would be able to change to a new career, especially if they wished to earn the equivalent of their current salary as a teacher. Retirement for most will be a minimum of fifteen
years and a maximum of twenty-five years ahead. For most teachers, therefore, it will be a question of doing the same job year in and year out. If this is the case, it is arguable that the teacher's performance will suffer, and so will the teacher and so will the pupils. Many of the teachers interviewed expressed worries about what they would be doing for the next twenty years. Headteachers were basically looking for early retirement and did not seem to think that other head posts were likely to be offered to them. Deputy headteachers and aspirants seeking deputy headteacher and, later, headteacher posts were worried that if they did not achieve their aims by the time they reached a certain age then they would miss out on promotion altogether. Some aspirants were fairly sure that they did not want to be a headteacher but did want to be a deputy headteacher. If they were to state this at interview they were certain that they would not be offered the deputy headteacher's post, as most school governing boards expect their deputy heads to move on to a headship after a period of about five years. Some aspirants were not sure that they wanted a senior management role because they would prefer to remain classroom based, but they were already in the senior classroom based position and feared for their motivation level and job satisfaction level if they were to be doing the same job for the next twenty years. Classroom based teachers, although they wished to remain classroom based, had similar fears of being trapped in a long-term rut.

9.2.2 These fears and attitudes are nothing new. If the author may be allowed to introduce a personal note into the work, the attitudes certainly were in evidence when he was growing up in South Wales at an age approximately contemporary to that of the interviewees. It was a time when the coal and steel industries were thriving and when, in education, the 11+ examination meant one went on to receive either a grammar school or a secondary school education. In general,
careers for secondary schoolboys meant a job in a colliery or steelworks or a trade apprenticeship to a plumber or electrician or something similar. For the boys who went to grammar school, the career promoted most strongly by the school and by one's parents was teaching. It was the ambition of my father for me to become a teacher, but an ambition that I strongly resisted. From the age of about thirteen, I was convinced that those of my teachers who were over the age of thirty-five were only awaiting retirement. Even at that then somewhat early age, I did not want a job that meant that half way through my working span all that was left was to look forward to retiring. I did not become a teacher. Occasionally, over the ensuing years, I wondered if my thoughts on teachers and teaching were presumptuous or whether they had any substance to them. The answer came from the second teacher interviewed for this research who stated 'I recently attended a Heads of Department course run by the Local Education Authority. All the course members were aged early to middle forties. The major topic of conversation was retirement'.

9.3 Ageism - a Universal Career Problem

9.3.1 The problem of age becoming a barrier to career development is not a problem that relates only to the teaching profession. Goddard (1990) quotes Drucker writing in the *Wall Street Journal* that under present conditions 'people will stay in their present job another thirty years or so. We will have to redesign managerial and professional jobs so that even able people will still be challenged by the job after five or more years in it.' (p. 69). The chairman of IBM UK, Sir Anthony Cleaver, has stated (Gretton, 1994) that delayering may have increased the efficiency of companies but it had also reduced both the motivation and the opportunities of middle managers trying to make it to the top. Drucker (1988)
believes that the typical business twenty years hence will have fewer than half the levels of management of its counterpart today and no more than a third of the managers. The typical business will be knowledge-based, an organisation composed largely of specialists who direct and discipline their own performance through organised feedback from colleagues, customers, and headquarters.

9.3.2 Arnold-Foster (1995) reports that Audit Commission research shows that ninety-four per cent of senior local government managers leave before retirement age, with thirty-eight per cent taking early retirement or voluntary redundancy packages and eleven per cent being made compulsory redundant. For senior managers, the once-accepted usual reasons for departure, reaching retirement age or resignation to take another job, are now in a minority.

9.3.3 Slocum et al (1987) talk of plateauing, which they state refers to the slowing down and the inevitable end of promotions. Plateauing can occur for two reasons: personal and organisational. Personal plateauing occurs when employees decide not to pursue further advancement in the corporation. Although they may have the ability, they have lost the desire to play the tournament mobility game. Organisational plateauing occurs when people want to advance but don't. Either the company has no openings or management believes that the person lacks the executive skills to be promoted. As people climb the corporate pyramid, the number of positions decrease dramatically and the opportunity to continue to move upwards decreases accordingly. This means that plateauing must happen to almost everyone. It is normal, and it has little to do with failure or success. Unfortunately most people regard promotion as the only reward that really counts. Coulson-Thomas (1990) argues that 'Plateaued managers are found particularly in the bureaucratic organisation. As the opportunities for further movement upwards
becomes progressively fewer the 'problem' arises of managers blocking ladders of advancement. By becoming less bureaucratic and more flexible as an organisation and encouraging more work to be undertaken by project groups, task forces and teams, the risk of blocking the career opportunities of younger staff can be reduced.' (p. 6).

9.3.4 Newby (1988) states that there are two options available to counter mid-career demotivation. The first option is simply to 'let them go' cushioned by early-retirement payments, an option generally not available to teachers of the age group concerned. The second option is to improve the rate of return from the individual. The key to this is in remotivating the demotivated. Within work, this is provided by changes in job activities that impose a significant learning requirement on the individual. The goal must be to overcome stagnation and over-conformity and to create new challenges and targets.

9.4 Age and Teacher Career Development

9.4.1 Age affects teachers' career development in a number of ways. The overwhelming worry for those seeking to climb the managerial ladder is the fact that promotion opportunities once the age of forty is reached, and certainly by the mid-forties, become extremely rare if not completely non-existent. There is, thus, the concern of spending the last twenty years of one's career, in effect the second half of the career, in the same job with the fear of consequent demotivation, loss of interest, and falling-off of performance standards. Classroom based teachers, although possibly not seeking promotion, face similar problems of retaining motivation whilst doing the same job over the long term.
9.5 **Headteachers**

9.5.1 Earley et al (1995) refer to a National Foundation for Educational Research longitudinal study of secondary headship which commenced in the early 1980s. After five years, in 1989, just over ten per cent of an original cohort of just over two hundred headteachers had taken up a second headship, with over eighty per cent in the same post. After ten years, seventy out of one hundred respondents were in the same position as they were appointed to in 1982-3, representing one-third of the original cohort. Some of the cohort had retired, some had new jobs, whilst others chose not to continue to partake in the research. Earley et al state that it is apparent that the majority of practising headteachers were still in their initial headships. Thirty per cent of the headteachers reported that they had reached a career and performance plateau, a figure that the researchers considered may well be an underestimate as headteachers were possibly reluctant to describe themselves as being on a plateau. At the start of the research an initial study showed that fifty-seven per cent of the headteachers' predecessors had been in their post for ten years or more, with seventeen per cent in post for twenty years or more. Most of the respondents, nearly ninety per cent, remarked that they were likely to remain at their present school for the rest of their career. Only two out of the one hundred were planning a career move. The headteachers commented that even if they wished to move, they were likely to be regarded by appointment panels now as too old for the challenges of headship. At the age of fifty, people were seen, rightly or wrongly, as 'too old to take on the challenge of a new school.' (p. 30). Experience or maturity was believed to be less important than youth and vigour in selection criteria.
9.5.2 Green (1994) entered teaching during the period of the late 1960s and 1970s when rapid promotion was possible for young teachers due to the reorganisation of schools into the comprehensive sector. Teachers aged in their twenties and thirties had as much experience of the changes then taking place as those aged in their forties and fifties and were thus on an equal footing where promotion was concerned. Green states that 'One of the abiding attractions of headship is the diversity of the job and the fact that the head can, by and large, set his/her own agenda.' (p.166). Nevertheless, after several years in his first headship, and when he reached the age of forty-five, he realised that he was, potentially, committed to the same job for the next twenty years. He wondered how he was going to maintain a high level of commitment to the job when things were becoming more and more routine. Mortimore et al (1988) in relation to junior schools found that headteachers are maximally effective from four to seven years. But for many heads their first headship is also their only headship. The education service has to consider how it can motivate long-serving heads. Green describes himself as fortunate to receive a term's secondment, and then to be appointed as Director of the National Educational Assessment Project (NEAC). An exciting and fresh professional challenge was presented to him for a period of two years before he decided to return to secondary school education and obtained a second headship. He was grateful to receive such opportunities which are not open to the majority. From his experience working with headteachers and deputies on the NEAC project, and his experience of two headships, he states that many headteachers and deputies throughout the United Kingdom are both very tired and very demoralised. In an effort to maintain and, wherever possible, to improve the education service, they have been working far beyond the call of duty for a long time. Green calls for new systems of support and new professional
networks to ensure that the preparation for headship and the nourishment of those in headship are carried out effectively. Action is required at all levels, local, regional and national, to ensure that these support and network systems are put in place. Without such support headteachers will retire early or, at the worst scenario, headship vacancies will not be filled.

9.5.3 Fielding (1994) examined career options open to headteachers aged fifty-plus, who had been in headship for a number of years and were seeking a career move, and found that school governing bodies are reluctant to hire older heads. At fifty one is 'decidedly over the hill.' (p.12). In addition, few advisory teacher education, or consultancy posts are available. Fielding advised that headteachers remain where they are, but acknowledged the implications that may have both for the headteacher and the school. Long-term headteachers need to re-evaluate their job and their approach to the job, in order to stimulate themselves, their staff, and the school.

9.5.4 Haigh (1993) states that these days very few headteachers carry on to the accepted retirement age of sixty-five. There is now in practice a culture in which most heads assume that they will leave their jobs in their fifties, and that they will either retire completely or find something else to do. The number of advisor or inspector positions in education are much fewer than was once previously the case, and, anyway, not all early retired headteachers want to stay in education. An early-leaving headteacher represents a loss of experience and talent from the system, and may well be something that is not easily replaced.

9.5.5 In addition to headteachers leaving their jobs early, there is also a problem in recruitment of candidates for headships. O'Leary (1995) refers to an Oxford
Brookes University School of Education survey conducted in 1995 which reported that schools are facing a long-term shortage of headteachers. The survey states that 1800 of 19,000 primary schools changed their headteacher in 1994, which was an eighteen per cent increase over the previous year, and the trend showed an acceleration in the early part of 1995. In the first week of January 1995, the headship vacancies advertised amounted to five per cent of the total for the whole of 1994. For the first time in five years there was a rise in the number of vacancies for headships. London schools showed the most difficulties with almost one-third of schools having to readvertise their vacancy. Secondary schools showed a similar decline to that of primary schools but of a less serious nature. O'Leary quotes David Hart, the general secretary of the National Association of Head Teachers as stating that the increase in ill-health retirements through stress-related illnesses, coupled with excessive workloads, will inevitably cause the shortage of headteachers to worsen. Hill (1994) refers to a National Association of Head Teachers (NAHT, 1988) survey of all its members who retired in 1988, which found that forty-six per cent of all respondents who retired in the first eight months of 1988, totalling 162 in number, did so because of pressure, stress or disillusionment. John Howson, the deputy head of Oxford Brookes University's school of education is reported by O'Leary as stating that managing reduced budgets and having to make colleagues redundant may be factors that make teachers reluctant to become headteachers.

9.5.6 Part of the reason for the shortage of candidates for headteacher posts is the changed nature of the job. Evetts (1994) studied the work life of twenty secondary headteachers and argued that the work culture of headship has dramatically changed due to factors such as local management of schools, the option of grant maintained status, and increased competition between schools for
the recruitment of pupils. The emphasis of headteachers' work is on management and administration rather than educational leadership and teaching. Headteachers have a much increased workload, and a reduced level of contact with pupils and other members of staff. This, together with an increasingly hierarchical management structure within schools, is resulting in a growing feeling of isolation amongst headteachers. She concludes that educational leadership is not now the major aspect of a headteacher's work, with management and executive efficiency taking precedent. Hargreaves (1994) has proposed the concept of schools being led by a professional chief executive, to administer and manage the school, and a master teacher as the leading educational professional. Frost (1993), a headteacher, argued that there has been dramatic changes in the role of the headteacher since the inception of the national curriculum reforms. Schools have taken over many of the functions previously carried out by local education authorities. Headship is now more business management, accountancy and site management rather than being centrally involved in the teaching and life of the people who really matter in schools: the children.

9.5.7 Brookman (1995) reports that the shortage of headteachers is not endemic to Great Britain alone. He points out that German schools are also facing a huge shortage of headteachers due to little extra money being paid for the added responsibility of headship, and the fact that German headteachers also are saddled with heavy teaching loads. The average German headteacher works 48 hours per week but is paid for only 38.5 hours per week.

9.5.8 A contributing factor to the shortage of headteachers, and also a possible solution, is highlighted by O'Connor (1994) who refers to research by Edwards and Lyons of the East London Business School. They state that almost as many
women as men enter secondary teaching but that women obtain only twenty per cent of available headships. The figure includes girls' only schools, where female headteachers are the norm. There is a wide geographical difference in the number of women headteachers. London and metropolitan boroughs generally employ a larger proportion of women headteachers, whilst rural counties, especially Celtic and Northern counties employ very few women headteachers. Peace (1994) refers to North Yorkshire which in 1991 had only six female secondary headteachers out of a total of sixty secondary headteachers. The county in 1992 had more female than male teachers on the standardised national scale or holding A allowances, but more men than females on B, C, D, and E scales, and holding deputy headships and headships. She concludes that there are many able and talented women whose skills are not being effectively used. Far from being denied top jobs such as headteacher and deputy headteacher posts, the blockage in the system occurs much lower down the career ladder. Reasons discussed by Peace that cause this early blockage include time off work in order to raise a family and having to resign from a job when moving geographical area to support their husband's career. Return to work often meant loss of previous incentive allowances and a drop down the hierarchical scale in order to get a new job. Peace started an informal support and networking group for women headteachers in North Yorkshire which in 1992 totalled only four women heads but by 1994 had grown to a total of nine.

9.5.9 A second solution to the shortage of headteachers is described by Marston (1995) when referring to a headteacher, Nick Nelson, who, he describes, has come to the top job of headteacher via an unconventional route. Marston describes the accession at the age of forty-nine as 'disgracefully late.' (p. 15) Nelson is a rare example of the corporate executive turned teacher. Formerly managing director of
the Post Office's Parcelforce division and the delivery firm DHL, he also ran British Airways' Midlands cargo operation. He entered teaching in 1992 without headship ambitions, assuming he was too old to reach the top of his new profession. After three years the headship at the school where he was employed fell vacant. The governors of the school decided that the essential requirement they needed was for the new headteacher to be a good manager. They were willing to make an appointment straight from industry and then work on the problems possibly caused by the appointee's lack of educational experience. With Nelson on hand these problems were avoidable and he was appointed to the headship. Nelson stated that ageism was not solely a concern within education, but, rather, something that was a factor throughout business and organisational life. Having commenced teaching when aged in his forties he had no thoughts of headship, considering himself too old, and he would not have applied to any other school for such a post. Even at his one and only school he does encounter one problem related to his age, with some people having difficulty in reconciling his post with his comparatively little education experience.

9.5.10 The conventional view of headship is that of a position reached in the first half of a career by 'fast-tracking' teachers. Contrary-wise, it is also a position in which the fast-tracker is then expected to settle in for the second half of the career. It is, perhaps, no wonder that heads, under such dichotomous conditions, choose to retire early. Many teachers do not, for various reasons, fit the conventional career model based on age and ability but, nevertheless, are more than capable of being good headteachers. It is fast becoming a necessity that the conventional model be altered and widened. Haigh (1993) states that a model of headship as something that you pass through may well be healthier for society than seeing it as a job in which you settle down for life.
9.6 Deputy Headteachers

9.6.1 If headteachers are expected to reach that position somewhere between the ages of thirty-five and forty-five then, in a hierarchical model, it follows that deputy headteachers should, in general, obtain their appointments slightly earlier, in the age range thirty to forty. This has proved to be the case. But in March, 1992 the statutory requirements for deputy headteachers in schools were abolished, with the result that all deputy headteachers were placed in a vulnerable position as to the security of their jobs. The potential number of deputy headteacher jobs was immediately reduced as some school governing bodies made the decision to reduce in part, if not all, the deputy headteacher level of management. Teaching areas of responsibility were delegated to less senior, and therefore less expensive members of staff, whilst administration and financial duties were passed to non-teaching, and again less expensive, staff. This is confirmed by David Hart, the general secretary of the National Association of Head Teachers (O'Leary, 1995) who refers to the removal of deputy head posts as a consequence of school budget underfunding. Lancaster (1995) states that a deputy head at his school was not directly replaced when he moved to another appointment. Instead three senior teachers were given some management responsibilities together with a small financial reward for the extra duties. Lancaster states that the three teachers obtained career development which should assist them in future applications for deputy head posts. He suggests, however that it was at a cost to the school. Each teacher already had demanding jobs with little free time. The extra responsibilities could only be carried out at the expense of either existing duties and/or other staff, or at a cost to the individuals themselves. In addition, there was an extra onus on the headteacher and the sole deputy headteacher remaining at the school. Lancaster argues that there must be a
question raised over the objectivity of decision makers whose main role in a school is still contained within a subject area or year group. A second factor in the fall in the number of deputy head posts is the decline in school rolls. Doe (1995) suggests that as many as one in ten secondary school deputy head posts may disappear.

9.6.2 If the conventional hierarchical career model is to be adhered to, then the consequence of the reduction in deputy head posts will be that fewer candidates are available for headships. Of those candidates that are available, some will decide that they do not wish to become headteachers and will opt to remain in the deputy position where, it could be argued that they will, in time, block the progress of younger members of staff who would wish to become deputy heads and then, in due course, heads. A second, rarer, group will opt out of the deputy head position realising that it is not really meant for them. Walsh (1994) was already a deputy head who did not want to be a headteacher. Supported by his headteacher and governing body who gave him a term's unpaid leave of absence, he undertook temporary work with children with special needs. From this he decided to make the change permanent in spite of the worry of financial implications. Walsh reports that he is much happier for the change, having more time for self and family. The remainder of the deputy heads will have an increased possibility of obtaining a headship, particularly if they are prepared to move geographically to areas which are experiencing a shortage of candidates for headships. It is likely that the age barrier of a maximum of early to middle forties for new headteachers will have to change as selectors discover that the quantity and quality of candidates at the hitherto 'acceptable' age does not meet their requirements.
9.6.3 Bishop (1996) points to a particular group of people who will benefit from an increase in the age range for deputy heads and heads. She is a senior teacher whose aim was, and is, to be a headteacher, but who has not been able to secure a deputy head post. She puts her lack of success down to two linked factors; being over the age of forty and being female. The age factor she describes as being more significant. Raising a family meant she was unable to attend courses and conferences, network, and generally concentrate on seeking promotion. By the age of thirty-five, when she was able to devote time to her career, it was already too late to gain the promotion she desired.

9.6.4 With fewer deputy headteacher posts available, there also exists the possibility of people being promoted to headships direct from the senior teacher role. This circumvention of the deputy headteacher role may well reduce the inception age of headteachers, but will result in less experienced headteachers at a time when the duties and responsibilities of the post are ever more demanding. Viner (1994) commenting on a schools pooled training programme has reported that three levels of training were identified: head, deputy head, and middle management. Deputy head and middle management training were noted as being especially important if senior staff were to be developed to assume positions of greater leadership.

9.6.5 Rafferty (1996a) quotes Russell Clarke, the Secondary Heads' Association assistant secretary as stating that 'There are lots of high-calibre deputy heads but extra stresses accompanying the job [of head] may put people off'. (p. 3).
9.7 Aspirants and Classroom Teachers

9.7.1 At present, aspirants for deputy head posts conceive that they must achieve their objective by, at the very latest, the age of the early forties or else their chances of success will be extremely low. To be in a position to be promoted to deputy head they must be senior teachers holding management posts such as Head of Year or Head of Subject, but still with teaching and classroom duties as the major requirement of their working day. Although many in such posts are eager for deputy headship, others are in a quandary. They are uncertain as to whether they wish to relinquish their teaching for management, but again fear the fact that if they do not strive for, and obtain, promotion then they will remain in their present job until retirement, which may be a period of up to twenty years away. If they do obtain promotion and find they dislike the management based position, they are then stuck in an even worse situation for almost an equal period of time. Classroom teachers, whilst in general not seeking promotion, have similar fears of ennui.

9.7.2 Latterly a new problem has confronted the older teacher. Authers (1995) discusses a report of The Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL) in 1995 which stated that 4500 teachers were warned that they could be made redundant at the end of the term which followed publication of the report. Twenty-three percent of secondary schools in England and Wales were planning redundancies and a total of 3166 teachers were likely to be lost to schools. Further redundancies were expected to be announced in the early part of 1996. By the very nature of things older teachers are likely to be more experienced, and, therefore, more expensive. Authers quotes Peter Smith, the general secretary of the ATL, in reporting that shortfalls in school budgets meant that schools were cutting the
more experienced and expensive and, thus more older staff. For similar financial reasons, older staff seeking lateral development moves were unlikely to be successful, and older teachers who, for whatever reason, had taken a career break were liable to find excessive difficulties when seeking to re-enter the profession.

9.7.3 Green (1994) states that there are many tired and demoralised headteachers, and, similarly, there are many tired and demoralised teachers.

9.8 Research Findings and Discussion

9.8.1 Aside from noting the age of each interviewee, no question in the structured interviews, or even in the questionnaires, made reference to the age of the interviewee. Statements and comments by the interviewees with regard to their age were entirely unsolicited and freely made.

9.8.2 Of the fifty-four teachers interviewed for this research, ten were comparatively inexperienced, with only a few years teaching experience behind them. This was due, in the main, to the ten being late starters in the teaching profession, having previously been employed outside of education. It is unlikely, with their teaching career still somewhat in its infancy, that thoughts of early retirement would be at the forefront of the mind of any of these ten teachers. Any such considerations and thoughts would have been debated and resolved prior to commencing teaching as a second career. From the remaining forty-four teachers, sixteen stated that they would be seeking early retirement, representing thirty-six per cent of the sample and, in itself, a high figure. It can be argued, however, that the fourteen aspirants for headteacher and deputy headteacher posts should also be removed from this particular equation as it is not likely that someone seeking to
obtain a promotion would at the same time be seeking to retire. If only the senior
managers and the long-serving classroom based teachers are considered then
sixteen out of thirty, a total of fifty-three per cent, were seeking early retirement.
Many already had a date for their retirement fixed in their mind, relating to their
age i.e. retire at fifty/fifty-five etc., or to the number of additional years they
intended to teach, although a small number indicated that they would retire
immediately if offered the opportunity to so do. The spectre of compulsory
retirement was not, in itself, a concern to the teachers. In fact, in many cases
compulsory retirement would be welcomed, as long as an enhancement in the
number of years service was granted to bring pension entitlements and lump sum
payouts up to the maximum possible level. There are indications, however, that
the granting of enhancements is becoming much more controlled and limited than
was previously the case. Nineteen out of the total of fifty-four teachers, thirty-five
per cent of the sample, vouchsafed the information that they feared having to
remain in the same job for the last ten to twenty years of their career. If the ten
late starters are ignored the percentage rises to forty-three per cent.

9.8.3 Eight (80%) of the headteachers and deputy headteachers were not seeking
a further promotion or change of job despite all, with one exception, having been
in their present position for at least six years. Included in this percentage were all
the headteachers. Of the two exceptions, one individual, since being interviewed,
has succeeded in obtaining a headship. All the headteachers and deputy
headteachers cited their reason for not moving as the fact that they did not wish to
have to start all over again in a different school. This attitude could indicate that
the headteachers and deputy headteachers believed that they had achieved their
objectives in their current school and now envisaged a calm and steady period of
consolidation in a well-organised and controlled environment. On the other hand,
it could point to a slowing-down and, possibly, less-interested and less-motivated attitude. That the second, more negative, attitude holds sway is, perhaps, borne out by the fact that three (30%) of the headteachers and deputy headteachers had considered moving to another field of education, such as further education or an advisory post, but, due to the small number of vacancies arising, thought it unlikely that they would be given the opportunity to make that particular move. They were intent, therefore, on remaining where they were. Further confirmation of the second attitude is provided by the information that five (50%) of the headteachers and deputy headteachers were anticipating retiring early.

9.8.4 Seven (50%) of the aspirants for headteacher or deputy headteacher posts stated that they feared they would come up against the age barrier in their search for promotion. With one exception, all mentioning these fears were over the age of forty. Younger teachers, aged in their thirties generally did not have similar fears. A number of the older aspirants for deputy headteacher posts did appear to accept that their chances of promotion were now slim, but still retained some hope that they would succeed in their objective. Only one aspirant mentioned early retirement, the one person who appeared to finally believe that no further promotion was likely to come his way. Five (36%) of the aspirants stated that although they were applying for deputy headteacher posts, they had no desire to go on from there to become a headteacher. This posed a problem to some who believed that stating such a fact at an interview was tantamount to cancelling their application. Three (21%) of the aspirants stated that they were very uncertain as to whether they wanted a deputy headteacher post, but they were certain that they did not wish to remain in their current post for the next fifteen to twenty years. One aspirant, only, appeared to have carried the equation on further to consider
what would the future hold after five to six years as a deputy headteacher and with still thirteen years of his career to go.

9.8.5 Of the classroom based teachers eleven (37%) were seeking early retirement or looking to change their career. If the late starters are removed from the equation the percentage rises to 52%. Six (20%) of classroom based teachers had fears of doing the same job for the next twenty years, the percentage rising to 29% if late starters are ignored.

9.8.6 Williams (1996) states that only one in nine secondary school teachers carry on teaching to the set retirement age. (For primary school teachers the figure is one in six). In the past ten years there has been a rise of sixty-eight per cent in the average number of teachers taking early retirement, from 11,624 per annum to 17,187 per annum.

9.8.7 Maslen (1996) reports on an advanced skills teaching positions scheme introduced into Australia in 1991. Under the government backed scheme a career structure within the classroom is provided for experienced, expert teachers who do not wish to be promoted to deputy head or head, and away from the classroom. Such teachers also receive pay rises in recognition of their expertise. Italy is also producing new career and pay structures for expert classroom teachers (Newbold, 1996). The schemes in both countries have received criticism as well as praise. If the United Kingdom is to reverse the trend of a substantial number of its older, experienced teachers being either or both demotivated and seeking early retirement, then the viability of schemes with similar objectives to those introduced into Australia and Italy must be investigated as soon as possible.
9.9 Conclusion

9.9.1 The then Education and Employment Minister, Cheryl Gillan, announced in February 1996 the introduction of a comprehensive national survey to find out what action employers are taking to overcome age discrimination in the workplace. The minister stated that ageist practices still operated by some employers do not make good business sense. There is a need to convince employers that barring older people from recruitment and training means the loss of the wealth of experience that older people possess. The survey covers both public and private sector employers.

9.9.2 The education service may not overtly support age discrimination in schools, but there is no doubt in the minds of the majority of teachers that covert age discrimination is rampant throughout the educational system. Neugarten (1968) pointed out that managers need to be aware of the age clock, and the teachers interviewed for this research were very aware that age was a barrier to promotion prospects. Failure to obtain specified positions by a certain age meant career progress was likely to come to a halt. The careers of the majority of teachers, and their career development, should not be expected to plateau at a stage only halfway towards the generally accepted retirement age, and leaving many teachers with the forbidding prospect of doing the same job throughout the second half of their career. Age, as stated by Rosenbaum (1989) gives a strong negative signal in relation to careers. Rafferty (1996a) quotes Anthea Millett of the Teachers Training Agency as stating that research has shown that teaching is regarded as a high-status profession, but less than twenty per cent of those questioned thought it was an occupation likely to offer good career development.
9.9.3 It should be noted, when ageism reveals its ugly head, that research by Cressey and Storey (1995) has shown that the older an entrepreneur is when starting a business then the more likely the business is to survive. They found that the age of the entrepreneur at the inception of a business was the most striking characteristic in determining business longevity. Business survival rate rose steadily the higher the entrepreneurial age between twenty and fifty-five. Thirty per cent of businesses survived longer than three and a half years when the age of the entrepreneur at inception was between twenty and twenty-five. Where inception age was between fifty and fifty-five, the business survival rate longer than three and a half years rose to seventy per cent. Experience and caution gained through age proved more valuable for survival than the possible energy and verve of youth.

9.9.4 If age is a positive factor in entrepreneurial success then it can, and should, be a positive factor within employment in general, and education and teaching in particular. For a business to succeed, much enthusiasm, verve, time and expertise is required from its owner. When older entrepreneurs are shown not only to possess these requisites but to successfully display them, it should not be accepted within education that the older members of the teaching profession do not have similar abilities and attributes. The challenge to the education service is to provide conditions that enable teachers to retain their enthusiasm whatever their age, position, and length of service.
10.0 CLASSROOM TEACHERS

10.1 Introduction

10.1.1 The model of career options, as was stated in Chapter 4, is skewed towards management aspirations and demonstrates a lack of career opportunities for classroom teachers. A number of factors were listed that affected the attitude of classroom teachers towards their work and their job. The chapters following have shown that it is, generally, the management orientated teachers who embrace the concept of development and classroom teachers who, generally, display a lack of interest in development. This chapter investigates the factors that affect the attitude of classroom teachers and the reasons for their lack of interest in development.

10.2 Classroom Teachers' Concerns

10.2.1 The concerns of the classroom teachers interviewed for the research did not, in general, centre around possible hierarchical career moves. Eight (27%) only of the classroom teachers were actively seeking or hoping for promotion. Five of these eight teachers were comparatively short in teaching experience being either the youngest teachers interviewed for the research, or late starters in the profession. Of the remaining three, one still hankered after, and was striving for, the promotion she believed due to her, and which may possibly have been denied due to the low status of her subject - physical education. Even in this case,
however, the teacher had modified her original ambition and was no longer seeking to obtain a senior management position, preferring instead to remain classroom based. The other two teachers wanted promotion, but considered that they were unlikely to obtain such, given the current state of their careers. None of the teachers, at the time of interview, were looking for long-term promotion to senior management positions. Twenty-four (80%) of the classroom teachers, including the two promotion-seeking teachers mentioned above, believed that they would be in the same position in their school until the end of their teaching career, which in most cases would be fifteen to twenty years hence. Three of the twenty-four stated, however, that all they were hoping for was to survive in their job for as long as possible. Seven (23%) teachers were looking forward to taking early retirement, at or around the age of fifty-five, although a couple of teachers stated that they would take early retirement ‘tomorrow’ if it were to be offered to them. Three (10%) of the teachers were looking to further their career outside of the teaching profession.

10.2.2 Six (20%) of the classroom teachers, all female, indicated that they had each made a conscious decision to place their family before their teaching career. Four of these teachers had an original intention, on entering the teaching profession, to progress up the hierarchical career ladder, and become, if possible, senior managers. All four had gone some way to achieving that ambition. Each had discovered different priorities when they had become parents. Whether or not they had taken a career break, they had reverted to basic scale teaching positions in order that they could devote more time to bringing up their children. In at least some cases, therefore, it could demonstrably be proven that being a classroom teacher was through choice and not the result of a lack of ability in climbing the promotion ladder.
10.2.3 Thody (1993) talks of career awareness, which she defines as 'a consciousness of job opportunities as choices available for career decisions'. (p. 2). Career awareness has three main components: career development, career enhancement, and career contentment. Career development refers to upward advancement, career enhancement refers to job enrichment which may well involve lateral movement in the career, whilst career contentment is acknowledgement of the fact that mobility in the career is not wanted. Career contentment is satisfaction in doing the current job well, and can be a pro-active choice, and not simply be the result of making the best of an unwanted situation. The majority of the classroom teachers could be said to be in the career contentment category in that they are looking neither for career development or career enhancement. Their choice of career contentment was often a pro-active choice, but contentment or satisfaction with their present career stage was, in many instances, an over-elaborate description of their current state of mind.

10.2.4 Their dissatisfaction with their current situation was built around a general feeling of not being valued in their role of classroom teacher, and in not being allowed to concentrate on what they believed was the over-riding aim of their job - to teach and develop their pupils. The dissatisfaction centred around a number of concerns, the main ones of which were lack of leadership in the school, the low status of classroom teachers, workload, time pressures, financial restraints, the ever-lowering standards of pupil behaviour, and the attitudes of some of their colleagues within the school.
10.3 Job Satisfaction

10.3.1 Schneider et al (1992) argue that most of the literature on job satisfaction considers how employees appraise their current situation but does not take into account how employees feel about what they could have either in the current situation or in the future. When job satisfaction is assessed, the only questions asked regarding opportunity are those that concern promotion and career advance. Schneider et al propose that when people think about their job satisfaction, they think of past and present happenings as well as current available opportunities, and that opportunities are relevant to all facets of job satisfaction, not just to career promotion and advancement. Choice is crucial to opportunity, which presents an individual with an advantageous set of circumstances and the chance to choose among valued alternatives. The individual does not need to choose an option for it to be satisfying, the mere perception that options are available can be satisfying in itself. For the majority of the classroom teachers, however, options were no longer available.

10.3.2 James and James (1992) assessed organisational well-being using an overall job satisfaction measure based on sixteen items from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The four main factors on which satisfaction was measured were: satisfaction with the job; satisfaction with the work group; satisfaction with the organisation; and satisfaction with the leader. These four factors were further itemised as follows:

Satisfaction with the job:

- Opportunity to do challenging work
- Time given to complete the work
Prestige of the job within the organisation
Clarity of information received on how to do the job
Work quality requirements for the job
Amount of authority given to carry out job responsibilities
Opportunity for independent thought and action.

Satisfaction with work group:
Co-operation from the people in the work group
Friendliness among co-workers.

Satisfaction with organisation:
Prestige of the organisation
Training received for the job
Opportunity for growth and development
Opportunity for promotion.

Satisfaction with leader:
Support received from managers
Respect and fair treatment from managers
Opportunity to influence people in superior positions.

10.3.3 Many of the classroom teachers had few or no feelings of satisfaction with the current state of their career and their present job. Floden and Huberman (1989) state that teachers with higher levels of satisfaction concerning their teaching career are those who do not have full-time responsibilities or have interests outside of their work. More interestingly, they query whether it is
possible to sustain interest and productivity over the thirty-five to forty years of a
classroom career which has relatively few changes in the nature of the work.

10.3.4 The concerns of the classroom teachers were, as previously stated, not
centred around possible career hierarchical career moves. Rather, their concerns
are focused more on the day-to-day working life of the teacher and on the factors
that affect that life, and are concerns that are becoming important to more and
more teachers. Boyson (1996) states that over the past seven years the number of
applications for headship have declined by twenty-five per cent, whilst the number
of applications for departmental head posts have declined even further, by a total
of thirty per cent. Greater numbers of teachers are electing to remain classroom
based. This despite the fact that, according to Glasser (1991), effective teaching is
one of the most difficult and demanding professions.

10.3.5 The major concerns of the classroom teachers devolve from two sources:
the senior management of the school in which the teacher is employed, and the
workload of the individual teacher. Workload problems are exacerbated by the
amount of change introduced into education, and by perceived lack of time in
which to carry out required duties. Other concerns include financial constraints,
in terms of rewards and resources, the lack of discipline and motivation in pupils,
and the negative attitudes of some colleagues. These concerns mirror to a large
extent the four main satisfaction factors as detailed by James and James of
satisfaction with the job, satisfaction with the work group, satisfaction with the
organisation and satisfaction with the leader.
10.4 Leadership

10.4.1 Adair (1990) states that leadership is about giving direction, building teams, and inspiring others. Leadership is a dynamic, two-way process which influences both individual and organisational performance. The value and necessity of good leadership within schools has been emphasised by the Government, by Government Agencies, and by numerous researchers.

10.4.2 Gillian Shephard, the then Secretary of State for Education and Employment stated in May, 1996 that 'Nothing is more important to a school than the quality of its leadership.' (DfEE: Circular 155/96). In emphasis of this belief the Secretary of State requested the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) to plan and instigate a new qualification for prospective headteachers. In September, 1997 the National Professional Qualification for Headship programme commenced, and there is a determination from the TTA that the qualification should be about leadership. Anthea Millett, the chief executive of the TTA, stated in June 1996 that 'good professional leadership is the most telling characteristic of an effective school. The best headteachers play a central role in creating a climate in which pupils are able and willing to learn and teachers have the opportunities to do the best possible job.' (p. 21).

10.4.3 A Department of Education and Science report (1990) noted that the quality of leadership was of major importance in influencing the quality of professional development in schools.
10.4.4 Purves (1995) states that 'every major inspectors' report for the last thirty years has made the point that the most important difference between good and bad schools is not catchment or resources, but quality of leadership.' (p. 16).

10.4.5 It is, however, recognised that the quality of leadership in many schools is not of a high standard. The third annual Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) report (1997) states that leadership is 'weak and ineffectual' in one-tenth of secondary schools in England.

10.4.6 Marston (1996) reported on a paper issued by the Education and Employment Department which claimed that the major reason underlining failing schools is that they have had 'caring' headteachers who, nonetheless, are weak leaders. A change of head is normally an essential factor in the recovery of such schools.

10.4.7 Lowe and Istance (1989) indicated what was required in schools with their list of ten characteristics of an effective school. Included in the characteristics are positive leadership in initiating and maintaining improvement, collaborative planning and shared decision-making, and continuing professional development linked to the school's pedagogical and organisational needs.

10.4.8 Davies (1995) states that a school leader has to be aware of the trends taking place in society and education, and has to ensure that those connected with the school are also up-to-date in their knowledge of such trends. The leader has to develop leadership capacity in others.
10.4.9 McHugh and McMullan (1995) interviewed eight headteachers all of whom considered leadership to be their most difficult job aspect, and five of whom believed that leadership was the most crucial aspect of management. None of the eight headteachers had, however, participated in any leadership training courses.

10.4.10 Passmore (1996a) refers to a regional leadership centre for headteachers, deputies and aspiring headteachers which has been set up in London by the London Institute of Education's International School Effectiveness and Improvement Centre. The London Leadership Centre has been formed to enable school leaders across the capital to work together to share expertise and raise standards. The centre will focus on the quality of the headteacher, which is described as crucial to the success of any school.

10.4.11 It is initiatives such as that set up by the London Leadership Centre which will improve the standard of leadership within schools. What is, possibly, the most interesting part of the initiative is that it includes aspiring headteachers. Headteacher training has tended to be focused on those teachers already in that position or teachers very close to becoming headteachers. But, almost by definition, such people are around the age of forty and have been teaching for fifteen years or more. They would be likely to have many ingrained habits that may not be conducive towards good leadership. The earlier teachers can receive leadership training, then the likelier it is that they will become good leaders.
10.5 Empowerment

10.5.1 Closely connected with leadership, or the lack of leadership, in schools is the question of empowerment of teachers, especially empowerment of classroom teachers.

10.5.2 Bell (1992) states that school staff should be encouraged and enabled to be part of school policy making, and to be involved in decision taking that has effect on their working lives. Hierarchical school structures should not be used to prevent co-operative policy making and decision taking.

10.5.3 In practice, however, this is not always the case. Glickman (1991) refers to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching Report (1990) which found that seventy per cent of all American teachers are not involved to any great depth in decisions which affect their job and career such as decisions on curriculum, staff development, grouping of students, promotion, school budgets.

10.5.4 Crowther (1993) argues that teachers, throughout history, have had little power in decision-making processes, and he refers to The US Carnegie Task Force (1986) which stated that teachers' independent judgement is continually constrained by the rules of others. Teachers taking part in research conducted by Crowther believed that they should, as a matter of course, take part in school priority setting, staff development, budgets, and time management.

10.5.5 Sutherland (1989) refers to research undertaken by Houghton who questioned 168 teachers from an eastern urban area and a western rural area of Northern Ireland. Replies to a number of questions painted a picture of
considerable frustration. Eighty per cent judged themselves powerless to change unsatisfactory conditions; eighty-five per cent considered that they were sometimes unable to influence decisions and fifty-nine per cent stated that at least some of their colleagues frustrated their efforts. Sixty-three per cent claimed there was too little time to perform their duties to their satisfaction. On a modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1981) every teacher in the sample reported feeling a lack of personal achievement and ninety-six per cent of them felt this intensely.

10.5.6 Floden and Huberman (1989) point out that for school standards to rise school improvement must rely on teachers' commitment. Involvement in the design of improvement programmes will increase the chances that teachers will be committed to the programme.

10.5.7 But Gardiner (1997) reports that many school leaders do not know how to obtain the commitment of teachers. A survey of 180 heads of London schools found that the greatest difficulty experienced by heads was in dealing with staff, including the motivation of staff.

10.5.8 Good leaders will encourage their staff to participate in all aspects of running a school, and will not waste their most valuable resource - their teachers. Empowering staff is essential for a school to be successful, and effort has to be made to eradicate the concept that schools can be run as fiefdoms.
10.6  Workload and Time Pressures

10.6.1 Workload and time pressures were the greatest concerns of the classroom teachers, as is shown in the research findings section of this chapter. Rogers (1996) states that causes of teacher stress, well-established in the literature include:
the pressure and pace of bureaucratic change
the balancing of the varying role demands of teaching, administration, curriculum, discipline, and pastoral duties
administration
care of pupils especially the conflict between disciplinary and pastoral duties.
the school climate
perception by the public
perception by self

The majority of these causes of stress detailed by Rogers involve workload and time pressures. They mirror, to a large extent, the factors that are shown in the research to have a particular affect for classroom teachers (as detailed in Chapter 4, p. 51-52).

10.6.2 Many other researchers have noted the effect of workload and time pressures. A Times Educational Supplement/Research Services Ltd. Teacher Survey (1997) carried out through six focus groups representing a cross-section of classroom teachers in different parts of the country revealed that classroom teachers were under stress through excessive workloads, change, lack of funding, and low morale. The teachers surveyed believed that their in-service training, progression, conditions of work, and professional recognition received little attention, consequently resulting in lack of career and personal development.
10.6.3 Cockburn (1994) in his study of primary school teachers found that the lack of time was a major concern of many of the teachers.

10.6.4 Tabberer (1994) states that the period of implementation of the national curriculum from 1990-1994 resulted in an increasing workload for teachers. Only one-third of teaching time is now actually spent on teaching pupils, with the rest of the time spent on administration, planning and preparation. Non-teaching activities are reported by teachers to be less rewarding than teaching activities.

10.6.5 Rafferty (1996b) states that a survey by the School Teachers' Review Body reports that over a quarter to one-third of teachers believe that they are sometimes unable to properly do their job, due to lack of time caused by increasing workloads.

10.6.6 Dean (1997) reported on a workload survey conducted by the School Teachers' Review Body which showed that 25.2 per cent of secondary school teachers worked more than 50 hours per week, and that such teachers were working up to two hours a week more than when a comparable survey was carried out in 1994. The average working week for secondary school teachers was 50.3 hours per week. Secondary teachers working between 40 and 55 hours per week equalled 9.1 per cent, down from the 1994 figure of 12 per cent. Teachers were in class for 20.9 hours or 41.5 per cent of the school week, with 15 hours or 29.8 per cent of their time being spent on lesson preparation or marking.

10.6.7 Gibbons (1994) quotes the General Secretary of the National Association of Schoolmasters and Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT), Nigel de Gruchy, as stating in 1993 that much of the problem of excessive workload of teachers
comes from demands on teacher time resulting from the principle of continuous assessment. de Gruchy does acknowledge that some of the excessive workload problem was caused by teachers themselves.

10.6.8 Passmore (1996b) reports on the second survey of teachers' workloads carried out for the School Teachers' Review Body in 1996. The survey was based on interviews and group discussions with teachers from sixteen schools (nine secondary schools and six primary schools) throughout England. The first survey found that teachers were working longer hours than as recently as 1994, but that for the majority of the teachers the extra hours were not spent teaching. The addition to workload was attributed mainly to the national curriculum and its numerous revisions, to special needs educational requirements, and, for some teachers, to the behavioural problems and lower academic abilities of their pupils. The additional workload resulted from national educational policies, and resulted in extra work and responsibilities outside of the classroom. Financial constraints on schools meant that increasing salaries for extra responsibilities undertaken was limited. Where extra money was available, it was not considered sufficient enough to compensate for loss of time and added stress. Time was not available to undertake efficiently the extra responsibilities acquired. Dedicated classroom teachers could cope only by working longer hours and shortcutting on duties such as marking and setting homework.

10.6.9 Maclure et al (1990) found that many teachers were struggling with the varying demands of teaching, preparation, marking, continuing professional development, personal life, and family life.
10.6.10 The effect of such workload and time pressures result in, as noted by Day (1993), that the personal and career development needs of teachers have become a relatively low priority in schools.

10.7 Pupil Discipline and Motivation

10.7.1 A contributory factor to teachers' workload and to time pressures is the apparent fall in standard of pupil discipline, and the fall in levels of pupil motivation.

10.7.2 Huggett (1986) claims that teachers have had to cope with an increasing number of disruptive children, a growing lack of pupil motivation as jobs become scarce, and racism and sexism. Smith and Laslett (1993) further argue that stress and frustration for teachers is mainly caused by interactions with pupils and by classroom events. But Cronk (1987) argues that conflict between secondary-school pupils and teachers is a result of failure to communicate with each other and understand each others intentions and feelings.

10.7.3 Stoten (1996) states that, in general, children have become more difficult to manage, and that behaviour in some schools is bad. Schools are often helpless in dealing with miscreants, but the way some schools are run can be a contribution to disruption. Schools and Local Education Authorities (LEAs) have responsibilities to both pupils and staff, and teachers should not have to suffer physical or verbal intimidation.

10.7.4 The need for control of pupils, and a cause of the lack of discipline in schools, is shown by the National Commission for Education survey (1993) which
reported that more than fifty per cent of fourteen year olds did not want to go to school most of the time, and that twenty per cent of the same group were not happy at school.

10.7.5 The problem of discipline in schools was acknowledged by the then Secretary of State for Employment and Education, Gillian Shephard, in October, 1996 when she announced details of a new Education Bill which included measures to improve discipline in schools, as well as the extension of parental school choice and diversity and a general raising of standards. The proposed Bill will: 'Strengthen the arm of schools in dealing with bad behaviour and indiscipline by pupils, while also ensuring that LEAs carry out effectively their responsibilities for children who are not in school.' (DfEE Circular 329/96).

10.7.6 Among the measures proposed is the requirement of every school to draw up a discipline policy which will set out the expected standards of pupil's behaviour, the methods of encouraging such behaviour, and the sanctions to be applied when those standards are breached.

10.7.7 An amendment to the Bill tabled in January, 1997 confirmed and clarified the powers teachers have for the prevention of serious disruption in schools.

10.7.8 Hargreaves (1994) states that supervision, management and control of children, both in the classroom and around the school, are taking up too much time of teachers. He suggests a possible solution in his belief that such tasks could well be undertaken by less qualified personnel, leaving the professional teacher to concentrate on the organisation of teaching and learning. Schools are viewed by much of the general public as custodial institutions only.
10.8 Attitudes of Colleagues

10.8.1 Factors such as lack of leadership, lack of power, workload etc. could be considered to be organisational factors which, to a large extent, are outside the control of teachers. Under such heavy pressures, it might be thought that teachers would, as it were, close ranks, unite together, and provide a support system for one another. Such unity, however, does not always exist in schools, and problems created by colleagues can be as much or more of a hazard to teachers than any of the factors previously mentioned.

10.8.2 Hall et al (1984) found that problems with colleagues caused teachers more difficulties than problems with students, whilst Hall and Hall (1988) state that poor relationships with other members of staff is one of the sources of increase in teacher stress.

10.8.3 Bell (1992) states that the contribution of colleagues to teams may include, in addition to their knowledge and skills, such items as dislikes, jealousies, uncertainties, and lack of ability and experience. All negative factors can be surmounted provided management is aware of them and can implement appropriate corrective strategies.

10.8.4 Spackman (1991) states that in times of change and stress, such as teachers have experienced in recent years, the value of professional relationships becomes even more significant. Good working relationships depend, often, on good leadership and skilful management on the part of the headteacher.
10.8.5 Bradley et al (1983) suggests that in schools where teachers discuss issues openly, sharing the ownership of both problem and solution, a culture of consistency and trust is developed, and teachers in such schools consider themselves to be part of a team. Maintaining such a culture requires constant management.

10.9 Finance

10.9.1 Financial concerns within schools are double-edged in that they involve both concerns about salary and rewards, and concerns about the lack of financial resources that are devoted to education in general and to schools in particular.

10.9.2 Dean and Rafferty (1996) reported on a random and representative survey of twelve hundred and nine schools (5% of the total number of schools) in England and Wales conducted by The Times Educational Supplement. The survey found that headteachers were not spending on resources for curriculum development, books or equipment, as well as not spending on repairs and maintenance of school buildings. Sixty-three per cent of headteachers, of primary, middle and secondary schools, who responded to the survey, stated that less money per pupil was being spent currently on curriculum development than was spent in the previous financial year, and that the budget for books and equipment was lower in over six hundred of the schools. Money saved was spent on preventing staff cuts, but nearly five hundred headteachers reported that they had cut back on the amount spent on staff.

10.9.3 Williams (1996) stated that conditions of service, and job security, are more important factors to teachers than the salary awarded. But Richardson
(1996) argues that secondary school teachers need adequate remuneration and appropriate resources in order to feel valued and have their professional expertise respected. Nevertheless, Huggett (1986) found that teachers' opinions were divided on the issue of salary.

10.9.4 Reich (1991) refers to the status of teachers, and points out that the higher the average salary of teachers in relation to the average salary in the community, the higher the number of students graduating from high school and the higher the number of students entering college education. The higher the average salary of teachers in relation to the average salary in the community then the higher the standard of entrants into teaching and the higher the maintenance of self-esteem. These translate into better job performance and hence into better student results.

10.10 Research Findings

10.10.1 In the course of the research interviews nineteen (63%) of the classroom teachers stated their dissatisfaction with their senior management team and, especially, with the head of their school. Leadership, as has been shown earlier, is vital to the well-being and effectiveness of a school. Four (13%) classroom teachers were emphatic that there was no leadership whatsoever in their school, whilst, individually, others described the leadership in their school as:

'bad'

'frustrating'

'unfair'

'of little help'
or of having resulted in the belief that there was an 'us and them' situation between classroom teachers and senior management. The importance of the individual headteacher as the leader of the school was demonstrated by the comments of four teachers. Three teachers similarly remarked that the management style of their previous headteacher, or in particular the absence of any management style, had for them been very stressful. The recent introduction of a new head, with a more personable approach, had remotivated them and revitalised their interest in teaching and in their job. The third teacher stated that the performance of her school was suffering due to the fact that the school had had three headteachers in two years, and that each headteacher had brought a different philosophy to the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes of concern</th>
<th>n = 30.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of leadership</td>
<td>19 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low status</td>
<td>9 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload</td>
<td>29 (97%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>21 (70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils' attitudes</td>
<td>17 (57%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues' attitudes</td>
<td>8 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial restraints</td>
<td>12 (40%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Concerns of classroom teachers.

10.10.2 Particular examples cited of incidents that caused the classroom teachers their feelings of dissatisfaction included the regular breaking of promises to staff, bad planning, and the conception of management violating trust with the use of hidden agendas. General attitudes of senior management that caused similar feelings included the lack of recognition of the value and experience of the teacher, lack of praise and thanks for work undertaken and carried out over and above the call of duty, and not allowing the teacher any input into the strategic
planning of the school and of his/her relevant department. Five (17%) of the classroom teachers stated that they received little or no recognition from senior management, with seven (23%) stating that they were allowed no input, or not listened to, or had no influence or value within the school. Three (10%) complained that the amount of praise and thanks that they received was either lacking completely or was in a very minute and almost grudging form. The result was that seven (23%) of the teachers suffered from a deficit of motivation describing themselves, for example, as:

'demotivated'
'demoralised'
'totally frustrated'
'getting no satisfaction from their job'

10.10.3 One teacher stated that he worked only 'for the money', whilst another stated that he considered teaching to be 'only a job and not a career.' One teacher stated that his own motivation had not been affected despite the attitude of senior management but that many of his colleagues had lost their motivation to the detriment of themselves and the school. Ten (33%) of the classroom teachers remarked on their low status, but only one was referring to the low status of teachers within society. The remainder considered that their status was low in their particular school. All nine (30%) believed this was due to their being classroom teachers and, as a result, being given no authority, no power, no responsibility, or simply not being thought of in the scheme of the school. Two teachers considered this to be the case because they taught what was considered to be a low status subject - art.
10.10.4 The second major concern of the classroom teachers was the expected workload they were required to undertake. The workload refers not to teaching per se, but to ancillary work, and especially to administration. Twenty-nine (97%) of the teachers indicated problems of overload caused either by administration, time, or change or any possible combination of those three entities. Eighteen (60%) of the teachers stated that problems of administration were affecting their job performance. Generally the cause was the amount of paper that was being generated and the procedures necessary to process that paper. Comments by the teachers included:

'drowning under paper'
'sheer volume'
'immense'
'can't escape'

10.10.5 One teacher believed that the paper was deliberately downloaded by the senior management team, whilst another queried the relevance of it all. Three (10%) teachers questioned the number of meetings that were held in their school and the value of those meetings. Four teachers (13%) stated that administration was encroaching on their personal life and interfering with family time, and nine (30%) teachers stated that administration was taking over from teaching. Two teachers stated that the amount of administration required was causing them stress, with one teacher unable to sleep more than two hours per night and the second teacher having developed a nervous tic and a nervous rash.

10.10.6 Twenty-one (70%) of the teachers claimed that they had problems in doing all aspects of their job properly given the time that was available.
Interestingly, a second teacher used the adjective 'drowning', only this time to describe lack of time rather than quantity of paper needing to be processed. It is, of course, quite likely that the perceived lack of time was caused by required administration procedures.

10.10.7 Fourteen (47%) of the teachers referred to the degree of change with which they were expected to cope, especially but not solely concerning the National Curriculum. Comments, each given by more than one teacher, included:

'continuous'
'constant'
'change for change sake'
'too/so many'.

10.10.8 The amount of change placed on teachers was also described as 'farcical' and 'time-wasting'.

10.10.9 Twelve (40%) of the classroom teachers stated that financial constraints were a cause of dissatisfaction within their job. Nine (30%) referred to their own financial rewards whilst the remaining three (10%) were concerned with the constraints on school resources caused by the lack of finance available to the school. In contrast, a further eight (27%) teachers considered that the financial rewards that they received were good. Four (13%) of the teachers, equally divided between the opposite opinions of good and poor rewards, believed that their financial rewards did, at least, provide them with financial security.
10.10.10 Seventeen (57%) of the teachers referred to problems caused by the attitudes of pupils. Whilst not implying that they were unable to cope with the pupils, the teachers referred to negative pupil attitudes as a causal factor in their own dissatisfaction with their job. Twelve (40%) of the teachers quoted the lack of pupil discipline whilst a further five (17%) referred to the lack of motivation and disinterest in schoolwork amongst their pupils.

10.10.11 Eight (27%) of the teachers referred in a disparaging manner to their colleagues describing them as 'lazy', 'non-co-operative', 'not committed', or 'full of cynicism.' One inexperienced teacher commented that she received little or no sympathy from her colleagues, whilst two teachers stated that they had clashes with colleagues. A female teacher commented that she persistently clashed with a colleague whom she believed to have problems dealing with members of the opposite sex, whilst a male teacher discovered that his job, which involved working across department lines, led to many clashes with colleagues.

10.10.12 Fifteen (50%) only of the classroom teachers stated that they would still choose teaching as a career, if given the chance to restart their career and with the knowledge of the profession that they now possessed. Eight (27%) stated that they would not choose teaching as a career, and the remaining seven (23%) were undecided, in many cases only because they could not think of a viable career alternative to teaching.
10.11 Conclusion

10.11.1 Reich (1991) describes work, in general, as falling into three broad categories:

- routine production services
- in-person services
- symbolic-analytical.

In routine production services the work is repetitive, routine and can usually be described as "blue-collar" operations. With in-person services the work is again of a repetitive nature and centres around person-to-person communication. Symbolic-analytical work is work that involves problem-solving, problem-identifying, and strategic-broking. In other words symbolic-analytical work is challenging, invigorating and stimulating. It would be expected that teaching and education would fit into the symbolic-analytical category of work. For many of the classroom teachers who took part in this research, however, the job of teaching has evolved into the category of in-person services, and has become repetitive, routine and non-satisfying.

10.11.2 Yet these are people who, in the majority of cases, have chosen to remain in the classroom, and who have elected not to climb the hierarchical ladder to more administrative and management-based jobs. Children, the classroom and learning are what they believe teaching to be all about. Whilst they acknowledge that administration and management have a place in education, and that both are necessary for schools to be successful, they themselves wish to have as minimum involvement in those areas as is possible.
10.11.3 In the introduction to this chapter it was stated that twenty-four (80%) of the classroom teachers believed that they would be in the same position in their school until the end of their teaching career, which was likely to be fifteen to twenty years hence. Goddard (1990) has quoted Drucker on the difficulties of people remaining challenged by a job after a period of five years in it. Many of the classroom teachers were already dissatisfied and dispirited, and felt unrecognised for their worth. It does not bode well to consider how they will feel in a further fifteen to twenty years time. Writers such as Bennet (1985), Bradley (1990), Battye (1993), and Crowther (1993) have all commented on the low regard in which classroom teachers are commonly held.

10.11.4 For many of these teachers, their wish now was to leave the profession either through early retirement or else by obtaining a job outside of education. Stone (1992) argues that when people cannot secure the outcomes they want from a job they become dissatisfied and leave it if acceptable alternatives are available. The classroom teachers appeared, however, to have little hope of obtaining such career alternatives, finales or changes within the immediate future. Their strategy, mostly, was 'wait for something to happen' rather than the formulation of concrete plans to effect the requisite change.

10.11.5 The prospect, therefore, existed of the classroom teachers being locked for many years into a job in which they were already disenchanted and likely to become increasingly more disenchanted as time progresses. Sikes (1981) states that teachers in non-authority positions i.e. classroom teachers, are less likely to be content with their roles than teachers with authority roles. Coasting through to retirement may be the only aim of classroom teachers.
10.11.6 Cranny et al (1992) state that a review of more than five thousand published works on the topic of job satisfaction points to the view that job satisfaction is an emotional reaction to a job resulting from the jobholder's comparison of actual outcomes of the job against his or her desired outcomes.

10.11.7 The actual outcomes of the job for most of the classroom teachers bear little comparison to their desired outcomes. Classroom teachers wish to spend their time in the classroom with interested and responsive pupils, and with the support of a strong and committed senior management. Under such conditions both the teachers and the pupils would flourish. Dalton (1989), Miller and Form (1951) and Super (1957) all refer to the individual being shaped and influenced by the organisation. Huberman (1992) found that Swiss secondary-school teachers thrived when they had, amongst other conditions, manageable working conditions, and stimulation from colleagues and from outside sources. For the classroom teachers the reality is, however, that in their perception the leadership they receive is weak, the support they receive is limited, and the pupils they teach are, in general, neither interested in learning nor have the motivation to learn.

10.11.8 Floden and Huberman (1989), as stated earlier, have queried whether it is possible for teachers to sustain interest and productivity over the thirty-five to forty years of a classroom career which has relatively few changes in the nature of the work. Goddard (1990) quotes Drucker on the difficulty of people being challenged by their job once a period of five years has passed in the same job. How less possible is it for classroom teachers to sustain that interest and productivity when, perhaps only halfway through that allotted time, they already perceive that not only has their career flattened but that they have little or no hope of any positive changes or outcomes in the future. Hargreaves (1992) believes
that the quality and effectiveness of teachers' work in the classroom is closely related to their professional growth.

10.11.9 The outcome for classroom teachers as a whole may just become that described by Carvel (1997) who outlines 'two nightmare scenarios.' (p. 2). First, a shortage of teachers as too many will resign. Second, teachers remaining in their posts as they cannot afford to leave but with no enthusiasm to update their skills and to inspire their pupils. However, as argued by Kirkman (1997) the option for teachers, of early retirement on full pension, has been eliminated due to the escalating costs of providing such a facility. In Guernsey there has been significant reductions in the number of teachers retiring early since the introduction in 1993 of a rule allowing teachers to take early retirement only on reduced pension terms. It is more than likely that teachers in the United Kingdom will follow a similar path. Schools will be staffed by a growing number of tired, dispirited and unenthusiastic staff with little or no enthusiasm for development. The challenge for those involved in education is to produce a system that actually engages every teacher in some form of development, and that recognises that lateral development is of equal importance to career development.
11.0 NURSES and MIDWIVES FOCUS GROUPS

11.1 Introduction

11.1.1 The model of teachers' career options and continuing professional development was, as stated in the methodology chapter, to be tested on further groups of professionals within education i.e. on other secondary school teachers or on lecturers in further or higher education. A decision was then made that a more valid test would result from exposure of the model to practitioners in professions other than education, and it was decided to test the model on nurses and on midwives. The professions of nursing and midwifery were seen to have much in common with the profession of teaching. All three professions are perceived to be amongst the lower-ranking professions, are mainly public sector based although having some involvement with the private sector, and have been subject, directly or indirectly, to stringent government controls over the past decade. A further reason for the choice of both nurses and midwives is that midwives, even prior to Post Registration and Practice (PREP - see section 11.2.1 below), have had a statutory requirement for continuing education, in the form of refresher courses, whilst no similar requirement has been in place for nurses. Midwives and nurses may, therefore, have differing views on the prospect of PREP, which may appear more daunting to nurses than it possibly does to midwives.
11.2 Post Registration and Practice (PREP)

11.2.1 The nursing and midwifery professions have, since 1990, been putting into place a comprehensive standards framework for Post Registration and Practice (PREP). Included in the framework are statutory requirements for the completion of five study days every three years, and for the maintenance of details of professional development in a personal professional profile. Failure to fulfil these statutory requirements plus two other such requirements concerning notification of intention to practice and completion of a return to practice (if a break in practice of five or more years has occurred) will result in the removal of the nurse or midwife from the United Kingdom Council for Nursing, Midwifery and Health Visiting (UKCC) Professional Register. PREP commenced on 1 April, 1995, and all practitioners who have renewed their registration after that date - a three year requirement - have been notified of the new PREP requirements for their next renewal of registration. The first practitioners renewing their registration under the new requirements will thus be in April 1998, and all current practitioners will have renewed their registration under the new requirements by 31 March, 2001.

Much information on PREP has been forwarded to all practising nurses and midwives, and all should be well aware of the concept and practice of continuing professional development. It is important to point out, however, that PREP relates solely to clinical skills. Development of management skills or any other skills that do not relate directly to the clinical aspects of nursing or midwifery do not count towards completion of the five statutory study days, although they may form part of the personal development profile.
11.3 Focus Groups

11.3.1 The testing of the nurses and midwives was by means of focus group interviews. The advantages of using focus groups, according to Fontana and Frey (1994), are that they are:

1. Data rich
2. Flexible
3. Stimulating
4. Recall aiding
5. Cumulative and elaborative, over and above individual response
6. Inexpensive.

11.3.2 Two focus groups were held, one with midwives employed at a large National Health Service (NHS) teaching hospital, and the other with nurses employed at a private hospital. The focus groups were held at the respective hospitals. It was intended that the focus groups would be of consistent numbers but in the event, nine midwives attended the one focus group, and three nurses attended the other. That all participants in the focus groups were volunteers, coupled with the volatile nature of hospital duties, meant that availability and consistency of numbers could not be insisted upon in the two focus groups. All the focus group members were female. The midwives were aged from late-twenties to mid-fifties whilst the nurses were aged from the mid-thirties to the early-fifties. The grades of the midwives ranged from E to G (under the old grade system from staff nurse to ward sister) whilst the nurses were two F grade (senior staff nurses) and the matron of the hospital (a title retained in the private hospital sector) who would have been a G grade nurse in the public sector. The focus groups were intentionally constructed of varying grades of staff in the anticipation
that debate would be stimulated across the staff grades as well as within staff grades. That such debate was achieved is demonstrated later in this chapter by the illustration of a number of quotes from the focus groups. One of the nurses was employed part-time at the private hospital and also worked part-time at a National Health Service (NHS) hospital. All the nurses and midwives, with the exception of one midwife, had entered nursing and qualified as nurses under the old hospital-based training system. The one exception was a direct entry midwife, a comparatively new mode of entry to the profession, who was not a qualified nurse. The midwives were thus qualified to discuss both professions, and the nurses to discuss both the public and the private sector. The focus group interviews were recorded on an audio recorder with the consent of the focus group members who were guaranteed anonymity for themselves and for the hospitals. The recorded interviews were transcribed and analysed.

11.4 Views of the Focus Groups

11.4.1 Both focus groups commenced with a brief introduction on the work that had been carried out to date and a description of the model of career options. The focus group members were asked to comment on the model in general, and as to whether they considered it to be applicable within their own profession and organisation. There was agreement that the model of career options was valid in respect of career options in both nursing and midwifery.

11.4.2 With the exception of the afore-mentioned direct entry midwife, all the nurses and midwives had made a definite choice of nursing as a career. In most cases, as with a number of the teachers who had made a definite choice of career, the decision was made when the individual was still aged in single figures. As
some teachers stated that their career choice was influenced by being born into a family of teachers, so one nurse stated that her career choice was affected by being born into a family of nurses. Nursing was described as 'a vocation not a job' and such a belief would probably account for the preponderance of definite career choices by the nurses and midwives over the other three reasons cited by the teachers for choosing their career - drifting into the career, second-choice career or second career. The spiritual aspect of the vocational career was somewhat tempered when two midwives gave the reason for their calling as, respectively, 'the uniform' and 'Emergency Ward 10', which was a very popular hospital-based television series of the 1960s. What was not realised by one nurse, who had wanted to be a nurse from a very early age, was the reality of nursing. She had become a nurse because she loved the uniform, loved the idea of working with people, and thought nursing was very feminine work. Reality, as agreed by all the other members of the focus group, was 'the sheer hard slog' of nursing and 'being expected to be a lumberjack.' Where the nurses and midwives had held jobs before entering nursing, these were of the fill-in variety taken only until the age for commencing nursing training had been reached. One nurse had started her nursing career as a nursing cadet at the age of fifteen before switching to full-time training on reaching the required age. Even the one exception had known her career would be within the caring field, and she had worked within the NHS before accepting the opportunity to qualify as a midwife.

11.4.3 Nearly all of the focus group members stated that they had no idea or intention of anything other than hands-on nursing when they entered the profession. Thoughts of management did not occur, and there was little or no knowledge of management scales and structures. They entered the profession to nurse. Two focus group members only stated that they had any thoughts of
promotion. Both wanted to obtain the level of ward sister. The system prevalent in nursing at the time that nearly all the focus group members entered the profession was that nursing involved three years training, more practical based than theory based, followed by one compulsory year as a junior staff nurse at the training hospital. There was agreement across both focus groups that a general staff nurse is regarded as a jack of all trades but master of none, able to look after most patients in most specialities, but with no deep understanding of any specifics. To progress from this position it was deemed necessary to specialise. This obviously differed from the teachers who had chosen their specialist subject at least at the same time as electing to train for teaching.

11.4.4 Choosing a speciality generally occurred two to three years after completion of general training, and involved taking a course in the specialist subject. The majority of midwives stated that they had drifted towards midwifery rather than it being a definite choice. A particular example was of electing to take a midwifery course as it was the only course available at the local hospital, and with a young family, travel was not an option. A second example was intending to use midwifery purely as a career stepping stone. Midwifery was seen as the easiest option in which to obtain the post of ward sister which would then be used to obtain a similar post in any branch of nursing. Two of the midwives had waited longer than the others before deciding to specialise. One had waited eight years before electing to take a speciality course, simply because she did not know which speciality to choose. Another had qualified as a midwife on her return to work following a career break to have a family. Choosing to become a midwife enabled her to progress up the career ladder again, whilst remaining a nurse would probably have prevented this. The return, even though the break was short, had been at a much lower grade and status than that which had been held prior to her
resignation. Of the nurses, two had chosen a speciality - one in the subject at which she had scored best in her training, and the other in the first speciality she had covered in her training. The third nurse remained a generalist. It was also pointed out that electing for a speciality option used not to be a given right. If a vacancy in the speciality was available at one's hospital then the choice was granted. If no vacancy was available then it was a question of being fitted with and accepting what was available. Thus drifting into a career, and second choice career, became reasons for nurses and midwives choosing their career, but with regards to specialisation rather than original choice of career.

11.5 Management in Nursing and Midwifery

11.5.1 The management structure in midwifery and nursing was described by the focus groups as 'very small'. Qualified nurses and midwives who were totally ward and patient based, (termed clinical staff), the equivalent of the classroom teachers in education, will be on grades D, E, F. Above these are G grades (termed ward managers), the old ward sister grade, and in comparison to teachers might be considered to hold a senior manager role, though in teaching terms a deputy head teacher rather than a head teacher. Dependent on the number of ward managers allocated to a shift, the role could be either totally management, administration and support based, or a mixture of these and hands-on clinical work. On the basis that promotion to G grade and above must come from F grade staff, certain F grade staff must compare to the aspirants to a senior managers role in teaching, although none of the F grade staff who took part in the focus groups were disposed to this career option. Above the G grades are H grades and, possibly though rarely, I grades, who are clinical managers responsible for a number of wards in a hospital, are totally management based, and compare with
senior managers, i.e. head teachers, in the teaching profession. Above H/I grades are the General Manager of Nursing and Midwifery and then the Director of Nursing and Midwifery who will be a board member of the hospital or hospital trust. These last two grades might compare to a Chief Education Officer and the Director of Education for a Local Education Authority. If one compares the number of hospitals to the number of schools, it can be seen that the position of clinical manager (H/I grade) is the ultimate position that the vast majority of nurses and midwives could ever aspire to reach. It was stated that Government restructures had removed two top nursing and midwifery grades, with some of the money saved being retained in budgets to fund additional, lower (E and F grade) appointments.

11.5.2 The appointment of non-nursing/midwifery managers, generally financial managers, to run the NHS was not considered by the focus group members to have affected the clinical management structure, although it is possible that the removal of two top nursing grades was a result of the introduction of the new managers. This point was not argued by the focus group members.

11.6 Changing jobs

11.6.1 The focus group members were in agreement that:

'you need all-round experience to manage - very blinkered otherwise'

'the higher up you are you only stay in the job for about three years - another job is found for you or move on'

'planning to climb the ladder - stay in job more than three years you have lost it'

'change hospital for promotion'

'need qualifications for management'
11.6.2 Changes to the management structure had resulted in:

'fewer management jobs'
'top jobs possibly only available in London where staff turnover is high'
'top jobs mean moving - but family circumstances may prevent this'
'rules change all the time - goalposts are moved'

11.6.3 Three of the four ward managers had planned their career and had made job and hospital moves in order to obtain their present position. Two had set the career plan early in their career, a third had made the career plan and moved hospitals much later on. Her change had come about with the realisation that she could do better than existing management. It was also stated that the introduction of non-nurse managers into the NHS had made some nurses decide to become managers even if it meant becoming non hands-on. Two of the four managers in the focus groups were seeking to obtain non hands-on management posts. It was stated that the roles of manager and nurse/midwife are 'now so vast that you cannot do both'. In both case the managers were electing to move from the hands-on role and become full-time managers. The fourth ward manager considered her rise to her present position as being in the right place at the right time. This pattern again echoes the rise of the teachers to senior management roles.

11.6.4 When most of the focus group members had started their nursing career, promotion was considered to be:

'waiting for dead men's shoes'
'waiting to be approached for position'
'was offered the position - now have to apply for posts'
11.6.5 The question of 'dead men's shoes' was still considered to apply - literally waiting for post holders to get pregnant. But altered social circumstances meant that many new mothers now returned to their job. However, due to their changed family circumstances they were likely to put their own promotion prospects on hold or abandon them altogether, and thus block the promotion prospects of those more junior to them. If a nurse or midwife manager returned from a short career break and on the same hours they worked prior to the break, then they were likely to retain their position and grade. Returning on shorter hours generally meant accepting a return to clinical staff status. From here it was possible to climb again if 'one got one's act together' but the break nevertheless meant that the nurse/midwife was unlikely to reach as high on the career ladder as might have initially been wanted. Many were content to remain on the clinical staff, family priorities being more important to them than their career.

11.6.6 The circumstances of reduced management jobs and elongated time waiting for promotions meant that rapid early promotion was not a factor in the nurses and midwives careers.

11.6.7 Although no nursing speciality was considered low in status with respect to other specialities, prospects of promotion could be affected by electing to join specialities that had smaller staffing numbers than most other specialities. Examples of such specialities include infection control and organisational health. It may be recalled that low status subjects in education are also small in staff numbers. Lack of promotion opportunities from such areas may be due, therefore, not to subject status but to the difficulty of making the first promotion steps when situated in a small department.
11.7 Mentorship

11.7.1 Mentorship now has a formal role within nursing and midwifery. Mentors are provided for students and a preceptor is provided for each newly registered practitioner. A mentor occupies an educational role working with a student to bring the student up to qualification standard. A preceptor acts as a role model in day-to-day practice for the newly-registered practitioner and together they are expected to evolve individual teaching and learning methods in a flexible relationship. The preceptor support role is generally expected to last between three and six months depending on the practitioner's experience and ability.

11.7.2 Those midwives who were mentors, normally only full-time employees, accepted the role as part of their employment terms. 'It is a teaching hospital and we have to expect to teach.' The role was described as:

'Lots of hard work - on the whole quite enjoy'

'Great deal of incentive to do well - enjoy it on the whole'

'Mentor has to be done - no recompense'

11.7.3 These comments imply some degree of qualification as to the role of mentor, and these qualifications were further expanded. The training course for nurses is now fifty per cent practical and fifty per cent theoretical, with education taking place off the hospital site at a University. Problems of mentoring include lack of communication between mentors and university lecturers (communication having been much better when education took place on site), students 'not being aware of what is expected of them - but is this the role of the mentor?', and 'study days taking over from practical days.' For the other side of the coin it was stated that 'students are not getting the help they need' and 'students and mentors too
often do not get on together and do not want to get on together.' One nurse, whose daughter is training to be a nurse, stated that one of the major difficulties with the current system of mentorship is that each student has a different mentor on each ward worked on, and some of the mentors are not interested in the role. More junior staff are now being used as mentors than those who were once chosen as mentors under the informal system. The nurses and midwives all agreed that the informal mentor scheme was 'invaluable' for their career although the actual term 'mentor' was not in vogue when the majority of them had commenced their career. Comments were:

'you used to pick your mentor yourself'

'always had someone'

'all have someone we latch on to talk to'

11.7.4 In some cases the mentor was chosen 'almost involuntary - one does not realise that one is doing it', but the relationship became long-term. One nurse manager commented that she was still in touch with, and still using, her mentor even after twenty-five years since the start of the relationship. 'In those days the informal mentor was very much senior to oneself and nowadays would not be given to me as a mentor.'

11.7.5 The informal mentoring system appeared to be stronger in nursing and midwifery than it was in teaching. Whereas in teaching mentoring was acknowledged as a factor in the career progress primarily by those who were management orientated, in nursing and midwifery people from both career orientations acknowledged the help of a mentor. This may possibly be due to the vocational aspect of nursing and midwifery. The informal system covered both career skills and clinical skills and was considered to be still in place, although the
introduction of formal mentoring was believed to be 'taking the informal system away.' A general comment was that it was nice to have an informal mentor but that now it was harder to find one. This has been foreseen earlier in the study as a possible drawback to the introduction of formal mentoring into teaching. For the nursing/midwifery formal system of mentoring it was believed that 'one should be able to choose your mentor' and that one mentor for a student over the training period would be of greater value than numerous short-term mentors covering ward or speciality assignments.

11.8 CPD/PREP

11.8.1 As stated in the introduction to this chapter, midwives have always had a statutory requirement to keep their skills up to date but, prior to the introduction of PREP, the same requirement did not exist for nurses. The midwives stated that they were always keen to keep up to date as the practices of midwifery 'were always changing.' Midwifery involves all-round care; caring for, educating and supporting patients of all ethnic groups, cultures, and status. Midwives are aware that the patients are not ill and are generally 'well-informed' and 'have an informed choice.' Many patients have gleaned information from books as to, for example, 'the pain relief they want.' Midwives have found, therefore that they need to be ahead of the game. Midwifery, thus, has an ethos of development that covers all career options How the individual midwife chooses to update remains a personal choice.

11.8.2 Nursing, on the other hand, has not had such an ethos of development, and the nursing profession's attitude to development has been very similar to that of the teaching profession. One of the clinical nurses had qualified fifteen years ago
and had not undertaken any development since qualifying. This was not considered to be unusual. In the fifteen years she had remained in the same job and both she and the employing hospital had been content with that state of affairs. The second clinical nurse had returned to nursing after a long career break in order to raise her family. On her return to nursing after close to twenty years away from the profession she was informed that her nursing registration would automatically be renewed on payment of the required registration fee. Not happy with this situation she enrolled on courses at her own expense to obtain an update of her skills. The introduction of PREP has removed the possibility of such examples occurring in the future. Nevertheless, in both midwifery and in nursing the focus groups demonstrated that development for the individual was along a continuum with some undertaking all the development possible and others no development at all, or the minimum statutory development.

11.8.3 As with teaching, the general rule was that the higher the grade of nurse or midwife the greater the amount of development undertaken. The varied approach to PREP and to development is demonstrated in the following comments both for and against PREP.

For PREP:

'good to show updating of skills'

'PREP drags non-developers into doing something'

'PREP is what you want it to be'

'job related but very wide choice'

'danger of not doing anything'

'those who want will do more'

'PREP better than doing nothing'
Against PREP:

'many do not want to be developed just want basic updating'

'just want to be told what to do'

'if you want to develop you will do so anyway'

'pushing it if expected to permanently obtain upgrades and qualifications- some nurses do not want to'

'there are professional course attendees'

'people who obtain extra qualifications /attend courses are not necessarily a better nurse'

'development depends on your priorities'

'is your job your life?'

'PREP does not make a better nurse'

11.8.4 There were concerns as to how PREP would be evaluated, on how it would be judged and graded. Requirement of a reflective element on what has been learned and/or passed on to others was welcomed:

'logging of development is of no use'

'if learning is not used it is useless'

"can write anything on a piece of paper"

'buy Nursing Times every week - will receive a certificate to say you have read it'

11.8.5 Two of the nurses, one a manager, with experience of the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) system for care assistants were concerned with the lack of a viable audit system for PREP. They stated that NVQs were supposed to be of the same standard throughout the country, but that standards varied considerably even in local areas. NVQs depended on the person assessing, but
there were good and bad assessors and verifiers. There was no system of cross-referencing of testimonials provided to say that the work had been completed - no-one went back to the person providing the testimonials. Their suggestion for PREP was a system of checking by line managers, and then checking by auditors. They believed both that this was necessary and that this system would be introduced within ten years. Concern was also expressed re the expense and standard of training and study days. Lots of trainers 'had jumped on the PREP bandwagon' but quality of training was often poor.

11.8.6 Although systems varied from hospital to hospital and depended on budgets which generally were tight, most NHS nurses and midwives paid for their refresher courses and study days themselves. Time off was granted for study days but not payment for courses. The private hospital required their staff to pay twenty per cent of course costs. Payment for courses was accepted by the nurses and midwives:

'if paying for oneself more likely to take note."

11.8.7 The positive comments in support of PREP emanated from both the ward managers (which term for the purpose of this analysis will also include the hospital matron) and clinical staff, but negative comments were confined totally to the clinical staff.

11.8.8 Outside of PREP, the continuing professional development of the ward managers was more intense than that of the clinical staff. The professional activities of two of the ward managers included being supervisors, each supporting and encouraging thirty clinical staff to fulfil their development needs. The two ward managers also co-ordinated and taught on clinical skills courses,
internally and externally to their employing hospital. All ward managers cited various committee duties including Joint Steering Course Committees that prepared and reported on various clinical statistics. One ward manager held posts of responsibility with the Royal College of Midwives and with the General Nursing Council. All the activities undertaken by the ward managers were voluntary, unpaid and carried out in their own time. They stated that there was no real pressure placed on them to undertake the extra peripheral duties, but they wanted to do them. They obtained 'a better profile from extra-curricular work' and had learnt 'what is required for one's C.V. and for the future.' The only professional activity reported by the clinical staff was one nurse involved in NVQ assessment of health-care assistants.

11.8.9 The number of courses and conferences attended by the focus group members was not recorded. It was implied, however, that the ward managers attended far more such events than the clinical staff. The remark 'there are professional course attendees' that was quoted earlier was made by a clinical staff member and was directed at the ward managers - and not altogether well received. It should be remembered that all midwives, though not nurses, have to attend statutory refresher courses. These might be compared to school INSET days but it would only be fair to comment that the refresher courses would appear to be more pertinent and of a higher quality than the INSET days.

11.8.10 In self-directed learning three of the four ward managers were studying in their own time, mainly if not totally at their own expense, for a Masters degree. Two of the Masters degrees were in management skills, the third in clinical skills. The intention of the two ward managers taking the Masters degrees in management was to obtain a position that was totally management orientated, as
they no longer wished for hands-on clinical work. The fourth ward manager was within a few years of retirement. The only long-term course mentioned by the clinical staff was a course in aromatherapy being taken by one midwife. The course, funded by herself at quite considerable cost, was being taken for pleasure and interest rather than for career purposes, unlike those taking a Masters degree.

11.8.11 In the variance of the CPD activities of the managers and the clinical staff there is a direct comparison with the CPD activities of the management orientated teachers and the classroom teachers.

11.9 Hours

11.9.1 There was agreement by all members of the focus groups that those in management grades work much longer hours than those clinically based. One clinical nurse commented that:

'G grades live here [in the hospital]' 
and a second comment concerning managers was that:

'people can get over-involved in the job.' 

But it was accepted that:

'the higher the grade the more that is expected of you' 
'administration rises with the grade' 
'mangers work longer hours' 
'some do not appreciate how much managers do.'
11.9.2 The only exceptions to this rule were considered to be the very top hospital management and the financial managers who were described as having:

'a 9-5 job''

'lighter hours - no shifts and no weekends.'

11.9.3 All nursing and midwifery positions involve administration and areas of responsibility that are not hands-on care, but it was stated that the administration of the clinical nurses and midwives is contemporaneous with the job, whilst the management grade administration is far more likely to be undertaken in their own time after the completion of their shift. Clinical staff normally stay over time only if there is a clinical problem with one of their patients rather than for administration purposes.

11.9.4 A particular problem to nursing and to midwifery but not to teaching is caused by the pattern of shift and weekend working. The management staff never all work at the same time and in the same team, so management meetings have to be arranged when some managers are officially off duty. Many other meetings and seminars have to be attended in people's own time. It was stated that 'people are expected to do things in their own time and do not think anything of it.'

11.9.5 A rising cause of additional time spent on the job is in the number of complaints brought about by an increase in patients' expectations and awareness, their knowledge of the Patients Charter, and an increase in litigation. Complaints are time consuming with one complaint possibly involving up to six nurse/midwife contacts. Time restraints apply in the response to complaints. Although parents' expectations of schools are possibly not as high as patients'
expectations of hospitals, media reports do seem to show an increasing number of complaints against school and teacher performance.

11.9.6 It is accepted by the managers that some of the work they do, and that adds to their workload, should not be undertaken by someone of their seniority and experience. In their defence they state that it can be:

'faster to do yourself- knowing your job and knowing your staff.'

They delegate where possible but also:

'appreciate how stretched staff are.'

There is a general shortage of midwives and nurses with many hospitals and hospital trusts seeking recruits from overseas in order to fill their vacancies.

11.9.7 Ward managers work much longer hours than clinical staff, as do senior managers in teaching work longer hours than classroom teachers. The comment by clinical staff that ward managers 'live here (in the hospital)' was not fully appreciated by the ward managers, but is similar in context to comments made by classroom teachers about some of their senior managers. Some of the work of the ward managers, that contributes to the long hours, is banal in nature but is due more to staff shortages than to lack of delegation skills.

11.9.8 Many nurses and midwives had second jobs as Bank nurses/midwives i.e. supply nurses in their employing hospital. Bank work was possible due to the 24 hour day/7 day week requirement of hospital staffing, and a shortage of suitable qualified staff. Although staff of all grades undertook Bank work, far more was by clinical staff than by managerial staff. It was believed that many clinical staff also worked as Bank nurses at other hospitals or care establishments. The clinical nurse taking the aromatherapy course intended to use her skills as a second job,
for interest and for financial reward. The ready availability of Bank work, coupled with family commitments meant that little other work outside the profession was undertaken.

11.10 Ward-based Nurses

11.10.1 For similar reasons to those teachers who wish to remain classroom based, many of the nurses and midwives on E and F grades had chosen to remain clinical based. They know they can 'do the job and keep their skills up to date' and are aware that 'the higher the grade the more things that you get involved in that are related to nursing (or midwifery) but are not directly clinical.' They do not wish for 'the extra responsibilities or the hassle of management' but instead:

- 'think that clinical work is very worthwhile'
- 'prefer one-to-one care'
- 'the idea of sitting at a desk does not appeal'
- 'get a good feeling from patients'
- 'enjoy patient contact and interaction with patients' families.'

11.10.2 Other nurse and midwives who were ward/patient based had previously held higher status, but had taken a career break, usually for the purpose of raising a family. Breaks affect the career, and those of any length meant a return only as a clinical nurse/midwife and likely to remain that for the remainder of the career. Many were content with that as their priority was now to their family rather than to their career. They did, however, comment that the 'professionalism and experience of these nurses was not recognised.'
11.11 Motivation and Recognition

11.11.1 The clinical based nurses and midwives considered that motivation, recognition and thanks for their contribution existed only at ward level but not above that. The new breed of financial managers introduced into the NHS:

'had never been nurses-have not got/cannot have a clue
therefore no recognition.'

It was stated that clinical staff:

'get used to no recognition'

'recognition only comes with status.'

11.11.2 At ward level, motivation and recognition, though subject to peaks and troughs due to varying work pressures, was helped by the fact of working in small clinical teams. There was general acknowledgement that:

'ward managers will rally round and generally try to recognise staff contribution.'

It was accepted that ward managers have a very difficult job:

'half time on ward/half time being told what to do'

'being told about spending on items such as drugs and bank [temporary] nurses.'

11.11.3 The problem of continuity, of never working in the same teams can result in delay in the cascading down of information and the likelihood that 'never does everybody learn about particular information.'
11.11.4 The workload of the clinical staff was heavy, due to shortage of staff, leading to those working being 'stretched, tired and stressed.' Funding was available for additional staff, but recruitment levels were poor with some hospitals having to seek recruits from overseas. Nevertheless, there were no complaints about financial reward 'true nurse does not go in it for money.' Budget and resources at ward levels were restricted, as described in the comments above on the difficulties of ward managers.

11.11.5 The problems of clinical staff in balancing the service they can and wish to provide against the expectation and complaints of patients, described earlier in this chapter, may well equate in terms of time spent and stress caused to the problems encountered re pupil discipline by the classroom teachers.

11.11.6 A major introduction for clinical staff in midwifery, but not in nursing, has been that of job rotation. Clinical staff are expected and made to move around different jobs and different areas - in the delivery suite, on the ward, in the community clinic - and not remain in the same job for twenty years as previously was possible. The focus group expressed mixed feelings about job rotation. It was felt that job rotation enabled the midwives to keep up-to-date in all their skills, which was considered to be good. It was felt by some, however, that each midwife should be allowed input into when she wanted to rotate and the area to where she should move. It was stated that the system of job rotation was not a universal system. Different hospitals have different systems.

11.11.7 Prospects for those clinical based nurses and midwives, and for returnees to work, who seek promotion have been affected by changes in recruitment to nursing. Under the system called Project 2000, entrants to nursing now require 'A'
level qualifications, and then to study for a diploma and degree in nursing. The new system means that:

'training now involves less nursing - training at university'
'training nurses now onlookers-supernumeraries-not supposed to get involved'
'no patient contact till third year of training'
'missing possibly brilliant nurses who do not have the qualifications'
'terrible to be missing out on really caring people.'

11.11.8 The focus group members stated that:

'nursing is a practical/clinical skills job"
'if you want to be a nurse you need experience"
'do not believe that academic qualifications makes a better hands-on carer'
'the intention is to create an image of academia to improve social bearing and, eventually, pay'
'Project 2000 nurses will be promoted early. Bad - with nursing experiences counts so much'
'do not agree with highly-qualified/non-experienced nurses becoming managers with fast-tracking'
'now training to be managers - will be bringing in low-grade unqualified health-care assistants [for hands-on work].'

11.11.9 The focus group members believed that Project 2000 nurses will be favoured in future promotion stakes to the detriment of 'nursing experience which counts so much.' Parallels with teaching do not appear to exist at present but might come into being if the Government is successful with its intention to recruit graduates with the highest level of first degrees.
11.11.10 It was also noted that many Project 2000 nurses are entering the profession after having their families. It was believed by the focus group members that 'they can and will climb the career ladder.' Late entrance to the profession, unlike at present in teaching, does not appear to be a handicap, educational qualifications taking precedence. The Project 2000 nurses were also believed to have an advantage in the completion of their PREP reports and portfolios, due to their higher educational skills.

11.11.11 If Project 2000 nurses are expected to climb the career ladder having entered late into the profession, it follows that the age factor is not the concern of nurses and midwives that it was to teachers. The small management structures, very slim at the top, and a largely female profession with family and home commitments and career breaks, meant that the highest grade that most people were seeking was that of a ward manager. Even for promotion above ward manager, however, there did not appear to be an arbitrary age barrier in place, unlike in teaching. It was believed that age might be a factor in certain hospitals or hospital trusts.

11.11.12 To a large extent the nurses and the midwives agreed that they had gone through, and survived, the period of great changes in procedures in the NHS. The changes were accepted, albeit with quiet reluctance. It was stated that:

'changes get you down sometimes but cannot do anything about it'

'have to accept'

'have gone through management restructures - exhausted those'

'the changes now concern development.'
11.11.13 The main problems now concern government restrictions mainly in budgets and funding of all parts of the NHS, patients' expectations, and the first round of PREP.

11.12 Conclusion

11.12.1 At the beginning of this chapter it was stated that the professions of nursing and midwifery have much in common with the profession of teaching, and a number of commonalities were listed. The focus groups confirmed a further example in that the career options structures of management orientations and clinical (ward/patient) orientation in nursing and midwifery can be compared, as has been demonstrated in this chapter, to the management and classroom orientations within teaching. One aspect where the professions differ is in CPD, where statutory development has long been a requirement for midwives, but not for nurses, but where both professions have now adopted a system of compulsory and audited CPD. Teaching does not have such a requirement. Nevertheless, it was shown that those holding management positions in the three professions had tended to plan their careers, were more committed to CPD in the form of professional activities, and thus giving a high professional profile, attendance at courses, conferences and seminars, and in self-directed learning. They had wide experience through changing jobs and organisations, worked much longer hours than colleagues in non-management roles, and generally had the assistance of an informal mentor in terms of career development. Informal mentioning was stronger in nursing and midwifery than in teaching, but for clinical staff, like classroom teachers, was almost solely in terms of job skills rather than career skills. Reduction in the number of management jobs had affected all three professions.
11.12.2 Age and late entrance to the profession were not the factors in nursing and midwifery that they were in teaching, possibly due to the former being mainly female professions, with career breaks being somewhat the norm, whilst teaching is more a mixed gender profession with males dominating the senior management positions. Family and home commitments affected promotion prospects in all three professions, as did working in small departments, a factor which might well equate with lower status subjects in teaching. Rotation of jobs was seen by the midwives to be a positive factor in the development of their skills, although it was thought that the system of job rotation could be improved.

11.12.3 The reason for the nurses and midwives clinical staff remaining ward based was directly comparable to the reason of those teachers who had remained classroom based. As the classroom teachers believed that teaching is based on pupil and classroom involvement and not on administration and management, so the nurses and midwives believed that their professions were based on patient and ward involvement as against administration and management. The nurses and midwives clinical staff, though affected by similar factors to the classroom teachers such as poor funding of resources, poor communication etc., appeared to have higher morale and motivation than the classroom teachers. This could be due to the vocational aspect of nursing and midwifery (although teaching is often described in similar terms), to the fact of working in small teams rather than individually (although teachers are all department members), to a belief that the main process of change is now complete (a belief not necessarily shared by teachers), to a greater, now statutory commitment to skill development, or to a combination of all or some of these factors.
11.12.4 The two focus groups of midwives and nurses have confirmed that the model of career options that has been devised for teaching is applicable to nursing and midwifery. The focus groups also confirm that many of the factors that affect the obtaining of senior management roles in teaching also affect the obtaining of such roles in nursing and midwifery. Ward and patient based nurses and midwives share many factors with classroom teachers for their reasons in either choosing not to climb the hierarchical ladder, or in being unsuccessful in so doing. The model of CPD in nursing and midwifery is much stronger than the present model of CPD in teaching in that both nursing and midwifery have in place a compulsory, audited system of CPD. This may well be a contributory factor in the apparently higher morale, motivation and professional pride witnessed in nursing and midwifery. A compulsory, audited system of CPD for teachers is one of the recommendations for a model of CPD for teachers put forward in the next, concluding, chapter of the research. When discussing the proposed model the nurses and midwives disagreed with management training being part of CPD. In nursing and midwifery CPD is totally clinically based. To some extent the clinical staff view the ward managers as part of the clinical team, and management refers to the non-nursing/midwifery 'they're all accountants' level of staff introduced into the NHS. As pointed out earlier in the chapter, the ward managers felt more strongly about management skills with two ward managers studying for Masters degrees in management. Even they were not prepared to argue for management to be part of their CPD. This may well be connected to the other main point of disagreement with the proposed model of CPD for teachers. It was stated that 'thirty-five hours [of CPD] in three years is enough'. If management skills were to form part of nursing/midwifery CPD under this time restriction it would risk reducing the development levels of both management and clinical skills to ineffective levels. The suggestion of part-time consultancy staff was
again seen as not a requirement in nursing and midwifery. Otherwise the proposed model was viewed in a positive manner.
12.0 CONCLUSION

12.1 Introduction

12.1.1 The foregoing chapters have shown that teachers do not form one homogeneous group with each member of the group having similar career and developmental aspirations. A model has been produced showing two major categories into which a teaching career may progress i.e. either into a management orientation or into a classroom based orientation. The management orientation is divided into teachers who are in a senior management role (defined for the purposes of this research as headteacher or deputy headteacher) and teachers who are aspiring to such positions. Within the latter group of aspiring managers, there are two further distinct groups; those who have apparent potential to become a senior manager, and those whose career appears to have reached a plateau and who are unlikely to reach the role of senior manager. The classroom based teachers can be divided into two sub-groups; those who chose to be classroom based, and those who wished to make progress towards management but had not, at least so far, been successful in achieving their ambition (for a representation of the model see Chapter 4, section 4.2.5).

12.1.2 The model was produced following a series of structured interviews and questionnaire analysis with individual teachers of varying ages, experience, grades and responsibilities. The teachers were employed in secondary schools in various counties and areas of England. The model has been verified by exposure to
headteachers and deputy headteachers of secondary and primary schools, and to teachers employed in secondary schools and in primary schools. Exposure was by means of one-to-one, or one-to-two talks, and discussions primarily between headteachers and/or deputy headteachers and the researcher, and by lectures to and discussions with various groups of teachers. Wider verification of the model and its application to other professions has resulted from lectures to and discussions with representatives of organisations and professions involved in the public sector and the private sector, and with representatives of academia. Two focus groups, one of midwives and the other of nurses, confirmed the authenticity of the model and its relation to careers in those professions (see Chapter 11).

12.1.3 The research has indicated, almost without exception, that teachers will begin their career as classroom based teachers. How the career of each individual teacher then evolves can be influenced by a number of factors, which have been discussed in previous chapters, such as actual planning of career and planning of continuing professional development, the advice of a mentor, rapid early promotion, changing schools, hours worked, etc. The rationale for the teacher entering the profession in the first place, or his or her career intention at career commencement, more often than not has no relation to the career orientation that is finally taken (see Chapter 5).

12.1.4 Provision by schools of professional development for teachers, embodied nowadays in INSET and the five school closure days, has ignored the different categories or orientations that teachers can elect to take in their career, and has tended to view teachers as one entire body with all teachers possessing the same career hopes and aspirations, and requiring the same development. This view is
incorrect, and leads to many teachers becoming disenchanted with the whole concept of development.

12.1.5 The quantity and quality of professional development at present undertaken by teachers can be seen as a continuum stretching from those who deliberately avoid all development, even statutory INSET courses if possible, through to those who eagerly seek any and every opportunity to increase their teaching and/or their management skills (see Chapter 7).

12.1.6 Professional development is more likely to be part of the agenda of the teacher, and to be more rigorously undertaken, if the teacher has chosen the management orientation, and has achieved success within that orientation. Success, in this instance, is defined by rising up the managerial and hierarchical career ladder. Those teachers who avoid professional development are all contained within the category of classroom based teachers (see Chapter 7).

12.1.7 A model of teachers' continuing professional development, as it exists at present, would thus be skewed towards those teachers with management roles or management aspirations. As such it is similar to the model of teachers' career options which is also skewed towards management and management aspirations. As stated in Chapter 1 as the aim of this research, a model has been created of the interactions between career options and continuing professional development. The model demonstrates the differences in teachers' career options and in teachers' continuing professional development between the management orientation and the classroom orientation, and also demonstrates the wide gap between the two orientations.
12.1.8 The following sections of this chapter will illustrate a number of methods, derived from the research, of refining the model of the interactions between career options and continuing professional development in order that more targeted and effective continuing professional development for teachers can be developed - a stated aim of the Teacher Training Agency - and thus help bring about a reduction in the afore-mentioned gap between the two orientations.

12.2 Agencies involved in Teachers' Continuing Professional Development

12.2.1 When this programme of research began, the focus of the author concentrated on the developmental activities of individual teachers. It quickly became apparent that for continuing professional development (CPD) to become an integral part of every teacher's portfolio then, in addition to the individual teacher, the Government, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), Local Education Authorities, the Teaching Unions, and the employing schools all have roles to play in the implementation of the concept, and in its long-term strategic effectiveness. (See Figure 2).

![Diagram of agencies involved in continuing professional development for teachers.](image)

Figure 2. Agencies involved in continuing professional development for teachers.
12.2.2 Teachers must be responsible for their own CPD, but all the relevant agencies also have a responsibility to ensure that teachers are not underperforming in their professional duties and development. It is a sad reflection on teachers, themselves, and on those responsible for schools, that many teachers remain in the same teaching post for long periods of time, in some cases for upwards of twenty years, undertaking no development in that time, and that the employing school, the Local Education Authority and the Government all appear content for this to be the case. The result of such long-term, non-developmental tenure of post is, almost inevitably, a loss of interest, ability and performance by the teacher (Floden and Huberman (1989), see Chapter 10, section 10.3.3).

12.3 Continuing Professional Development

12.3.1 In 1986 the Department of Education and Science issued DES Circular 6/86 which was concerned ‘to promote the professional development of teachers, to encourage more effective management of the teaching force and to encourage training in selected areas which are to be accorded priority’. It was intended that the planning of the professional development of all teachers should be more systematic and more purposeful (see Chapter 7, section 7.4.2.) In 1994 the Teachers Training Agency (TTA) was established. The TTA’s purpose is ‘to improve the quality of teaching, to raise the standards of teacher education and training and to promote teaching as a profession, in order to improve the standard of pupils’ achievements and the quality of their learning’. To meet this purpose the TTA has a number of aims. Aim number 4 is ‘To promote well-targeted, effective and co-ordinated continuing professional development’ (see Chapter 7, section 7.6).
12.3.2 The TTA is endeavouring to create a structure for staff development that has been identified as missing by a number of authors e.g. Bell and Day (1991), Dean (1991), Cowan and Wright (1990). The TTA states that it will work with groups drawn from inside and outside of education to develop and adopt national standards (see section 7.7.2.) The problem that the TTA faces is to successfully convince the teaching profession as a whole, that CPD is not yet another poorly-planned and short-term innovation that is being foisted on teachers. Unlike other professions whose own members have instigated the adoption of CPD, the teaching profession is not the prime promoter of the CPD initiative within the school education system.

12.3.3 In most, if not all, other professions it is the members of the profession who have instigated, through their professional institute, the introduction of CPD. This is regardless of whether CPD has been introduced as a compulsory or voluntary measure. The teaching profession is being instructed to introduce CPD by the Government, through the aegis of the TTA. The past few years have been characterised by numerous Government interventions in school policies. Many of the changes in policy brought about by these interventions have proved to be short-lived, before being altered again by further interventions. A particular example is the various changes in the national curriculum (see Chapter 10, section 10.10.7.). Other interventions such as the introduction of OFSTED inspections of schools, and hence the inspection of teachers, have created extra work for teachers, and, as such, are not viewed favourably by many in the profession. If numbers of teachers are to view CPD as an imposition thrust upon them, in the same light as they view other recent education policies, then the whole concept of teacher development within schools will continue to range along a continuum, from teachers who are very committed to their development through to teachers
who deliberately avoid development. Teacher development will then, in many cases, be very dependent on the commitment of the senior management team of each individual school to the concept of CPD, a commitment which is lacking in some schools (see Chapter 7, section 7.11.7.4).

12.3.4 In the light of the above statements, it is unlikely that CPD will be successfully undertaken by the teaching profession as a whole unless it is accepted as a mandatory requirement for the retention of the practising teaching certificate. Such mandatory practice has been adopted by many professions including the midwifery and nursing professions under PREP (see Chapter 7, section 7.14.2). Rapkins (1996) states that mandatory policies of CPD demonstrated commitment to the professional standards and the continuing competence of the members of the profession (see Chapter 7, section 7.14.2).

12.3.5 Rapkins (1996) also states that professional bodies with mandatory policies of CPD monitored their members compliance with regulations. Evidence has been given (see Chapter 7, section 7.13) that without monitoring of members' compliance then an element of dishonesty is apparent in self-certification of CPD undertaken. Doubts on the verification of the CPD of medical doctors were noted. Twenty-five per cent of midwives and nurses questioned for this research admitted dishonesty when completing self-certificated reports of CPD.

12.3.6 A form of monitoring of CPD is employed by the midwifery and nursing professions in the requirement of their members to produce a journal reflecting on their development undertaken, and the use to which that development has been put. The midwives and nurses focus groups members welcomed the reflective element of their statutory requirement with comments such as 'logging of
development is of no use' and 'if learning is not used it is useless' (see Chapter 11, section 11.8.4). It was also implied that simply being required to list development activities meant a system open to abuse. Two nurses were particularly concerned with the need for a viable and reliable audit system for PREP, and believed that line managers as well as external auditors should be involved in the process (see Chapter 11, section 11.8.5). Line managers could involve CPD as part of the appraisal process.

12.3.7 Inspection of schools' and teachers' practice is already in existence through OFSTED. The TTA involved OFSTED, amongst many other institutions and individuals, in its review of in-service training in the attempt to obtain a more strategic approach to the training and development of teachers (see Chapter 7, section 7.6.4). OFSTED could be asked to extend its inspection role to include the audit of the CPD of teachers when it undertakes school inspections. The TTA also propose that the current professional development of all teachers should be reported in school governors' annual reports to parents.

12.3.8 This proposal of the TTA raises the query as to which direction each teacher's CPD should take. The Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD) states that one of the principles underlying CPD is that development should be owned and managed by the learner. A second principle states that learning needs are individual. A third principle states that learning objectives should be clear, and where possible (the author's italics) serve organisational as well as individual goals.

12.3.9 CPD should, therefore, be for the benefit of the individual and, only as a secondary consideration for the benefit of the employer, in this case the school. It
will, however, require a very enlightened school governing board, and an even more enlightened body of parents to approve a programme of CPD that has been undertaken totally for the benefit of the individual teacher rather than for the benefit of the school. Guest (1997) has stated that many industrial and commercial companies are refusing to allow their employees any training and development that does not fit into organisational requirements. The companies argue that they see no value to themselves in assisting employees to increase their skills, only to discover that the employees use these additional skills to obtain new jobs with other companies. It is not beyond the bounds of probability that a board of governors will require all the development undertaken by teachers to be school related, and will ignore or reject any development personal to the individual teacher. This is especially so, in these days of tight budgeting, if the CPD programme involves funding by the school. It is possible that the governors may elect to dictate to the teacher the areas of development that they require the teacher to undertake. Yet it has been shown that teachers seeking promotion need to demonstrate professional expertise gained beyond the boundaries of their school (see Chapter 7, section 7.10.1). Indeed, one of the causes of aspirants for senior management posts failing to achieve their objective is that their development becomes too biased towards the school in which they are employed. The monitoring of CPD, under the system envisaged by the TTA, could well encourage schools and teachers to become too inward-looking.

12.3.10 One possible answer is for schools and governing bodies to encourage teachers to engage in CPD that is a mixture of development for personal gain and development that is aimed towards the benefit of the employing school, if the two separate objectives are not able to be combined into one united aim.
12.3.11 For all grades of teachers, however, it is suggested that it will be important not to concentrate their CPD activities solely in relation to the career orientation that they have elected to follow. If management oriented people choose to develop only along the management line, and classroom oriented people develop only their teaching skills, CPD will serve to increase the already wide gap between the two elements. CPD activity for all teachers should include both management skills and teaching skills. Managers will thus not lose all their teaching skills, whilst classroom teachers will gain some necessary management skills. Teachers in both orientations will benefit as they will be more aware of potential and existing problems currently being posed to managers and to teachers. Dean (1981) believes that teachers should be given the opportunity to acquire management skills (see Chapter 7, section 7.4.6). The Law Society recommends that twenty-five per cent of each of its members CPD requirement is by management/skills based training (see Chapter 7, section 7.3.4).

12.3.12 That teachers, whether they be management oriented or classroom oriented, require skills other than teaching skills is illustrated by the classroom teachers with their experiences and complaints of lack of leadership, motivation, status, recognition, input and thanks from their senior management (see Chapter 4, section 4.5 and Chapter 10). That classroom teachers should think this way of their senior managers should not be a cause of surprise. Until very recently there has been no obligation on the part of senior managers to undergo any management training as a prerequisite for obtaining a senior management role. The majority of teachers have moved from their own school education straight to college or to university and then moved from higher education back to school as a teacher. Their knowledge of the world that exists outside of teaching and outside of education, and even outside of their own specialist subject, is often alarmingly
small. The skills of management and of leadership are just two examples of skills that would be of benefit to teachers within, and without of education. Long-term management training is discussed more fully later on in this chapter.

12.3.13 The acquisition of such skills would assist senior managers in the improvement of their own individual performance, and would assist them in the development and training of their subordinates. The knowledge acquired by both the senior managers and the subordinates would aid in mutual understanding and recognition of management problems that effect both groups.

12.3.14 Similarly, time spent by senior managers on teaching skills would enable the senior managers to be more in touch with the classroom teachers and the particular problems that they encounter. The effect would be to reduce or nullify the oft-voiced comments by the classroom teachers that their senior managers have long forgotten the problems and stresses with which the classroom teachers are continually confronted in their working day.

12.3.15 The professional institutions that have implemented CPD vary in the number of hours that they require their members to undertake CPD in a given period. The Institute of Personnel and Development (IPD) require a minimum of thirty-five hours per calendar year. Midwives and nurses have a statutory requirement under PREP for the completion of five study days every three years (see Chapter 11, section 11.2.1). Failure to complete the stated hours results in a loss of the member's professional status. Whatever the annual requirement of CPD decided on for teachers, the requirement should be over and above any development training undertaken through the five INSET days. If this proviso is not accepted, then the whole concept of CPD has not been accepted by the
teaching profession. Simply logging INSET days as the total professional development undertaken in a year must be considered unacceptable to the individual and to the profession, particularly as such days are perceived by many to be of a low standard and to be unrelated to individual requirements.

12.3.16 The question then arises as to what extent, if any, guidelines will be set for variations in CPD activity. In order to provide a balanced mix of activities, rather than allow the easier, and possibly lazy, option of concentrating all activity in one area, it is the practice of many professional institutions that evidence is required of CPD under the following three headings:

1. Professional work-based activities.
2. Formal learning i.e. courses, conferences and seminars attended.

This format was used in the research programme to ascertain the CPD undertaken by the interviewees.

12.3.17 An alternative requirement is for evidence to be produced of formal, structured development undertaken, in addition to any unstructured development that has occurred.

12.3.18 What is essential is that some form of guidance be given to teachers concerning the construction of their CPD. As has been shown earlier, many teachers undertake no development whatsoever. Other teachers' development is reactive rather than proactive. In order to prevent abuse and avoidance of CPD it is necessary that some prescribed method of undertaking CPD be introduced. The method chosen must allow room for individuals to prioritise their development
requirements, and to match those requirements to accommodate budgets and time scales.

12.3.19 The problem for staff development and CPD within schools is encapsulated by the school mentioned earlier in the research that had combined its staff development programme with a local institute of higher education in order that interested staff members could obtain further academic qualifications. First of all, those teachers who did not wish to extend their CPD to the extent of gaining further qualifications, but were still interested in their development, tended to be ignored by the system. Teachers who showed little or no interest in their own development were not encouraged, or even forced, to undertake any development. Only a small number of teachers in the school were thus encouraged to undertake any development. Latterly, the two prime movers of the initiative in the school have obtained more senior posts in other schools. Without the drive and expertise of these two people, the school staff development plan has ceased to exist.

12.3.20 The introduction of CPD to schools must encompass all staff. Senior management have to ensure that CPD becomes a culture that permeates the whole school. Responsibility for CPD must be shown to be the responsibility of every teacher, and to be a responsibility that exists throughout each teacher's career.

12.4 Appraisal

12.4.1 Compulsory appraisal every two years for all teachers, including headteachers, was introduced by the government in 1990. Appraisal as a link between school development and teacher development is considered vital to the
professional development of teachers (see Chapter 7, section 7.5.11). Yet the TTA (1995a) acknowledged that in many schools appraisal was failing to provide a systematic approach to improve teachers’ practice, and was failing to assess the impact of training. In some schools, it was further acknowledged that appraisal has stopped taking place altogether (see Chapter 7, section 7.5.2). Doug McAvoy (1997), the General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers described the concept of appraisal as ‘dead in the water’. None of the six schools involved in the research programme had implemented a successful appraisal scheme, and many teachers interviewed had never been appraised. For those teachers, of all grades, who had been appraised their reaction to appraisal was mixed. Whilst some considered appraisal to be useful and effective, others stated that in their opinion appraisal was ‘no use’, ‘cursory’, ‘rubbish’ (see Chapter 7, section 7.10). These opposite opinions occurred within schools as well as across schools.

12.4.2 A particular criticism of appraisal noted in the research was the lack of rigour in the system. Being allowed to select one’s own appraiser and to select the topic(s) on which one was to be appraised led to appraisal being quoted by one senior manager as ‘safe - appraising what one is good at rather than what one needs to develop’ (see Chapter 7, section 7.10).

12.4.3 The need for appraisal to be linked to school development planning and teachers’ own professional development is essential (TTA 1995a). The need for appraisal to be recognised by teachers, schools, and all the relevant agencies as a vital part of teachers’ continuing professional development is also essential. Appraisal must be rigorously implemented in all schools and must be undertaken by every teacher.
12.5 Planning and Clustering of INSET days

12.5.1 There is a definite feeling that INSET days are, in general, of low standard, poorly prepared, and of little consequence to the majority of teachers that attend them. The quote by one teacher of 'not more bloody IT' is echoed by many other teachers (see Chapter 7, section 7.10.2.6). Many teachers find any available excuse to absent themselves from INSET days (see Chapter 7, section 7.11.3.2). Each school must ensure that their INSET days are planned in accordance with the requirements of their teachers. It is, however, recognised that no matter how good a use is made of the five INSET days, such a limited allocation of five days time does not in any way allow an individual school to ensure that all the development requirements of its teachers will be fulfilled.

12.5.2 It is important that the Government, local education authorities, and schools recognise that individual teachers have their own individual career and development aspirations and need relevant assistance to accomplish their ambitions (TTA 1995b, Cowan and Wright, 1980). It is recognised that funding to send teachers on courses and secondments is extremely limited. Nevertheless what funding is available must be spent fairly with an equal distribution between all teachers. At the present time there is a definite inference by teachers that developmental funding is biased towards those higher on the hierarchical ladder, and to the detriment of lower scale teachers i.e. classroom teachers (see Chapter 7, sections 7.10.2.5 and 7.11.7.3). The TTA (1995b) acknowledge that money in school budgets which is intended for continuing professional development is sometimes being used for other purposes, and that there is a lack of accountability for the deployment of such resources at national, local and school levels. It is essential for the development of individual teachers, and for the development of
the teaching profession as a whole, that in relation to continuing professional
development all teachers are seen to be equal in terms of development
requirements and development funding.

12.5.3 To ensure that funding is targeted efficiently and effectively, local
education authorities could arrange the clustering of INSET days. Every school
within a local education authority would have the same five days allocated for
INSET days. As should be the case now, INSET days would involve school
development and teacher development. Certain of the five days would be
allocated to school development, and teachers on these days would attend their
own school. On the remaining days, devoted to teacher development, some
schools would, for example, concentrate on management topics, others on
teaching skills. Some schools would concentrate on management skills at a senior
level, others at an intermediate level, and others at a junior level. Further schools
would concentrate on teaching skills at a senior level, others at an intermediate
level, and others at a junior level. Teachers would be directed and/or would elect
to attend INSET days at whichever school was presenting a relevant topic at a
relevant level. A register of attendance would be necessary to ensure that teachers
did actually attend the INSET sessions and not take advantage of time away from
their school to simply have a holiday. It should be noted that such clustering
already occurs around small primary schools, where the staff numbers in
individual schools are not large enough to enable appropriate and applicable
training and development to take place. Extending this to all schools within a
local education authority should not prove impractical. Such moving around to
different schools, and meeting with teachers from other schools at the same career
and development levels, would also prove invaluable for the individual teacher in
building a network and support system - a system which many teachers lack at
present. The costs of clustering INSET days within local education authorities would be comparatively nominal, involving only administration costs, should not involve travel and subsistence payments, and would more than pay for itself in increased performance and increased motivation on the part of the recipients. Whilst it is accepted that such items as increased performance and motivation do not appear as hard cash on a balance sheet, they will, in turn, quickly lead to a reduction in absenteeism and time away from school due to stress-related illness and, therefore, a reduction in monies spent on supply teachers.

12.6 Job Rotation in Schools and between Schools

12.6.1 Many teachers of all grades - senior managers, aspirants to that role, classroom teachers - state that they fear remaining in one job for twenty years with no prospect of change (see Chapter 9, section 9.2). Job and school rotation can remove that fear. Job rotation has been shown to be successful in the midwifery profession, especially from the point of an increase in practical skills (see Chapter 11, section 11.11.6). Changing jobs and organisations has been shown to be a factor in the gaining of the post of a senior manager for both teachers and for nurses and midwives (see Chapter 5 section 5.4 and Chapter 11, section 11.6). Administration by schools and Local Education Authorities of job and school rotation should not be an over-difficult operation.

12.6.2 The fear of the teachers is centred on the effect that such a long tenure in one job will have on their own motivation and performance within the school, and consequently the effect such reduced motivation and performance will have on their pupils. The problem of many mid-career teachers is that they are not happy in the future that they see for themselves but that they do not know what to do to
alter that future. Veiga (1993) states that research indicates that career plateauing is more likely to occur at mid-career stage than at any other career stage. Feldman (1996) argues that retraining and cross-training are critical to the career development of mid-career employees. There is, however, a resistance to retrain or to cross-train. But new skills increase both internal market value and external market value, and can, therefore, help to reduce the present gap between the management and classroom orientations.

12.6.3 The idea of enforced moves on teachers will undoubtedly meet resistance from many teachers. Yet some of those resisting such moves will likely be the same teachers who have expressed strong dissatisfaction with their jobs in their present form and those who dread the prospect of doing the self-same job for the remainder of their career. Other teachers, of course, will be very content where they are. Floden and Huberman (1989) query whether it is possible for teachers to sustain interest and productivity over thirty-five to forty years of a classroom career which has relatively few changes in the nature of the work. Goddard (1990) quotes Drucker on the difficulty of people being challenged once a period of five years has passed in the same job (see Chapter 10, section 11.10.8). Mortimore et al (1980) has argued that headteachers are maximally effective for four to seven years at a school, but for many headteachers the first such post is also their last post and covers a period of twenty years. Green (1994) echoes these comments (see Chapter 9, section 9.5.2). The teaching profession will need to convince its members that job and school rotation will enhance their development and their career. Organisation and co-ordination of job and school rotation will be by the individual schools and by the local education authorities.
12.6.4 To countermand the fear of the teachers of being in one job for an overlong period and with no prospect of change, schools could rotate posts within the same establishment. The suggested time period is five years, in accordance with the findings of Mortimore et al (1980), Green (1994) and Drucker. The rotation could be, for example, a Head of Year, which is a pastoral post, to become Head of Department, which is a subject post. In some schools this has already taken place although more because a teacher has been unhappy in a post rather than as a strict result of job rotation. At present for this to happen it requires two teachers to agree to swap posts and for the suggestion to come from the teachers involved.

12.6.5 Whilst changing jobs and organisations has been shown, for teachers and for midwives and nurses, to be a factor in the gaining of the post of a senior manager, perhaps even more importantly remaining for too long in one organisation has been shown to have an adverse influence on career prospects. No less than thirty-five per cent of the teachers interviewed considered that an overlong stay at one school had been detrimental to their career (see Chapter 5, section 5.4). One of the reasons stated for not changing school was ‘taking the easy option - cosy with life’. Compulsory changing of schools would obviously remove the fear of being too long in one position, and would remove the ‘cosiness’ and replace it with challenge. Changing schools would also help prevent the individual being taken for granted (Jones 1994). It is therefore proposed that teachers rotate schools every five years - within a Local Education Authority. The switch to be between schools probably, but not necessarily, of a similar kind.
12.6.6 It is acknowledged that too much change can be counter-productive. It is, therefore, further proposed that if a teacher were to change their job within a school then for the five year period a change of school is not also required. But only one change of job within a school would be allowed. Thus within a ten year period a teacher would be required to change either their post within a school at least once and change school at least once, or change school twice. These proposed changes would be in addition to any changes of school brought about by obtaining promotion.

12.7 Long-term Management Training

12.7.1 Thody (1993) surveyed a sample of 80 teaching professionals in middle management positions in England and Australia. She found that 'what was surprising about their qualifications was the dearth of those concerned with management qualifications'. (p. 28). Most secondary schools in the United Kingdom have an annual budget of between £1 million and £3 million per annum, a figure much higher than the majority of businesses in the country. Yet we expect schools, these large 'businesses' to be managed by people with little or no financial training. A similar position exists with respect to pure management skills. Senior management in schools will have received little or no training in the art of management. Classroom teachers, as already indicated, suffer from lack of leadership, motivation, recognition, input and thanks (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.5 and Chapter 10).

12.7.2 Dean (1991) states that whilst industry tends to plan the succession of people in senior posts, the same tendency does not exist within schools. Dean argues that teachers should be given the opportunity to acquire management skills,
and that management should be a permanent element in the school professional development programme (see Chapter 7, section 7.6).

12.7.3 Formal management training has recently been introduced to teaching in the form of the Headteacher’s Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP) which provides training only for those who are already hold a position of Head or Deputy Head of a school, and in the form of the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) which is open to aspiring headteachers but which does involve an application and selection system, and in addition to the intended head teachers qualification proposed by the present Government.

12.7.4 If teachers are being assessed as to their suitability for the NPQH, then it is probably reasonable to assume that the majority of selected candidates will be either current headteachers or teachers who are already close to achieving that position. Selected candidates will, thus, be in a position of heavy responsibility, subject to pressures of workload (see Chapter 9, sections 9.5, 9.6, 9.7) and time (see Chapter 8, section 8.2, 8.3) and still be expected to undertake extensive study. A particular example is of a deputy headteacher, who participated in the research programme, who is currently working a term's notice before taking up his first headteacher post. He is, at present, spending time at both his present and new schools, preparing his present job for handing over to his successor and laying the foundations for his new post. In addition he has recently commenced studying for the NPQH. A recent meeting with the chairman of governors of his new school commenced at the late hour of 9.15 p.m., following a full day's work plus attendance at a three hour NPQH lecture/seminar, which itself involved a sixty mile round drive. Whilst accepting that these particular problems will last for one
term only, there will still exist the problem of combining study with the duties of a new, responsible post. Subsequently the new headteacher resigned from the NPQH course unable to combine the workload and pressure of his new post with the workload and pressure of studying for the qualification. For many there will also be the problem of funding the course, as being assessed as suitable for the course does not guarantee automatic funding.

12.7.5 Similar arguments (possibly not the funding argument) can be made against the proposal by the current Government of a new head teacher's qualification, especially if all existing head teachers are to be 'fast tracked' to the qualification. Such blanket 'fast tracking' does raise some doubts as to the value and depth of the proposed qualification.

12.7.6 Management training should be accumulated, and management skills built up, over the course of a career, and not be undertaken only when in a senior management position. Apart from having to learn the requisite skills whilst having to deal with the responsibilities of management, there is also the likelihood of having to unlearn false premises that have been gathered over fifteen to twenty years. No teacher would be appointed to a senior management position without having obtained credits in designated modules, somewhat similar to the police having to pass sergeant and inspector examinations before any possibility of earning promotion. Examples of modules might include leadership, team-building, communications, decision-making, delegation, finance. Modular credits could be built up over a number of years through such sources as distance learning, evening classes, and attending week-long summer courses. These would, of course, form part of the individual's annual CPD requirement. The modules would also be of value to those teachers who had no intention of
progressing to a senior management position. All teachers are managers to a greater or lesser extent. Knowledge of management and financial skills will, at the very least, improve communications between the various levels of teachers.

12.7.7 An alternative to the modular credit scheme, or possibly a contemporary scheme to run alongside a modular credit scheme, would be a competency based development programme. Such a competency based development programme for teachers could be organised by the Management Charter Initiative (MCI) which is the Management Lead Body within the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) system. NVQs consist of five levels, which in management range from basic level through supervisory and middle management levels through to senior management level. Obtaining an NVQ confirms that an individual's performance equates to a specified standard, and that the individual has the knowledge, understanding and skill to produce such performance in the workplace. Beardwell and Holden (1997) state that many occupational areas, including teachers, are embraced in the NVQ framework. The TTA (1995a) acknowledge that consistency must be established between different accreditation and credit transfer schemes including NVQ routes.

12.7.8 A more radical recommendation would be for aspiring senior managers to obtain a general management qualification such as the Diploma in Management Studies (DMS) or Management in Business Administration (MBA). This would have the effect of teachers learning management and leadership skills and, in addition, mixing with managers from industry and commerce, from both the public and private sectors. Teachers would gain from the sharing of experiences and knowledge. Studying for a DMS and/or an MBA would assist in reducing the insularity that education, to its detriment, appears to encourage, and which Sikes
(1985) with her work on relating teachers' development to the work of Levinson et al (1978) has shown to be based on a false premise. Possibly a specialist MBA with a common core and an educational pathway might prove to be an acceptable compromise. That teachers might welcome a general qualification is demonstrated, firstly, by the headteacher of one school involved in the research who had obtained a Master in Business Administration (MBA) and who was full of praise for the knowledge and insights obtained from the course (see Chapter 7, section 7.10.3.1), and, secondly, by the newly-appointed headteacher, mentioned earlier in this chapter, who had commenced studying for the NPQH. Despite his subsequent resignation from the course due to pressure of work, his initial reaction to the course was very favourable, as for the first two months of study there has been no mention of educational topics, only of general management topics. There would, however, appear to be little likelihood of a general management qualification being universally adopted as the proscribed route within teacher management qualifications.

12.8 Part-time Consultant Teachers

12.8.1 Many of the teachers involved in the research programme stated the importance to their personal and career development of the fact of having a mentor (see Chapter 6). Many of the midwives and nurses echoed the same point saying that having a mentor was 'invaluable' for their career (see chapter 11, section 11.7). The teachers and the midwives and nurses all emphasised that their mentoring relationships were informal rather than formal, and that their mentors were, respectively, senior, experienced teachers or senior, experienced midwives and nurses. Writers such as Gehrke and Kay (1984) and Levinson et al (1978) found that successful mentoring relationships were more likely to be informal
rather than formal relationships. Evidence given by the midwives and nurses suggested that the formal relationships now applicable within midwifery and nursing had met with limited success, and that in addition they were believed to be 'taking the informal system away'. More junior staff were now being used as mentors than those who were once chosen as mentors under the informal system (see Chapter 11, section 11.7).

12.8.2 McNally (1994) states that adding the role of mentor to a senior employee already overloaded with work is simply guaranteeing the failure of the mentoring relationship. The alternative choice of giving the role of mentor to a younger, less experienced teacher would again appear to reduce the standard of the mentor and hence the standard of the mentoring relationship.

12.8.3 A solution to the problem of mentors for young teachers would lie in the appointment of part-time consultant teachers to schools. Such appointments could also solve another problem encountered by all schools, but not part of this research programme, namely the cost and quality of supply teachers.

12.8.4 The position of part-time consultant to a school is a position, it is believed, that would appeal to many teachers, or recently retired teachers, provided that taking such a position would not have any major effect on their pension entitlements. A careful and considered appointment to the post of part-time consultant would give a school a senior, experienced appointee, not involved in the hierarchy of the school or in any perceived promotion contests, who would be able to relieve at least some of the pressures on the other teachers in the school. A permanent part-time consultancy position would provide many benefits to a school.
12.8.5 There is little doubt that a supply of candidates for such positions are readily available. First of all, some full-time teachers might welcome the switch to a part-time role. Secondly, many schools already have potential part-time consultants in place, in that they use the same supply teachers to cover all their temporary vacancies be the vacancies of a one day duration or for periods of weeks or longer. Many of the supply teachers would welcome a permanent part-time contract. Thirdly, a large number of teachers retired from work in 1997 earlier than they had wished or wanted to, in order to be able to take advantage of the existing pension arrangements which were due to be changed. The majority of those retirees would probably have stayed on in school for a number of years if the existing pension arrangements had been allowed to continue to stand. Many of them, without doubt, would welcome the opportunity of using their experience and becoming a part-time consultant teacher. What is extremely important, however, is that the selection of any part-time consultant be seen to be a case of selecting the right person for the job. It is vital to the success of the position that the post is seen, by all the other teachers in the school, to be of value to them and to the school itself. The post must not be seen to be a reward for past services or simply ‘a job for the boys (or girls)’. 

12.8.6 The appointment of part-time consultant teachers should be only on short-term contracts of one to two years duration. This would ensure that those appointees who do not make a success of their new responsibilities are not retained in a school on an indefinite basis. The contracts would be renewable subject to agreement of all the concerned parties. It is not anticipated that there will be difficulty in finding applicants for such posts, but care must be taken to ensure that the right people for the positions are selected.
12.8.7 The requirement for such part-time consultant teachers is illustrated by the example of a teacher, known to the researcher, who took early retirement at the age of fifty-five. He now supplements his pension by supply teaching on an approximate one-third time basis. His total income from his pension and supply work is the equivalent of his salary if he had remained a full-time teacher. His stress level has reduced dramatically and he is totally reinvigorated. He was employed full-time in a secondary school as a Head of Faculty and personally specialised in geography and geology. As a supply teacher his work has included teaching a class of six year olds in a primary school and teaching biology to a class of thirteen and fourteen year olds in an all girls high school. Given the greatest will in the world he is in effect child-minding.

12.8.8 The suggestion is that this same person should have been retained as a consultant in the school from which he retired, and where he had worked for over fifteen years, on one-third of his salary to work one-third of his time. A young teacher could have been employed full-time on the remaining two-thirds of the retired teacher's salary. The total salary cost to the school would thus be the same. The consultant teacher could act as a formal mentor to the new teacher, and to other teachers, with adequate time to devote to the mentoring relationships to the advantage of both the mentor and the mentees; could 'supply' teach when required, with the added benefit of knowing both the pupils and the absent teacher and, therefore, being able to teach at a much higher standard than a supply teacher brought in from the cold; act as a teacher substitute to allow full-time colleagues to work together or to observe each other in the classroom; organise in-service training and many other jobs, thus relieving senior management for more teaching duties and pupil-contact time; and by having retired early would enable young teachers to obtain promotion more quickly. Not every teacher seeking early
retirement would be suitable for such a consultancy position, but a careful and correct appointment, not necessarily someone retiring from a senior management position, could only be of great benefit to a school.

12.8.9 Prior to the change in teachers' pension arrangements that were made by the last Government in April 1997 the above proposal would have been very cost effective. The total salary costs for the new fully employed young teacher and for the consultant teacher at one-third of time and salary would have equalled the final full-time salary earned by the now consultant teacher. The only difference would have been in overhead costs such as employer's contribution, office space and such like. These overhead costs would have been small in relation to the overall costs. Under the old pension arrangements, the pension costs of early retirement were borne by the Teachers' Superannuation Scheme (TTS) to which the retired teacher and the employing body, the Local Education Authority, had been contributing since the start of the retiree's teaching career. Costs of retirement did not fall directly on to the employer.

12.8.10 The maximum pension payable to teachers, after a total of forty years service, is half the final salary plus a one-off, tax free sum of about three times the annual pension. Many teachers do not actually achieve the total of forty years as they do not start their careers unto well into their twenties, and many have career breaks along the way. Employers can boost a retiring teacher's pension by the addition of notional years of service, up to a maximum of ten years in cases of school reorganisation or school closure. Teachers who are declared medically unfit will normally be granted some enhancement dependant on age and length of service. A teacher in their early fifties might typically receive an enhancement of six years notional service.
12.8.11 In the new scheme, brought about by the fact that the TTS is overdrawn by the sum of £1.5 billion, part of the pension costs of a teacher's early retirement will move from the TTS to the Local Education Authorities and to schools. The Authorities will have to pay part of both the basic pension and the lump sum due to the retiree. Williams (1996) states that most teachers now do not work through to the set retirement age. Eighty-three per cent of primary school teachers and eighty-nine per cent of secondary school teachers retire early. In the last ten years 150,000 teachers have either retired early or left teaching because of ill-health. This represents an increase of sixty-eight per cent over the previous ten year period. 150,000 early retirees is three times the number of teachers who have left teaching at the normal retirement age. Early retirement for teachers has thus become the norm rather than the rarity. For Local Education Authorities, unsupported by the Government, to have to bear the costs of the early retirement of teachers is a burden that is beyond their funding capabilities. The change in pension arrangements is thus a move to block the flow of teachers taking early retirement.

12.8.12 There is agreement that early retirement costs have been moving out of control. The move by the last Government to change pension arrangements is an effort to halt the expectation of teachers for early retirement. But the change in pension arrangements means that many dispirited teachers will remain in schools unable to afford to leave, and that promotion prospects will be diminished for younger teachers. Schools will not be able to replace older teachers with cheaper, younger teachers. Wallace (1997) points out, however, that there are alternatives to early retirement for teachers who cannot now proceed with what may well have been their preferred choice of early retirement. Wallace quotes Brian Clegg, the assistant secretary of the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women
Teachers (NASUWT) who reports that teachers who are approaching the end of their career can be allowed by agreement of their Local Education Authority and their school governing body to reduce their responsibilities and accept a lower salary, a process termed 'stepping down', or to choose the option of becoming a part-time teacher. In either case the reduction of the workload would not have any great effect on the final value of the pension and on the lump sum to be received by the teacher, when he or she finally enters into full retirement. Under stepping down arrangements, a senior manager returning to classroom duties would have the majority of his or her pension based on the senior management salary. If the salary level for a classroom teacher becomes higher than the final senior management salary earned then the pension would be at the higher rate.

12.8.13 Kirkman (1997) states that both the employers and the teaching unions believe that the use of flexible work patterns could help alleviate the problem of early retiring teachers. Flexible work patterns could also reduce the possibly more serious problem of retaining burnt-out teachers in full-time employment. Encouragement should be given for job-sharing and part-time work to become more acceptable for older teachers. Kirkman also states that stepping down is a rarely used process that should be given greater flexibility and greater credence. At present stepping down only occurs within the same Local Education Authority or, for grant maintained schools, within the same school. Many teachers do not pursue the option of stepping down as there is a potential of possible embarrassment to themselves, their colleagues, and their governing bodies in a former high profile teacher taking a lower role. The stepping down process should be extended so that teachers may move to any Local Education Authority in any part of the country. The more common the process becomes the less the likelihood of embarrassment.
12.8.14 A number of organisations outside of education have begun to use a system of gradually phasing in retirement for their employees. With the agreement of the organisation, an employee reduces the hours worked, for example by working four days a week instead of five, and receives a pro rata salary for the time worked plus a pro rata pension payment for the non-worked hours.

12.8.15 If teachers were to be given the option of more flexible working arrangements, and in particular the part-time option, then the proposal for consultant teachers would still be workable and would still be cost effective. In addition, it should also be remembered that immediately prior to the change in pension arrangements a larger number of teachers than usual opted to take early retirement in order to beat the soon to be imposed pension restrictions. There is at present, therefore, a large pool of prematurely retired teachers available, some of whom are already supplementing their pension with supply teaching or similar work. Others would be keen to do so if given the opportunity. Any schools with sufficient funding available within their budget could seek to engage a retired teacher on the consultancy basis outlined above, to the advantage of all the parties concerned.

12.8.16 An alternative approach to the cost of funding part-time consultant teachers, and an approach that is being vigorously pursued by a headteacher who has seen a draft of this study, is to simply use the money spent on supply teachers to fund the salaries of part-time consultant teachers. In the last school financial year, the particular school spent a total of £33,000 on the ‘purchase’ of supply teachers. The headteacher envisages engaging three part-time consultant teachers, each at a salary of £11,000 per annum to cover supply requirements and, in
addition, to provide all the extra services including mentoring that were detailed earlier in this chapter. The headteacher has no doubt of the benefits to his staff and to his school if the 'budget' of £33,000 per annum was to be spent in this manner rather than in merely paying supply teachers for what generally is a holding operation with no long-term benefits. The headteacher does not anticipate any problems in finding and securing suitable appointees for the positions and duties of part-time consultant teachers.

12.9 Summary of Proposals

12.9.1 The proposals detailed above concern the Government, the Teacher Training Agency, Local Education Authorities, the Teaching Unions, and individual schools and call for active co-operation between all agencies. The proposals, derived from the research programme and from relevant literature and practice, refine the model of the interactions between career options and continuing professional development. The result, if the proposals were to be adopted, would be more targeted and effective continuing professional development, an aim of the TTA, and a narrowing of the gap between the management and classroom orientations of teachers. By the adoption of particular CPD practice from other professions there is again confirmation that teachers and teaching can be equated to other professions (see Sikes, 1985). Conversely, proposals for teachers’ career options and for teachers’ CPD have been shown to be applicable to other professions (see Chapter 11). The proposals can be summarised as follows:

1. Establish CPD as a compulsory and audited process.
2. Reinstate appraisal as a strong developmental process tied to CPD.
3. Recognise that teachers have individual career and development needs.
4. Schools to plan INSET days with reference to specific teacher needs.
5. LEAs to cluster school INSET days.
6. Rotation of teachers between roles in schools.
7. Rotation of teachers between schools.
8. Establish long-term management training.
9. Establish part-time consultancy (mentoring and teaching) positions.

12.9.2 If these proposals were to be put into place the result would be a model of teachers' continuing professional development that embraces all teachers, accepts that each teacher is unique, emphasises the importance and necessity of development to career needs, and involves the interaction of the teacher and the organisation - in terms of the school and the Local Education Authority. The proposals recognise that the most effective learning is through experience and work-based development, and begin to move schools towards becoming 'learning organisations' (Senge, 1990) for the staff, as well as for the pupils.

12.9.3 For individual teachers the following proposals for the implementation of CPD are made:
1. Plan CPD for two years ahead (to fit in with the appraisal cycle).
2. CPD to be a mixture of management and teaching skills.
3. CPD to include personal and organisational objectives.
4. Implement CPD - professional activities/courses/self-directed learning.
5. Prepare reflective journal.
6. Formal appraisal.
7. On completion of above six points, repeat the cycle.
The model of CPD to be followed by all teachers would be thus:

![Figure 3. Proposed annual model of continuing professional development for teachers.](image)

12.9.4 One of the greatest stumbling blocks to the efficient running of schools is the wide gap between the perceptions of the management oriented teachers and the classroom based teachers, and the lack of communication between the two orientations. This gap in perceptions is, perhaps, best illustrated in Chapter 8 where the classroom teachers comment on the hours that are deemed necessary to be worked by the senior managers. Similar comments are recorded in Chapter 11 by midwives and nurses concerning their senior managers. It was shown in chapter 8 that many of the classroom teachers actually work similar hours to the senior managers, but devote their extra hours not to teaching but to a second 'career'. Achievement, satisfaction, income is obtained by devoting similar working hours but in very different directions. Yet no indication was given that either orientation of management or classroom was aware of the opposing view. What also should not be forgotten by the parties concerned is that all managers in schools are teachers, and that all teachers are managers. The gap between the two orientations should, therefore, not be as wide as it is at present. The introduction and acceptance of CPD by the teaching profession, in the manner described above,
could prove to be the bridge that closes the gap, and ensures that all teachers work
together for the good of the school and for the good of the pupils.

12.9.5 This model of individual continuing professional development is a
compulsory, audited and time-related system that will ensure the commitment of
all teachers to development and learning. It serves to reduce the differentials
between management teachers and classroom teachers, and to relate the needs of
the teacher with the needs of the organisation.

12.9.6 If the introduction of continuing professional development to teachers and
the teaching profession is to be successful, it is necessary for the majority, if not
all, of the above proposals to be adopted. Otherwise there is little doubt that CPD
will follow a similar route to that taken for the appraisal of teachers. The concept
will be grudgingly accepted, and then quickly ignored. Teachers must accept that
CPD is for their benefit, both in the short-term and long-term over their careers.

12.9.7 As previously stated, the recommendations given do not require great
changes in the teaching profession as it exists today. More radical changes, such
as those proposed by Hargreaves (1994) with the concept of the 'master teacher'
should also be considered. Hargreaves argues that administration and
management of schools should be under the auspices of a chief executive who is a
non-teacher. Teachers will spend the majority of their time in actually teaching,
and promotion of teachers would not be into management but to what he describes
as 'the consultant-like status of the 'master teacher." (p.23). The master teacher
would be the main educational professional who would work in partnership with
the professional manager. Hargreaves contrasts this proposal with the present
system which assumes that gifted teachers make good managers and that
advancement means less teaching. The present system also 'takes many of the
best teachers out of the classroom and leaves the less effective there for life.'
Hargreaves further argues that dividing teachers into managers and classroom
teachers has not been good either for schools or for the relationships between
teachers.

12.9.8 The Government appear to be moving some way towards the line taken by
Hargreaves with their declaration of their intention to introduce a new career grade
of 'advanced skills teacher' which will reward the best classroom teachers who are
prepared to take on additional roles contributing to the quality of the teaching in
their schools. The additional roles suggested by the Government include the
supporting and mentoring of trainee and newly-qualified teachers, setting an
example in high-quality teaching, and sharing of experience and knowledge with
colleagues. Such 'super-teachers', as they have been coined by the media, would
be allocated their own pay scales, as are headteachers and deputy headteachers,
and might also become associate fellows or professors at teacher-training colleges.
The Government through David Blunkett, the Education and Employment
Secretary, has requested the School Teachers' Review Body on pay to suggest
how the role could be recognised outside the existing pay structure.

12.9.9 The Government, however, gives no lead as to how the position of
'advanced skills teacher' could be funded, and a number of the additional roles
proposed seem to have the effect of removing the holder of such a position from
the classroom and the actual act of teaching. In addition, most teachers, as has
been demonstrated earlier, contribute greatly to school performance and school
quality, with contributions over and above their specified roles and involving
much work outside of the normal school day.
12.9.10 What is important is that teachers and the teaching profession do not rest on the status quo. Adopting the proposals of this study will assist the drive of teachers towards greater professionalism by giving teachers greater pride in themselves, their job, and their profession. Ideally led by the teachers themselves, adoption of the recommendations of this study will produce a model of continuing professional development that recognises the individual needs of teachers whatever their chosen or achieved career option, that ensures all teachers are committed to development, and that assists in reducing the differences in attitude and outlook between teachers in the different career options.

12.10 Funding of Proposals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendation</th>
<th>Funding</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Promote CPD</td>
<td>No cost (in place)</td>
<td>Instant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Promote appraisal</td>
<td>No cost (in place)</td>
<td>Instant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Plan INSET days</td>
<td>Minimal</td>
<td>Instant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cluster INSET</td>
<td>Minimal</td>
<td>12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Part-time Consultants</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>18 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rotation of jobs</td>
<td>Minimal</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Rotation of schools</td>
<td>Minimal</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10. Proposals with ranking and timescale.

12.10.1 The Labour Party manifesto for the 1997 General Election stated that at present funds from the National Lottery are channelled to the arts, sport, charities, the millennium celebrations, and to national heritage. The intention of the Labour Party, now the Government, would be to set up a sixth ‘good cause’ to channel lottery funds to health and to education projects. Although the necessary legislation is not yet in place, it is anticipated that the Government will proceed
with making lottery funds available for health and education projects. The proposals detailed above in some cases involve no costs whatsoever to put in place. The remainder of the proposals involve fairly minimal costs. If the teaching profession were to adopt these proposals for making themselves more professional, then the Government should reward the enterprise and initiative of the teachers by making lottery funds available to cover the costs necessary to implement the proposals. The Government has already stated that it is its intention to rid schools of bad teachers. The proposals outlined will increase the professionalism of teachers, will raise the standard of teaching, and, therefore, in a very positive manner will contribute towards reducing the number of bad teachers. When teachers are more professional in their work, spend more time in reflection on their actions, and have more pride in themselves, then the standard of teaching cannot help but rise.

12.11 Aims and Findings of the Research

12.11.1 The aim of the research was to produce a practical study that would detail the career options available within teaching, and provide guidelines to teachers and the teaching profession on the concept of continuing professional development with particular relevance to the interaction between career options and continuing professional development.

12.11.2 At all stages of the research the findings have been checked and verified by means of one-to-one discussions, group discussions and lectures and seminars that have involved question and answer sessions and discussions. These checking and verification procedures have involved teachers of both management and classroom orientation, university academics, and business people of many and
varying industries and professions within both the public and private business sectors. At all times and all stages of the research, the relevance of the findings have been acknowledged as being applicable and relevant to the many and various professions and industries. It is accepted that these acknowledgements may well have been in general rather than absolute terms. The focus groups of midwives and nurses have acknowledged the applicability of the models to their professions again in general terms.

12.11.3 At the time when the research had produced the model of career options within teaching and itemised the factors that had an affect on the obtaining of career options, a paper was presented to a national conference on continuing professional development. Presented on the last day of a three day conference, the paper was acknowledged as the first practical, as against theoretical, paper presented at the conference. With suitable adjustments for publication purposes the paper was later published as a chapter in a book on continuing professional development. Since then two journal papers have been published, each based around one of the factors that have been shown to have an affect on the obtaining or otherwise of career options. Evidence has been given to the author that these journal papers are being used by school governing boards and school headteachers in relation to school and staff development activities.

12.11.4 It is accepted that the findings are general and are not laid down as absolute. Factors that apply in one profession or industry may not be applicable in another although it is believed that certain core factors may well be constant. In addition, there are examples in the research and there will always be, of the person who rises to a senior management role in their profession or organisation simply by being 'the right person in the right place'. One may query whether this actually
applies to the person who claims this, or whether developmental factors undertaken have been forgotten or conveniently ignored. Whatever the rights and wrongs of the argument, it should be recognised that climbing the hierarchical career ladder should never entail only one fixed route. Prescribing such would lead to the danger that management and managers would start to approach a stereotypical state. What the research has demonstrated is the use of developmental factors that if appreciated and used by the potential manager can assist in the climbing of the hierarchical career ladder. But development does not relate solely to those who seek the management orientation, and methods are also shown that will enable the classroom orientated teacher to embrace the concept of development and increase his or her professional skills in a lateral direction.

12.12 Future Research

13.12.1 There is much potential for future research direction derived from this research study. Possible areas to be studied include:

1. Whether the models of career options and continuing professional development can be ascribed to all professions and industries.

2. Has continuing professional development any value for the professions and for their members, as it is promoted at present, and/or what standards should the professions instigate to ensure that continuing professional development is of value.

3. Concurrent careers and how they affect the individual and the main employing organisation.

4. A comparison of formal and informal mentoring.

5. Are senior management appointments in teaching subject to age limits.
6. Is teaching experience necessary for a headteacher or can business people and entrepreneurs become successful headteachers.

7. The career progress of the teachers involved in this research programme to investigate the relevance and strength of the factors involved in career development.

8. Would one professional association representing all teachers enhance the status of the teaching profession.

9. The response to PREP of midwives (previous mandatory development requirements) and nurses (no previous development experience required).

10. Lateral development as against management development.
Appendix A.

Structured Interview.
STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

1. Name
2. Age
3. Sex
4. Marital status
5. Number of children / dependent relatives
6. Age of children / dependant relatives
7. Qualifications
   a) prior to commencing teaching
   b) since commencing teaching

8. Type of school & age range
9. Catchment area
10. Pupil population
11. Staff
    a) number
    b) structure / grades
    c) age / gender / ethnicity of holders

12. Position
13. Subject area
14. Responsibilities
    a) paid
    b) additional-unpaid (including hours per week)
15. Pupil contact time
16. Administration/management time

17. Career to date
18. Initial career plan
19. Changes to career plan & reasons why
20. Present career plan
21. Critical Success Factors in career
22. Negative Factors in career
23. Continuous Professional Development undertaken
    a) professional activities
    b) courses/seminars/conferences
    c) self-directed/informal learning
24. Time spent on CPD
    a) school-time
    b) own time
25. Appraisal/assessment processes experienced
26. Rewards of job
27. Stresses of job
28. Would you choose same career?
29. What career path changes would you make?
Appendix B.

Skills Audit Questionnaire

Thematic Analysis of Career Intentions Questionnaire

Critical Success Factors Questionnaire.
**SKILLS AUDIT: MEASURING STRENGTH**

Please rate the STRENGTH of each of the following skills in your current role. 10 indicates a very strong skill level, whilst 5 or 6 are average and 1 suggests the virtual absence of the skill. Try to spread your scores over the full range, in order to elicit priorities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Rating</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) perceptiveness</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) problem analysis</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) problem solving</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) creativity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ability to learn</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) assessment</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) conceptual thinking</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) communication (giving)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) numerical reasoning</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) verbal reasoning</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(11) setting objectives</td>
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<td>(12) control / discipline</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13) managing people</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<td>(14) verbal skills</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(15) influencing others</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(16) persuasiveness</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(17) team working</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) working in isolation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19) presenting complexity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(20) working with other professions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(21) organizational politics</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(22) report writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>(23) reporting to a manager</td>
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<tr>
<td>(24) group relationships</td>
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<td>(25) selective attention</td>
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<td>(32) use of authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>(33) judgement</td>
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<td>(34) adaptability &amp; flexibility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>(35) organizational awareness</td>
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<td>(36) external perspective</td>
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(37) strategic thinking 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(38) personal impact 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(39) written communication 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(40) oral communication 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(41) team building 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(42) organizational understanding 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(43) negotiating 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(44) self-management 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(45) time management 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(46) financial management 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(47) counselling skills 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(48) assertiveness 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(49) managing meetings 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(50) leadership skills 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(51) group presentations 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(52) one to one presentations 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(53) selling ideas 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(54) study skills 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(55) role playing 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(56) abstract reasoning 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(57) public presentations 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
OTHER SKILLS? Please specify below.

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thematic analysis of career intentions

Our research shows that there are a number of possible career directions that professional people should be able to consider. We would be most grateful if you would answer the following questions about your own career considerations. Your answers will, of course, be kept confidential.

SECTION ONE

1. Do you a) wish to become* or b) see yourself* as a general manager
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all very much so

2. Do you a) wish to become* or b) see yourself* as an educational manager
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all very much so

3. Do you a) wish to become* or b) see yourself* as a specialist teacher
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all very much so

4. Do you a) wish to become* or b) see yourself as a specialist in your chosen subject(s)
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   not at all very much so

(* please specify which)
SECTION TWO

In each of the following pairs of abilities please indicate, by circling one number, how you see your relative strength in the abilities.

expertise in subjects

student management

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

student management

school management

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

school management

administration

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

subject knowledge

school management

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

student management

administration

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

subject knowledge

administration

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Thematic career analysis
SECTION THREE

do you see yourself as:

a) an expert in teaching

or

b) a general manager who happens to be in education

or

c) a hybrid between teacher and manager
Critical Success Factors.

The Critical Success Factor (CSF) methodology was developed at the Harvard Business School and has been adapted to the career and personal development issues of individuals. CSFs selected by an individual should define and support the career aspirations of the individual. They are factors which, if achieved, will contribute towards the career success of the individual. Where success is defined, the individual is much more able to achieve it, than where success is allowed to vary from circumstance to circumstance.

The CSF approach forces the individual to recognise that different criteria for success do exist. The individual must define personal CSFs and also how to manage them. Priorities must be set to distinguish critical from non-critical factors.

The selection of CSFs will reflect the nature of the individual, the sector in which s/he works, the current employer, long and short term needs.

Detailed Guidelines.

* Each CSF should begin with the words "I must....." or "I need....". They should not be mere luxuries.

* Each CSF should be both necessary and sufficient i.e. they are sufficient to achieve career success.

* Do not combines CSFs together. Each CSF should be singular. Avoid conjunctions like "and" or "but".

* Include both strategic and tactical issues (long and short term).

* You should limit yourself to seven CSFs.

* Make sure that you fully support each CSF before endorsing it.

* For each CSF, it must be possible to measure that you have achieved it.

* Set timetables for achieving each CSF.
The Critical Success Factors for (name......................................................).

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(If there is insufficient room please use the reverse side of this paper.)
Appendix C.

Midwives and Nurses Honesty Questionnaire.
Questionnaire.

This short questionnaire forms part of a research project into the concept of continuing professional development. It seeks to establish the value of self-certifying reports of continuing professional development. The questionnaire is anonymous and confidential.

1. Profession

2. Job Title

3. Age. 20-29 □ 30-39 □ 40-49 □ 50+ □

4. Name of Professional Association. (e.g. Royal College of Nursing, Institute of Chartered Accountants)

5. Has your Professional Association introduced continuing professional development. 
   a) as a compulsory measure □
   or
   b) as a voluntary measure □

6. Is the continuing professional development scheme self-certifying?
   Yes □ No □

7. When you complete the self-certifying form, how honest are you concerning the professional development you have undertaken?
   Totally honest □ Slightly honest □
   Mainly honest □ Totally false. □
References.


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