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Abstract

This thesis investigated changes in employment opportunities for part-time teachers in Western Australia as a result of the Independent Public School (IPS) initiative. The study was premised on the understanding that the Independent Public Schools initiative is based on the core tenets of New Public Management. A telephone survey collected a convenient sample of ten principals’ perceptions about part-time teaching staff, with a specific focus on commitment. An analysis of the responses identified tensions between principals’ values, the characteristics of the Independent Public School initiative and equal opportunity policies. Principals placed high value on teamwork, and perceived part-time teachers as less committed to teaching than their full-time colleagues. These may create tensions through increased workplace competition invoked through the Independent Public Schools initiative and the limited availability of part-time teachers. This thesis also identified concerns surrounding the labelling of schools as IPS or non-IPS. It concludes by identifying that the working conditions for part-time staff may experience negative changes in employment equity as a result of the Independent Public Schools initiative. The thesis acknowledges that IPS is here to stay and that the policy challenges lie in identifying, avoiding and ameliorating any inequities the IPS initiative may create.
INTRODUCTION

The introduction of the Independent Public Schools (IPS) initiative is highly topical in the Western Australian (WA) public education sector. This interest has been magnified to a national level by the current Federal Government throwing its support behind the initiative and becoming proponents of implementing the IPS initiative in public schools throughout Australia (Australian Government Budget 2014-2015; Pyne, 2014). This in turn has seen different state and territory governments sitting on different sides of the IPS fence. For instance, the New South Wales (NSW) state government has expressed grave concerns about IPS (Knott, 2014). The Victorian government, on the other hand, has embraced the idea and signed an agreement with the Federal government to create 1500 IPS by 2017 (Tomazin, 2014).

This thesis is based on the premise that the IPS initiative is steeped in tenets of New Public Management (NPM) theory and that this relationship exerts influence upon public education in ways that are not clearly understood, nor perhaps even identified. In this research, I begin an investigation into the effects IPS could have on the many part-time teachers within the public education system of Western Australia. This is important in terms of broader public policy issues as part-time teachers are overwhelmingly women, women continue to be targeted through specific policy programmes, and are presently a group that the current Federal government is targeting through the paid parental leave and superannuation policy changes (The Liberal Party of Australia, 2013).

This research investigates conflicts that may arise between policies that support equity in the workplace and policy initiatives founded on the ideas of New Public Management. It aims to establish how these conflicts exist, and the extent of
these conflicts, by surveying principals who may become, or are currently, principals of IPS in Western Australia. These surveys gather information regarding principals’ values and attitudes towards part-time teaching staff, particularly focussing on beliefs about part-time teacher commitment levels.

The research involves examining and critiquing the literature of Public Policy and Management (PPM), with a particular focus on literature based on the tenets of New Public Management (NPM). It will argue that the IPS initiative is an example of NPM policy. It highlights debates, gaps and tensions in the NPM literature and examines the tools of implementation as exemplified by the IPS initiative. The survey responses provide information about the views of leaders that add to the depth of this analysis.

The survey sample is small. It is not based on analysing the relationship between variables, nor is the project attempting to compare IPS and non-IPS approaches/attitudes, as this would require large amounts of data. The research is descriptive of the opinions of principals, and provides a convenient sample of leaders who reflect different opinions and values. The project uses the methods of social qualitative analysis explained by Sarantakos (1993, 308-309) to identify patterns, themes, and relationships, to identify any research gaps and conflicts.

At this time there are few research papers linking the IPS initiative to NPM, and there is very limited knowledge about part-time teachers in schools. Hence, this research aligns itself well within social research as it is trying to identify whether principals are “doing things together” (Ragin 1994, 11) and therefore having significant influence on others in society. The central research puzzle also meets the
requirements of social research identified by King, Keohane and Verba (1994, 17) by identifying a “topic that has been overlooked in literature”.

The research then, seeks answers to a number of related questions. The questions include;

1. What can be learnt from the responses by the interviewees regarding attitudes towards part-time teaching staff?
2. Are there any patterns in the way commitment of part-time teaching staff is perceived by principals in Western Australian government schools?
3. How do the principal responses and perceived values relate to the tenets of NPM, and are there any contradictions?
4. How has the IPS framework been embraced by principals?
5. How can the interviewee responses inform the decisions regarding policy surrounding equal opportunity in the teaching workforce in Western Australia?
6. What are the implications for future research?

The overall structure of this thesis is as follows;

Chapter One examines the broad societal influences on education in Western Australia. This chapter examines New Public Management, compares the IPS initiative to international models and part-time working experiences. Chapter Two places the thesis in its local context. It investigates the relationship between IPS and NPM, identifies current characteristics of the DOE workforce pertinent to this thesis, details the part-time employee and great teacher characteristics used to construct the principal survey, and then briefly outlines of the Fair Work Act 2009. Chapter Three details the research strategy chosen for this thesis, and provides an overview
of the survey results. Chapter Four analyses the results of the survey in light of the relationship between IPS and NPM. The thesis concludes by considering the policy implications of the influences the IPS initiative may have on part-time teaching staff.
CHAPTER 1: Literature Review

It is necessary to extrapolate upon key concepts that may wield influence on this research. These concepts are political, social and theoretical in nature. Each exerts pressure upon public education in Western Australia, and shape the way individuals interact with public education. This section examines the literature surrounding three key concepts, explores current understandings of each concept, and begins to develop the framework for the analysis of the survey results for this thesis. These key concepts include:

1. New Public Management
2. The IPS initiative and International comparisons
3. Part-time working experiences

New Public Management

New Public Management (NPM) appeared in public discourse in the early 1980s and has since had significant influence on the public sector both in Australia and internationally (Hood 1991, 3; Dunleavy, Margetts, Bastow and Tinkler 2006, 467-468; Pollitt 2007, 113). In order to better understand NPM in the current Australian context, this section will examine the historical influences that has shaped its implementation, the language of NPM, recent challenges to its legitimacy, how to identify policies that are founded on NPM and the current situation within the Australian public sector.
The continuing democratisation of Western nations after World War Two saw governments implement policies derived from Keynesian welfare state ideology. This occurred alongside growing concerns about welfare state policies being overly socialistic, and at times, communistic (see Bessant, Watts, Dalton and Smyth 2006, 50; Held 2006, 201; Flew 2014, 62). This concern was derived from fear against large governments with communistic overtones interfering with the rights of the individual (Held 2006, 200-202).

David Held, in his book *Models of Democracy* (2006), provides a detailed historical examination of the tug of war of ideas surrounding the ongoing development of democracy. For my purposes, it is the divergent ideas that emerge due to theorists of ‘The New Right’ and ‘The New Left’ (Held 2006, 187) that are of greatest interest. These two bodies of thought raised challenges for developing western democratic nations, and their governments. For example, equality through income redistribution on one hand (a New Left, welfare state position), or equality through economic growth on the other (a New Right, neoliberal position)? The struggle between Left and Right ideals has created a number of politically-driven public sector management strategies including ‘The Third Way, ‘New Public Management’, and more recently, ‘New Public Governance’.

This thesis is based on the premise that NPM is a neoliberal-based management strategy. To demonstrate this I will outline my understanding of Neoliberalism by identifying its key characteristics and assumptions, how these relate to NPM and examine the implications of these assumptions on NPM-based policies.

Neoliberalism and its proponents view political and economic life as “a matter of individual choice and freedom” (Hayak, 1960, Nozick, 1974; see Held 2006, 201).
Neo-liberalism promotes the principle that the free-market is better placed to provide freedom of choice, independence and a more active economy (Hayek, 1944, in Bessant, Watts, Dalton and Smyth 2006, 50). This is the main principle of neoliberalism and gives rise to a number of assumptions. These assumptions form the basis of my understanding of current neoliberal thought and, particularly, drawing from Weller and O’Neil (2014, 107), and other scholars including Littler (2013, 62), Held (2005, 201), Hood (1991, 16) and Flew (2014. 64) these assumptions include the idea that equality of opportunity is best achieved when:

1. All social fields become a product for sale (Littler 2013, 62; Weller and O’Neil 2014, 107);
2. The promotion of private ownership of property is used to effectively manage society (Flew 2014, 64; Littler 2013, 62; Weller and O’Neil 2014, 107);
3. Globalisation of the free market economy increases the value of the market through improved efficiencies (Flew 2014, 64; Hood 1991, 16);
4. Individuals have the right to choose their path to success based on personal interests (Littler 213, 53; Littler 2013, 64; Hood 1991, 16);
5. The concept of the ‘commons’ changes from a place of affinity to a place of competing private interests (Weller and O’Neil 2014, 108);
6. The free market exists with minimal government interference (Flew 2014, 64; Weller and O’Neil 2014, 108).

Why does NPM underpinned by neoliberalism exist? Weber identified the moral tension that exists between the need for compassion for others and the needs of a well-functioning market economy (Flew 2014, 63). Stretton (1987 in Flew 2014, 54) states that, “the Left has such necessary tasks for government, and so much to lose from inefficient or oppressive bureaucracy, that it should economise bureaucracy in every way they can”. It is in this way, through political and societal
demands, and not just as a ‘synthesis of opposites’ (Hood 1991, 7) that neoliberalism through NPM has become part of the way that the public sector operates.

Hood (1991, 5) argued that NPM came into existence for two reasons. Firstly, there was growing support for ideas that questioned the traditional model for the management of public services. That is, a move away from the welfare state providing a set service and hierarchical management styles, to ideas including increased ‘user choice, transparency, contestability, and incentives’ to improve the effectiveness and efficiencies of public sector agencies. Secondly, a growing desire to incorporate the private sector management styles whereby managers are ‘free to manage’ that could result in decentralised management and more effective outcomes. These relate directly to “a matter of individual choice and freedom” (Hayak 1960, Nozick 1974; see Held 2006, 201).

The relationship between NPM and neoliberalism becomes clear by examining three key characteristics of NPM based policies. This will clarify the direction this thesis takes as there are different conceptualizations of NPM that stress different things (Dunleavy et al. 2006, 469). This examination will include explaining how these key characteristics relate to assumptions of neoliberalism, and then considers the effects each characteristic may have on the effective functioning of the public sector, to which the IPS initiative belongs.

Firstly, NPM policies support the idea of decreasing, or even removing, the differences between the public and private sectors through competition (Hood 1991, 5; Pollitt 2007, 111 and Pillay 2008, 375). The purpose of this is to improve economic efficiency to save government funding and improve the relevance of outcomes. This relates directly to the neoliberal assumption that social fields should become
marketable products and that competition improves efficiencies. This also encourages the development of competing private interests rather than a sense of common purpose.

Pollitt (2007) acknowledges that NPM has been effective in improving the quality of service in many government agencies across different nations and has resulted in some cost savings. However, he and others, including Dunleavy et al. (2006) identify the NPM causes “organisational fragmentation” and a loss in the ability for the public sector to deliver integrated public services (Pollitt 2007, 112). It is these consequences that raise questions about the long-term cost savings of public sector service changes that are framed in NPM. Pollitt states that it is very difficult to validate claims of improved cost efficiency and financial savings from NPM driven policy changes because the “evaluation of the results of NPM has been very patchy indeed” (Pollitt, 2007, 113).

Secondly, NPM policies aim to reduce the size of bureaucracies through decentralisation (Hood 1991, 5 and Dunleavy et al. 2006, 470). This relates directly to individuals having the right to pursue personal interests and that the free market can only operate effectively with minimal government intervention. The belief that NPM is able to better meet the needs of society through reduced government intervention has been significantly affected by the economic crisis of 2007. Levy (2010, 234) wrote that since the global economic crisis in 2007, NPM has lost support due to its relationship to the free market ideals and private sector, and that this is demonstrated internationally through a decrease in risk-taking by the public sector, a decrease in the support for unchecked free market economy and greater state regulation (Levy 2010, 234).
A final characteristic of NPM is the drive to change the focus of the public sector from the accountability of the process to the accountability of the results (see Hood, 1995; Pollitt, 2007, 110). This involves the use of key performance indicators, rewards and penalties (Siltala 2013, 469). Supporters for NPM argue that this will produce better services/products and in a more efficient way. The focus on results, that anybody can achieve if they put their energies to it, is seen as non-gendered and has been viewed as an effective way to redress gender inequities in the workplace unlike the older nepotism/patronage styles of management (Thomas and Davies 2002, 464). However, other scholars, including Barry, Chandler and Berg (2007, 106), disagree and highlight the gendered nature of NPM in the way it conforms to “masculine discourses of competitiveness, instrumentality and individuality” (Thomas and Davies 2002, 390).

Barry, Chandler and Berg (2007) and Thomas and Davies (2002) identify the efficiency demands placed on output production and the competitive fervour required for success in a NPM workplace. These characteristics are contrary to feminist work styles of collaboration and congeniality (Davies and Thomas 2002, 474), and this places a continual strain on the balance between family and career demands for women in NPM workplaces. There is also the demand of greater economic efficiency in the management of services which places ever increasing demands on individuals, and creates an environment that is not conducive to the maintenance of equal opportunity frameworks that support flexible workplaces, carer leave and child care (Thomas and Davies 2002, 390).

Cunningham (1998) identifies how an NPM structured organisation may create tensions with equal opportunity directives and policies that may include; the inability to monitor the implementation of equal opportunity policies due to ‘fragmentation of management’ within the organisation; the influence on
management that budgetary constraints exert upon staffing and development decisions; and the influence that meeting financial and performance requirements places on organisation priorities making it difficult for EO to make it onto the agenda. This is of concern in the Education field because of the number of women in the teaching workforce.

Wise (2002, 557) highlights the idea that government is a model employer that creates and supports standards of fair treatment in the US and Europe. This is also the case in Australia, and Australian governments (federal, state and local) promote themselves, and are required by law, to practice equal opportunity in the workplace (see Chapter 2 for more details). However, as demonstrated, there is a strong argument that NPM does not lend itself to supporting equal opportunity workplaces. This point is expanded upon in Chapter Two through a discussion of the way the Department of Education has been a leader in creating equal opportunity workplaces for women.

An examination of the language embedded in a policy can establish if it is underpinned by NPM. The rhetoric provides significant clues as to a policy’s origin. Language that indicates how government policies are based on NPM include; product over process, best value for money, balanced budgets, smaller governments, performance indicators, outcomes, and individual choice. For example, the Department of Housing, Western Australia Affordable Housing Strategy 2010-2020: Opening Doors to Affordable Housing². It is important to keep in mind however, as Pollitt (2007, 112) emphasises, that NPM it is not just a neo-liberal principle. It continues to be influenced by many fields of thought, and has been adopted in various ways in

¹ In 2011, the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that 70% of all Full Time Equivalent teaching staff were women http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4221.0main+features502011
different countries with differing political systems. The IPS initiative contains NPM language and this is examined further in Chapter 2.

That NPM continues to manifest itself into the decisions made within the Australian public sector is clear and its repercussions continue to be studied. Fitzgerald and Rainnie (2012, 167) emphasise that some form of “market-disciplinary forms of government continue to expand into different social fields”. Whilst Levy (2010) examined possible futures of NPM and the economic effects of different futures, he didn’t delve into the social equity concerns that surround NPM. However, public policy researchers, including Thomas and Davies (2002), Pillay (2008, 390) and Fitzgerald and Rainnie (2012, 169), continue to question and highlight the conflicts that arise between the implementation of NPM strategies and social equity.

Pursuing more contemporary research on NPM has led to the concept of New Public Governance (NPG). NPG is being touted as a shift from market-based management since the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s, to relational governance (Fitzgerald and Rainnie 2012, 167). The idea of NPG is to leave the process of ‘doing’ to localised areas, in other words, operational management. Government is then responsible for directing, as in policy management (Fattore, Dubois and Lapenta 2012, 219). Butler (1999, in McLellan 2009, 467) differentiates between governance and management as “if management is about running a company, governance is about seeing that it is run properly.” This requires the development of inter-organisational networks rather than a clear line between management and policy. The government’s role becomes one that monitors the management of human resources to ensure that broad policy objectives such as social equity, empowerment and equal access to resources and ongoing efficiencies are met, rather than the day to day management of delivering frontline services.
Wiesel and Modell (2014, 178) describe the relationship between traditional or Progressive Public Administration (PPA), NPM and NPG, and identify the key performance areas that indicate that bureaucracies have moved from one governance structure to the next. Wiesel and Modell (2014, 117) argue that the process of these changes is non-linear and differ between various bureaucracies. This is because of the nature of the different agencies, bureaucrats, the understanding of how the public sector is used (consumed) and the alignment of interests. Wiesel and Modell (2014, 179) describe that NPM is easier to combine with PPA hierarchical management styles, and that the collaborative network-style governance of NPG is difficult to implement because it is quite different to what is already established. Nonetheless, the language of NPG is becoming more favourable due to its convivial nature. Fattore et al. (2012, 225) identified that politicians in campaign speeches and publications prefer to use words derived from NPG such as “network and “participation” rather than NPM words such as “responsibility” and “efficiency”. Fitzgerald and Rainnie (2012, 172) argue that the language of NPG is present in many new policies in Western Australia, and that this language acts as a smokescreen to the pervasiveness of NPM.

Wise (2002, 563) identifies key influences on the development of public management reform other than NPM. These include social equity expectations, democratisation and empowerment, cultural expectations and human resource development. All of these influence the way reforms occur and the way NPM is interpreted in different nations and sectors. It is this complexity that creates challenges and disagreements in the process of defining, describing and evaluating NPM. These other influences on how policies such as IPS are implemented may be revealed in the way principals respond to the survey questions. These responses, and the influences identified by Wise (2002), will add to the discussion of this paper.
In 2002, NPM researchers wanted to abandon the phrase NPM because they considered it no longer new, poorly defined, and ‘not a useful construct’ (Lois 2002, 564). Yet the label, the concepts and the language are still used, still researched and critiqued, and continue to shape the decision-making processes of governments and policy-makers, regardless of its limitations. Pollitt (2007, 113) identifies that elements of NPM have been absorbed as normal by a generation of public officials, and this has occurred without effective and systematic evaluation of the outcomes of NPM policy decisions. As such, it continues to warrant being part of the lexicon in the research and evaluation of government reform.

This research thesis will use Fitzgerald and Rainnie’s (2012) idea of smoke screening NPM behind the language of NPG as a tool for analysing the principal responses to the questionnaire and the implications of the IPS initiative. It will consider the other factors influencing policy decisions as highlighted by Wise (2002) to analyse the repercussions of IPS initiative in the long term. The implications of IPS creating NPM-induced gender inequities and investigating governance interventions that could easily counteract any inequity that arises will enrich analysis.

IPS Initiative an International Comparison

The IPS Initiative was introduced to Western Australian schools in 2009 (Fitzgerald and Rainnie 2012, 169), and at this time, one third of all public schools operate under this system (DOE, 2014a). The government of the time publicised it as being a method by which principals and the school community would have greater control over the running of their schools, and be better placed to identify the needs of the school community (Liberal Party WA 2008, 1). The initiative is being promoted as a tool for devolving the power away from the DOE and the bureaucrats who are
out of touch with localised issues, and enabling schools via the principals, greater control in delivering effective educational experiences that are relevant to the school and local community.

The motivations behind implementing the IPS initiative are twofold. Firstly, the IPS initiative follows trends in other Western democracies to implement changes to public schooling in an attempt to improve the learning outcomes of students with no added financial burden on the state (Trimmer 2013, 180). Other nations that have implemented such programmes include the United States (US see Lubienski 2013, 502), the United Kingdom (UK see Machin and Vernoit 2010, 1), Canada (see McConaghy 1996, 508), Sweden (Bunar 2010, 47) and New Zealand (O’Connor and Holland 2013, 140). Secondly, the decision to trial independent schools is based on the fact that the cost of education has continued to increase alongside different international and national assessments indicating no improvement in educational outcomes for Australian students (Jensen, 2012).

This section identifies key characteristics of the IPS initiative and compares these to the UK Academy schools and the US Charter schools. This will highlight the similarities and differences in the initiatives, and identify challenges the IPS initiative may face in order to succeed.

The IPS initiative in Western Australia is young compared with the UK and US programmes. In the UK, Academy Schools were introduced in 2002 (Machin and Vernoit 2010, 1) to address the growing disparity between the educational outcomes of students in schools with low socio economic status (SES). Academy schools evolved from earlier Technical Colleges and were free of Local Authority (equivalent to Australian State) control, and given funding directly from central government, with the ability to source private sponsors. Academy schools began only as secondary
schools and initially focused on schools that had high levels of students receiving free school lunches and low GCSE scores (Machin and Vernoit, 2010). Academies are now both primary and secondary schools, and continue to be promoted by the current UK government (Government of the UK, 2014).

In comparison, US Charter schools and Australian IPS developed with the objectives of greater efficiency in resource use and better student outcomes, without a specific focus on the nature of the student body. Both Charter Schools and IPS promote promises of being innovative, flexible, and nimble (Bankston III, Bonastia, Petrilli, Ravitch, Renzulli and Paino 2013, 17; Betts and Atkinson, 2012; DOE 2014). These objectives have more recently been adopted by the Academy schools in the UK, in particular, the autonomy of the school’s governing body and enabling all schools to become Academies (Machin and Vernoit 2010, 1).

US Charter schools first began in 1991. Charter schools receive public and private funds, and function reasonably independently of the local district bureaucracies with limited arrangements with teacher unions (Betts and Atkinson 2012, 171; Center for Public Education 2010, par.3; Lubienski 2013, 502). These schools now serve more than 4% of the public school student body, the equivalent of 2.3 million children (CREDO 2013, 2). The number of Charter schools in different states and districts varies significantly, with the majority in urbanised areas (Center for Public Education 2010, par.24). It is important to note here that most Charter schools start from the ground up in the same way as private schools, rather than being a modified public school, as is the case with IPS and Academy schools.

The IPS initiative is funded through one-off funding allowances that enable a school to retrain administration staff and build the capacity to function independently
There are no opportunities to source funding from private parties. This is unlike the UK and US systems. In the US, Charter schools attract funding because there are significant financial benefits to the investors of Charter schools in the form of tax breaks and financial aid packages from the Federal government (Wiggin, 2013). Tax breaks in the US such as New Market tax, provides a 39% tax credit to private companies investing in Charter Schools. Wiggin (2013) refers to this as the ‘Charter School Gravy Chain’ and highlights claims that investors can double their money in seven years. This gives rise to issues surrounding accountability including whether charter schools are more accountable to their investors or students (Paino et al. 2014, 530). Renzulli and Paino (in Bankston III et. al. 2013, 23-24) illustrate this by identifying that more Charter Schools in North Carolina closed due to financial mismanagement than because of the poor student outcomes. The system was open to corruption and the schools were only held accountable to the politicians and taxpayers, not the parents and students.

The IPS system promotes autonomy whereas Charter and Academy schools promote competition. Jensen (2013, 1) details how this is a very different structure. Currently, the IPS initiative does not promote schools to compete for students; rather it aims to support schools in structuring the staffing and curriculum foci to meet the needs of the current school community. In Academy and Charter schools, all students are welcome to attend regardless of where they live. Lottery systems and diversity agendas exist to ensure the process of selection remains fair to all students (Betts and Atkinson 2012, 172; Curtis 2009, 113).

Autonomy and competition differences also exist within the staffing framework. Whilst IPS and Academy schools can select staff independent of relevant Education Departments, they cannot fire teachers at random nor prevent teachers from being union members unlike Charter schools (Lubienski 2013, 502; Betts and
Atkinson 2012, 171). The market-driven competitive environment of Charter schools creates a very different working environment for teachers. Since teaching staff is non-unionised, teachers can be fired at will, there is a higher percentage of teachers with less teaching experience, and Charter schools have higher teacher turnover. All of these can negatively influence the effectiveness of teaching programmes (Ravitch, in Bankston III et.al 2013, 20-12).

All three school types are dependent upon an effective school board. A school board consists of the principal, parents, community members and business representatives. It is responsible for staffing, budget and management decisions. In IPS the principal is appointed by the board, is the head of the board, responsible for all the decisions made and must sign an agreement with the Director General of the DOE (Gobby 2013, 278). Academy and Charter school boards are accountable to the main financial supporters, whether this is the government, private company or not-for-profit organisation (Higham 2014, 406; Jefferson and Kiang 2010, 191). UK school boards located in highly disadvantaged areas have expressed difficulty in obtaining the required support from local non-educational community members. This poor representation of local people affects the ability of the school to identify the true needs of the community (Higham 2014, 417). This may be a potential issue IPS in WA.

There are several issues surrounding the international examples of independent schools. The most significant of these are whether they actually work at improving student outcomes. UK Academies and the USA Charter Schools have their effectiveness constantly questioned because there are no well-structured broad-based evaluations of either programmes (Betts and Atkinson 2012, 172; Bhattacharya, 2013). Betts and Atkinson (2012, 172) highlight the differences in average test scores between traditional public and Charter schools reflects differences in who enrols in the school rather than the quality of education, and Curtis
Crisp (2009) uses a PricewaterhouseCoopers report of 2008 that shows Academies have not raised attainment. It is not possible to clearly demonstrate the effectiveness of these alternatives (to traditional public models) of school management. Therefore, using these international schools as positive examples of independent public schools to support the IPS initiative, is unjustified at this point (Australian Broadcasting Commission, 2013a; Betts and Atkinson, 2012; Bhattacharya, 2013).

A second question surrounding these schools is whether they succeed in creating and meeting the needs of diverse student bodies. It is argued that the history of Charter schools does not derive from the desire, as in the UK, to better meet the needs of students from low SES. Rather these schools stem from the segregationist movement (Bonastia in Bankston et.al. 2013, 24-25) and segregated patterns of enrolment have been identified across the US (Liebenski 2013, 505).

To ensure that Charter schools maintain diversity in the student population many schools have developed a mandate that specifically targets maintaining socio-economic and racial diversity in school and these can work (Petrilli in Bankston et.al. 2013, 21). Whilst many schools do achieve success in diversity and attainment levels (Petrilli in Bankston et al. 2013, 21; Machin and Vernoit 2010, 2), questions surround the inclusiveness of students with learning difficulties. For example, there are concerns that Charter Schools do not meet the needs of autistic students or those for whom English is a second language (Wiggin, 2013; Drame, 2010). Academy schools are also failing to “narrow the attainment gap between the most advantaged and disadvantaged pupils (Whitty 2008 in Curtis 2009, 113). This increases pressure on public schools, and inflates the success rates of Charter school students in national tests as they do not have the same cross section of abilities as public schools.
The IPS initiative has been embraced by the current Federal Minister for Education, who is endorsing the initiative and wants to see it implemented throughout Australia (Pyne, 2014). This has received mixed responses from the different states outside of Western Australia. The IPS initiative appears popular with parents and principals in Victoria, Western Australia and Queensland (Knott, 2013). However, the initiative is opposed by teacher unions because of the belief that IPS entrench inequality (Knott, 2013). In this case the inequality is particularly focused on student outcomes as there is a belief that the IPS initiative will create a ‘two-tiered’ public education system (Fitzgerald and Rainnie 2012, 170; Phillips, 2013). This is considered the direct consequence of principals being able to select specific teachers. The remaining teachers who work in non-IPS schools may be inexperienced, less motivated, reaching retirement, looking for reduce workloads, and generally not as effective as meeting the needs of students in non-IPS schools (Knott, 2013).

The Centre for Program Evaluation (CPE 2013a) conducted an evaluation of the IPS initiative in 2013. The purpose was to provide an evaluation of the early stages of implementation, and identify strengths in the process and areas to address in the future. It was not to investigate student outcomes nor cost efficiencies from the change as it was too early in the implementation to evaluate these key areas of interest (CPE 2013a, 3). Overall, the IPS initiative was positively received by principals, staff and parents; reinvigorated staff about schools and the process of education; and identified areas of development for the Department of Education to build upon in the future (CPE, 2013b). It is important however to note that the CPE 2013 Evaluation of Independent Public Schools Initiative was commissioned by the DOE.

Those involved with the development and implementation of the IPS initiative have the opportunity to consider international variations on independent public school models. This should aid in risk mitigation, the incorporation of effective
International elements and make the IPS initiative a system that works. The recent review by the University of Melbourne reflects this desire.
An Overview of Part-time Work in Australia and Comparable Nations

This section of the literature review outlines the research surrounding part-time work. It identifies why part-time work schedules exist, the positive and negative consequences of part-time work and then considers the specific nature of teaching part-time.

Part-time work is considered as any work schedule that is less than 35 hours per week (ABS, 2008) and with this comes any number variations including; split shifts, 5 day fortnights, school hour days to name a few. There are two key reasons why part-time employment exists. Firstly, part-time schedules enable employers can fill in the gaps of the work schedules. For example, currently schools in Western Australia offer kindergarten classes for two and a half days a week. Therefore the DOE only needs a teacher for those days and hence a part-time position exists. It is also seen as a tool for companies to attract skilled workers (Hayman and Rasmussen 2013, 48).

The second key reason is governmental pressure through the Fair Work Act of 2008. This Act demonstrates the Federal government’s support for employees seeking part-time and flexible work schedules, and encourages employers to think differently about employees. The Fair Work Ombudsman (2014a) outlines the employees who have the legal right to request flexible working hours, and there is an increasing recognition that it is not just people with young families who wish to embark on flexible work schemes. It is important to note that the Act is not legally binding to employers (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2014b). While the employee can request flexible work, it does not legally have to be granted. However, all public sector agencies, at the local state and federal level, are required to follow the Act,
and must meet the Public Sector Commission’s requirements in demonstrating that alternative work arrangements are non-conducive to the job.

Research regarding part-time work environments has demonstrated a number of consequences for the employer and employee. Firstly, there are positive health outcomes for employees. Halpern (2005a, cited in Liechty, Janet M; Anderson, Elaine A.) has established that greater work flexibility results in less work missed and decreased stress reported by workers. This results in benefits to the employer including decreased sick leave, and improved reliability and commitment of employees to the employer.

Secondly, part-time work schedules may enable better work life balance for many employees. Employees are more able to meet the demands of work and caring (children or elderly parents) more effectively working part-time (Hayman and Rasmussen 2013, p. 55). Iseke (2014, 459) found part-time employees who were not over employed, experienced greater job satisfaction than full-time employees. Nonetheless, some research counteracts this research and demonstrates that for women with caring responsibilities, part-time work may not have any ability to positively influence work life balance, especially if the hours of work and care combine to create significant time pressure (Rose, Hewitt and Baxter 2011, 54).

When considering generational differences and attitudes to part-time schedules much research refers to generation X and Y as the ‘What’s in it for me?’ generations (Marston, 2008). Research shows that both these generations have a desire for a flexible work environment. Researchers propose that for generation X it may be because of the ‘latchkey kid’ phenomenon of their childhoods (Losyk, 1977; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Strauss & Howe, 1991; cited in Hansen and Leuty, 2012) while
for generation Y it is proposed that their behaviour is much the same as other generations during their youth but that they have greatly different lifestyle expectations and opportunities (Hansen and Leuty, 2012). Part-time employment opportunities can therefore ensure that diversity of ages and interests is maintained in a business.

However, significant problems do exist for part-time employees. Part-time employment opportunities enable employers to meet niche areas of need in the work schedules. It is when employers set the schedules to suit themselves with no consideration to the employee that the benefits of part-time work evaporate (Hayman and Rasmussen 2013, 55). These types of schedules build in resentment and create ongoing challenges for managing caring responsibilities.

Nelen and de Grip (2009) conducted a survey in the Netherlands with 1,775 part-time and full-time employees. The authors sought to identify differences between part-time and full-time employee responses to formal and informal professional development opportunities. They found that employees and employers differ in their responses to training opportunities and that a significant factor on part-time employees’ engagement with learning opportunities was how they imagined their careers in the future. The flipside of this is also an issue whereby a company will invest in training a part-time staff member if the employer interprets an employee as being positively attached to the firm (Backes-Gellner et al. 2014, 465). In regards to this research and the IPS initiative this is significant as a principal’s impressions of teacher commitment may influence future employment opportunities.
According to Nelen and de Grip (2009), Hayman and Rasmussen (2013, 49) and Iseke (2014, 460) businesses are less likely to invest in part-time staff, part-time staff are overwhelmingly women, experience limited career opportunities and are less integrated into communication structures. This is significant for this research as women make up the majority of the part-time teaching workforce in Western Australia.

There is currently little research that specifically investigates part-time teaching experiences in schools, although there are a number that consider teaching in the university setting. Young and Brooks (2004) provide qualitative information about the personal experiences of principals and part-time teaching staff in Ontario Canada in 2003. This situation of the school environment was similar to the current situation in Western Australia, with budget cuts and a political push to increase autonomy for schools and empower the principals with greater school-based decision-making opportunities. Young and Brooks (2004, 145) identify that principals use their perceptions and assumptions about the worth of part-time teachers, and that both teachers and principals explicitly and implicitly use power to influence their work environments.

Whilst this article is old in terms of data it nonetheless parallels the research undertaken in this thesis in three key ways. First, the article investigates power relationships and the use of power that both the teachers and principals use in order to negotiate working conditions within the political framework of the school and state. For example, part-time teachers who wish to maintain their position in a school will engage in some form of extra-curricular activity (outside the nominal work requirements) as a method of managing the opinions of the colleagues and principal (Young and Brooks 2004, 140). Alternatively, the principals in the Canadian study show awareness of broader social issues with one principal recognising that flexible
workplaces contributed to equal opportunity in the workplace (Young and Brooks 2004, 135).

Second, Young and Brooks (2004, p. 145) identify the variations in principals’ attitudes and entrenched biases to their part-time staff, and how this influences part-time teachers’ attitudes and commitment to the school. These attitudes are affected by principals’ understandings of part-time teaching roles. For example, are they for the enhancement of the school curriculum, a necessary component, a way to support broad societal desires for social equity, or a way to keep talented teachers? These attitudes are influenced by the way part-time teachers are perceived. For example, different principals were better able to manage communication between the school and part-time staff. Those who had good management strategies in place, had positive attitudes to their part-time staff and positive part-time staff (Young and Brooks 2004, 135).

Finally, the study found “universal agreement among study participants that part-time staff contributed a disproportionate amount of and energy to co-and extracurricular activities and professional responsibilities” (2004, 133). This is a strategy part-time staff use to increase their visibility at school, as means of decreasing vulnerability and increasing their power (Young and Brooks, 2004, 141). This strategy may be construed as a reflection of commitment to career and the thesis survey will provide an opportunity to identify any parallels between the Canadian and the Western Australian experiences.

Phyllis et al. (2011, p.10) are advocates of a work environment where “flexibility is the standard way of working and not the exception to be granted by a supervisor”. This is a movement away from individual adaptations and
accommodations to a broad and inclusive policy. Fair Work recommendations and the recent Liberal party policy stance on flexible work places reflect the desire for unions to renounce their hold on workplace standards to allow individuals’ to negotiate their own arrangements with employers. For teachers, this means negotiating with the school principal and the outcome of this negotiation is dependent upon the values and beliefs the principal has about the needs of the school and students, part-time teaching staff and, the individual teacher.
CHAPTER 2: Expanding the Problem

This chapter provides the specific context of this research. It begins by extrapolating how IPS fits with the tenets of NPM. It then describes the recent characteristics of the Department of Education in Western Australia’s teaching workforce. A discussion of general characteristics of part-time employees and ideal teacher traits provides the basis for the survey questions. It ends with a brief outline the current national Fair Work Act 2009.

Expanding the Problem: IPS as an example of NPM in practice

This section will demonstrate how the IPS initiative in Western Australia is an example of NPM in practice. This will involve aligning the key tenets of NPM identified in Chapter 1 with the IPS structure and examining the rhetoric surrounding the IPS initiative. This will highlight some key areas of interest to consider when examining the results of the Principal Survey in Chapter 4.

As discussed in Chapter 1, three characteristics of NPM include the desire to remove differences between the public and private sector through increasing competition, to reduce the size of bureaucracies by decentralising government services and finally, the change of accountability from the process of providing a service to the outcomes of the service. These characteristics align with the implementation of the IPS initiative.
The introduction of competition has occurred in several ways. An atmosphere of competition between schools was created by making schools “apply for independent status” (CPEb 2013, 6). This has been continued throughout the implementation of the IPS initiative with Education Minister Peter Collier explaining that a development programme exists to help schools “meet selection criteria” (Hills Gazette 2013, 15 Feb). This creates a belief in the community that achieving IPS status is advantageous and schools who meet the ‘selection criteria’ must provide more effective learning environments, when this may not be the case. Gray, Campbell-Evans and Leggett (2013, 85) identified that those schools and principals who achieved IPS status shared an understanding that they were ‘special’, and gained ‘prestige’ and ‘kudos’ as a result. Since the initial launch a “development programme” available for all schools wishing to become independent with the purpose of building in-school capacity (DOEb, 2014) and this may counteract some of the initial competition created.

Competition is also created amongst the teaching workforce. For many years the DOE has required new teachers to work in rural communities. They would be placed into the staff pool and sent to wherever a teacher was needed. After several years, teachers could then apply for a permanent position and work in an area (but not necessarily school) of their choice (Auditor General’s Report WA 2011, 6). This strategy ensured that hard to staff schools in remote and rural areas had qualified teachers. The introduction of IPS allows the principal and school board to hire any teacher they want, not just those that are redeployed, and remove teachers within the framework of relevant legislation. This creates a more competitive environment for teachers who wish to remain in urban schools and schools considered ‘easier’. Zadkovich (2012, para 9) reported that this was already creating problems for teaching staff in remote communities who were being denied transfer into the urban IPS schools. At this time it is unclear if this change in recruitment structure is resulting in more contractual type work arrangements and my survey did not ask about this.
This situation may result in teachers performing their work at a higher standard to ensure their job is available to them each year. It may also cause the opposite, however, and result in unhappy and insecure teachers.

The IPS employment structure also creates competition among teachers as they can apply to IPS in urban schools through direct application rather than the DOE staff pool. They have the ability to choose which schools they would like to work in, and prove that they are the right person for the school in terms of personality, skills or experience (Savage 2014, para 25). There are also reduced opportunities for country staff to move back to the city because principals have staff on fixed term contracts. This may create an issue for country based staff applying for jobs as their location could make attending interviews difficult (Ducey, 2014).

The IPS system reflects NPM through decentralisation. The initiative does this through allowing individual schools greater autonomy “to respond to the unique demands of the local community” (Liberal Party WA 2008, 1). This is to be achieved through the development of school boards, whose elected members take on the responsibility including but not exclusive to, staffing configurations, identifying major direction for the whole school programme, building community partnerships and identifying the needs of the school community (Liberal Party WA 2008, 1; DOE 2014d; Gray et al. 2013, 73). The argument for this is that bureaucrats in the DOE are too removed “from the day-to-day operations of the school” and schools can “individually tailor decisions to best meet the needs of its students and teachers” (Liberal Party WA 2008, 2).

Theoretically this should result in better processes of service delivery through targeted strategies, better outcomes and a greater sense of ownership of the school
by the local community. The CPE (2013b) interviewed a number of principals to investigate how the IPS initiative was received and perceived during the early stages of implementation. It found that “principals report more control and better value for money” (CPE 2013b, 41) through the IPS system and a number of principals reported that the school community was more committed to the future directions of the school, with one principal remarking that teachers were more committed to strategic goals because “there’s now a sense that it’s community things now it’s for our school not a ministry edict” (CPE 2013b, 31).

Gray et al. (2013, 73) identify a key issue associated with decentralisation and IPS, that is “how independent can a school be within the controlled boundaries of a state education system.” It is important to clarify here also that state schools in WA are now also bound by the National Curriculum introduced in 2012 (Buckingham, 2009 in Gray et al. 2013, 73). These constraints placed upon autonomy mean that the energy the school board exerts into meeting local needs and identifying major directions, must be contained within certain boundaries. As a board member, interviewed by Gray et al. (2013, 86), reported “her board is still in the process of working out what the independent in IPS means” supporting an ongoing criticism that devolution through local decision making may be more rhetoric than fact (Eacott 2011, 76).

The final characteristic of NPM is the movement from focussing on the process of service delivery to the product. In the case of the IPS initiative, the DOE and government appear to be concerned about the outcomes of schools rather than how the schools arrived at those outcomes (Gobby 2013, 279). It is believed that a school’s ability to manage their own processes, such as budgets and strategic goals, will enable the school team to use its strengths, avoid “unnecessary accounting procedures” and get better educational results for children (Liberal Party WA 2008, 2).
The Centre for Program Evaluation (2013, 31) found that there were no changes to student achievement and attendance during the first three years of IPS implementation. However, the report expressed the expectation that once the IPS changes are embedded in a school, positive changes should occur (2013, 8), and that this should also occur with principals and teachers having a greater sense of empowerment through the process of being in an IPS (2013, 66).

Student achievement should not be the only indicator of IPS initiative success. Melbourne University (2013, 99) highlights that equity, all school staff outcomes and community outcomes are all significant dimensions to consider when assessing the success of the initiative. Gobby (2013, 282) explains that principals’ access to power and how they use this power, shapes the behaviour of the people in the school. This process is governed by their ideals. Therefore, if principals are governed by ideals of neoliberalism, this shapes the way they interact with staff and what they believe are important outcomes.

Melbourne University (2013, 31) quoted a principal who said “the idea of being able to do what I believe is good” as a benefit of IPS. Whilst principals are knowledgeable about direct needs of the school and students, they may not always be aware of the needs of the wider community and the embedded inequalities that exist and require a different form of management. This is highlighted by Trimmer (2013, 182) where a principal was seriously reprimanded because whilst school attendance improved, the Department perceived issues of racism were occurring. The principal was focussed on one goal, improving attendance, but failed to incorporate racial sensitivities effectively into the process of achieving this, resulting in poor social equity outcomes. The DOE has a significant responsibility in ensuring that principals are aware of broad societal issues and that the processes in place result in outcomes not just linked to student achievements.
According to Gobby (2013, 275), rhetoric in the initial launch of the IPS initiative avoided “the language of choice, markets and efficiency” and instead highlighted the opportunities of “reduced red tape” and ‘greater autonomy”. This supports the claim identified in Chapter 1 made by Fitzgerald and Rainnie (2012, 172) that the language of NPG is present in many new policies in Western Australia. NPG language in this launch document includes “trusting”, “empowering” and “sense of ownership”.

However, when you examine the initial document and subsequent statements from both the DOE and the current Education Minister of WA, there are multiple examples of embedded NPM values. For example, phrases such as “respond quickly to market forces”, “schools should be given the choice”, “local decision-making”, “empowering schools and communities”, and “best outcomes”. The rhetoric of competition surrounding the process of the IPS initiative includes schools being ‘selected’ and ‘chosen’, ‘invited to apply’ while others are not and with comments such as “those schools that are equipped to manage a single line budget should be given the chance to do so” (implying why be held back by those that can’t?).

The language of principals’ responses may provide significant information in this thesis. Trimmer (2013) identifies historical and situational factors that provide a framework for understanding the development of the IPS initiative in Western Australia including the geography of the state, the challenges in meeting the needs of extremely different school populations, and the social mood. These could also help frame the way principals interpret and implement the IPS initiative in their individual schools. These characteristics help to situate the policy in a wider frame of reference than just NPM and support Wise’s (2002, 563) arguments that public reform is affected by various factors. The language principals’ use will provide insight into their awareness of societal issues and the extent of NPM reach into schools.
Part-time teaching in the Department of Education Western Australia

The DOE, similar to other employers, has always been able to implement flexible work arrangements that suit the needs of the organisation. Flexible work schedules allow the DOE to meet teaching schedule requirements necessary for education programmes. Part-time positions arise within schools due to many reasons including; school student numbers, long-service entitlements of staff, phased retirements, and State and Federal Government directives including 2 ½ day kindergarten classes, compulsory pre-primary and Languages Other than English (LOTE) programmes.

Whilst the DOE has significant power in determining the schedules that suit schools, a number of challenges have driven the agency to become a more flexible workplace. The high proportion of women in education, 70% of all teaching staff nationwide (ABS, 2011), makes the DOE an ideal place for the public sector to demonstrate leadership in equity through policies that support the career needs of women, and the ongoing carer demands that many women face in their private lives. The DOE has historically had difficulties in attracting teaching staff to regional and remote schools (Auditor General’s Report WA 2011, 6) and the ability to offer a flexible work schedule is an effective tool for attracting a wider range of potential employees. Alongside these is the challenge of maintaining an adequate teacher supply for the growing student population of Western Australia.

The consequence of this employee structure has resulted in the DOE having substantial policies in place that support teachers who need access to flexible work schedules. These include Part-time Work Guidelines, Leave Management Policy and
the Secondment Policy. These incorporate parental leave, maternity leave, long-service entitlements, and long-term sick leave.

The following two tables demonstrate the gender ratios in the DOE and the realities of the part-time teaching force within the DOE. This data has been made available through Workforce Policy and Coordination at the DOE (2013), and demonstrates the increasing number of teaching staff who are female since the ABS report of 2011.

**Table 1: Total Teaching Workforce 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Headcount</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>4389</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>17059</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>21448</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Part-time Teaching Workforce 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Headcount</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>629</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>6620</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>7249</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Alongside the challenge of part-time staff is the ongoing presence of non-permanent part-time teaching staff. In 2013 the DOE had 2026 part-time teachers on fixed term (temporary) contracts (courtesy Workforce Policy and Coordination, 2013). This is significant because many school programmes hinge on the commitment, teamwork and collaboration of teachers to ensure the programmes are implemented effectively. For example, consider the implementation of a whole school behavioural management programme that is specifically designed to meet the local needs of the school and community. Some or all of the fixed-term/temporary teachers may not be there the following year. These teachers take their knowledge with them and any new teachers will need to be re-trained. This is not cost effective and means that the programme cannot run as effectively as possible in the longer term.

This research does not ask questions of part-time teachers about why they work part-time, how successful part-time schedules are, identifying their key challenges and whether they feel their status hindered their future prospects. It does not provide the opportunity for clarification between the different working agreements and the effects on the attitudes of staff. This would make for a much larger study and considering the significant number of part-time teachers who are women it would be interesting and highly relevant in addressing concerns surrounding equity for women in the workplace, and ongoing concerns that NPM derived policies such as IPS do not support the promotion of gender equity as well as they should.

*Characteristics of part-time employees and characteristics of great teachers*
This section provides an overview of personal and professional characteristics of part-time employees and ideal teachers that were used as the basis for the IPS and Principal Perceptions of Part-time Staff Survey. It will summarise the ideas examined in Chapter 1 about part-time employees and then identifies some ideal teacher characteristics derived from two key texts. These texts include The Nine Habits of Highly Effective Teachers: a practical guide to personal development (Jacqui Turnbull, 2013) and Catching Up: Learning from the best school systems in East Asia (Ben Jensen, 2012). These were chosen as they contain current information and use recent research to support ideas.

Chapter 1 identified generalisations about part-time employees including the vulnerability of part-time staff whereby their schedules are dependent upon their employer. Part-time employees are generally less stressed, take less sick leave and have better work/life balance. Part-time employees experience detrimental effects on maintaining their professional growth if their employer does not see them “attached to the firm” (Hayman and Rasmussen 2013, 55), or if the employee has no clear picture of their future working life (Nelen and de Grip, 2009). Part-time employees are also less integrated into communication structures and more specifically, Brooks and Young (2004, 133) found part-time teachers often contribute above and beyond their requirements.

Turnbull (2013) and Jensen (2012) provide different perspectives on ideal teacher characteristics. Turnbull focusses on how individual teachers can manage their behaviour for better personal and professional outcomes. Jensen takes a systems approach and identifies what the system needs to do to improve student outcomes through changing/improving teaching practice.
Jensen identifies that practice for effective teaching should include ongoing professional development that includes developing pedagogical knowledge (2012, 12), excellent content knowledge (2012, 15), and the essential place collaboration plays in effective learning programmes (2012, 15). Teachers must be able to work as part of a team, be willing to continually add to their knowledge of best teaching practice and have opportunities to reflect on their professional skills. Turnbull supports this claim, highlighting the importance for teachers to develop skills in “reflective practice” (2013, xvi). Turnbull (2013, xvii and xviii) also identifies that teachers must develop strategies that revolve around effective organisation, stress management as stress is a major concern of teachers (Turnbull 2013, xvii; Easthope and Easthope 2007, 12) and effective relationships as a means to creating a successful work environment.

Comparing principals’ values and perceptions regarding key characteristics of effective teachers and part-time staff identify tensions and differences between two workforces. These include asking questions about:

1. The characteristics that are affected by stress levels. For example, manageable stress levels result in calmer, happier and more engaged staff. Are these characteristics desired by principals?
2. Whether principals place importance on the participation of staff in extra-curricular activities?
3. Is communication an on-going issue for part-time staff?
4. Whether principals value team work in their schools and is this affected by communication challenges?
5. What language do principals use to describe the differences with part-time and full-time staff and how does this reflect upon current research and the challenges part-time staff face in IPS schools?
6. Do principals demonstrate awareness of the tensions that exist between equity in the workplace and convenience in school scheduling?

The survey used questions surrounding these tensions to extrapolate the views of principals and the consequences these have on part-time teaching staff.

*Fair Work Australia*

The Fair Work Act 2009 was introduced by the previous Labor government as part of the Fair Work Commission, which is Australia’s Industrial Workplace Tribunal. The Fair Work Act identified that in 1992, part-time employees constituted 24% of the Australian workforce, and by 2012 they constituted 30% of the workforce. It states that all employees with school-aged children, children with disabilities, or have been working for their employer for at least 12 months (including part-time and temporary) have the right to request flexible working hours (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2009a). These requests must be considered seriously and should only be refused on reasonable business grounds.

The Fair Work Act is not compulsory and remains controversial on the national political landscape (Australian Law Reform Commission 2012, 47; Bourke, 2014). It has been targeted by the new Liberal government for reform in 2014 based upon the reforms proposed by the Fair Work review panel report in 2012 (The Australian Liberal Party, 2014). “The Coalition will remove the ability to restrict the use of Labor’s Individual Flexibility Arrangements in enterprise agreements. This will ensure that workers can ask for fair and protected flexible working arrangements if they want” (http://www.liberal.org.au/improving-fair-work-laws).
As previously explained, the ability of NPM based policies, such as the IPS initiative, to incorporate gender equity has raised many questions. This creates tensions between the requirements of the Fair Work Act guidelines and the ability for IPS to provide work environments that support the professional lives of teachers. Principals in IPS have the power to determine the structure of their staff. In individual schools this may seem insignificant, but in 2015 70% of all students in WA will be in IPS schools (DOEe, 2014). It is reasonable to assume that this means about 70% of all teaching staff will be in IPS schools, and subsequently, principals as a collective, will have a significant effect on the working lives of teachers. It is essential therefore, that principals are aware of this and that the government, through the DOE, ensures that principals incorporate Fair Work practices into their staffing decisions to maintain ongoing access to meaningful employment.
CHAPTER 3: Research Strategy and Results

This chapter details the process undertaken in designing the study and constructing the survey. It clarifies the ethics procedures completed and provides an overview of the results of the survey tool: *IPS and Principal Perceptions of Part-time Staff*.

Research Strategy

Design

The research strategy undertaken was a small sample, qualitative case study. It was designed to investigate the way the movement of power from the state to individual principals may affect the employment opportunities of part-time teachers by specifically focusing on principals’ perceptions of part-time teachers’ commitment to their profession. The study is unique and the information garnered will be analysed and referenced against a variety of literature about effective teaching, new public management and equity, and part-time workforces.

The case study involved conducting a survey that sought responses from ten principals of government schools. A survey was chosen as a deliberate and systematic means of collecting information from a sample of people who could reflect the characteristics of a larger population to which the sample belongs (Groves et.al. 2009). The principals did not have to be principals of an IPS however I made sure that at least 2 current IPS principals were part of the respondent pool. These principals were from a range of different schools throughout Western Australia and reflected different perspectives about the IPS initiative.
The survey questions were designed to establish how the principals perceive part-time teaching staff commitment levels at work. This involved asking principals to identify the characteristics that they most desire in their teaching staff. Responses were then compared with the characteristics identified in research surrounding desirable teaching traits, and the traits of part-time teachers and employees as identified in Chapter 2.

The survey questions, for organisational purposes, were divided into subsets. These included background information, ideal teacher characteristics and ideal teacher characteristics with budget being a non-issue. Design of the survey questions required significant care and diligence in order to ensure the survey was robust and ethical. Questions were structured as closed rather than open-ended as often as possible. I strove to ensure that the questions were neutral and non-leading. These decisions were made to reduce the time required to complete the survey and extrapolate ‘gut-reactions’ as responses from the principals. A number of reference sources were used to guide the development of the survey including Gillham (2008), and Rea and Parker (2005).

I decided to conduct the survey as a telephone survey for a number of reasons. I believed it would be a more efficient use of principals’ time. They consistently report on being time poor (Riley, 2013) and this would minimise the disruption to their schedules. Since the principals work in different locations, a telephone survey would ensure that each principal is treated in the same way. The survey was constructed as a script. The survey is attached in Appendix 1.
The research analysis will involve the interpretation of the survey responses and a comparison to relevant literature, statistics, and research articles where possible. The responses will be analysed in terms of patterns and anomalies that emerge in regards to principals’ understandings of part-time teachers; the pressures; strengths and weakness; and how these responses may influence part-time teaching opportunities in light of the IPS initiative. The responses will be compared to the literature already available and provided a new source of information for future research purposes.

Ethics

There was a need for both Murdoch University Human Research Ethics approval and The Department of Education Approval to Work on Educational Sites*.  

* Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Approval Number: 2014/139
*Department of Education Research Approval Number: D14/0431512
Survey Results

A full compilation of principal responses to the first four questions of the survey is available in Appendix 2. The first four questions of the survey provided an opportunity for unbiased responses from principals. These responses reveal a number of shared beliefs that unify the principals in their understandings of their staff. Beliefs about full-time teachers were significantly more consistent than beliefs about part-time teachers. These beliefs include:

1. Full-time teachers are often dedicated to their profession and school. Eight principals expressed this through adjectives including committed, reliable, passion, enthusiastic and loyal.

2. Full-time teachers are often overwhelmed with their workloads. Seven principals expressed this through adjectives including exhausted, overwhelmed, time-poor, disenchanted, tired, overloaded.

3. Full-time teachers are often unhappy with their workload. Eight principals expressed this through adjectives including discontented, cynical, unhappy, disenchanted and stressed.

4. Part-time teachers have less strengths identified in common by principals. Five principals recognised their commitment to teaching with one highlighting that their commitment was dependent on whether they chose to be part-time.

5. Four principals noted the ability for part-time teachers to add flexibility to their schedule.
6. Six principals noted their commitment to their profession and part-time teachers were noted as being “happier”, “sensible” and “enthusiastic”.

7. Part-time staff are not viewed as dedicated to their profession. Five principals expressed this through adjectives including distracted, uncommitted, impartial, and unprofessional and disjointed.

8. Part-time staff are viewed by most principals as out of date, and out of touch with school and the teaching profession. Nine principals expressed this through phrases including; poor pedagogical knowledge; inadequate; lack of corporate knowledge; out-of-date; poor connection; alienated; poor communication and weak relationships.

Appendix 3 contains the responses to the remaining survey questions. When principals were asked about teacher commitment, they demonstrated awareness of the complexity of the issue. Over half of the principals highlighted that commitment of staff depends on various factors not just if teachers are older or younger, full-time or part-time.
Graph 1 demonstrates the importance principals placed on characteristics research shows are more common in part-time staff. One principal made the observation that the “staff who work four days (a week) seem better teachers for working one day less”.

Graph 1: Principal responses to positive physical and emotional characteristics of part-time staff.
Graph 2 demonstrates the importance principals’ place on the quality of teamwork. Teamwork requires effective communication and time to participate in team projects which may be difficult for part-time staff to achieve. One principal observed, on selecting team played over content knowledge that “you can work on a teacher’s content knowledge through team planning and mentoring”.

The majority of principals liked being a principal or wanted to be principals of IPS. Three principals expressed that they “Loved it”. Only two principals expressed ambivalence. This is significant as only 5 of the schools were IPS at the time of this research, and one was going to operate as an IPS in 2015. One principal stated that “IPS was inevitable regardless”, that it didn’t matter whether the community/schools agreed with the initiative or not, it would happen anyway. Another principal hoped that budget would not always “be the driver at all times” whilst another felt the “Devolution (through IPS) is simply passing the buck”.

Claire Money #31222409
CHAPTER 4: Discussion

The survey results identified several patterns, themes and relationships pertinent to questions of this thesis and worthy of analysis. The patterns in the principals’ responses provide insights into challenges part-time staff may face in light of the IPS initiative. Scrutiny of the values principals express in the survey provides a snapshot of several tensions surrounding NPM and other “drivers of policy change” identified by Wise (2002, 555). Language in the survey responses reflect differences in the way the IPS initiative is being embraced by principals. Finally, the process of completing this thesis suggested rhetoric surrounding the terminology of IPS may perpetuate false impressions of public schools in WA.

Two key patterns emerged from the survey in regards to principals’ perceptions of part-time teachers. Firstly, nine principals expressed concern about part-time teachers being out of date and out of touch, with the teaching profession and the school community. This manifested itself in concerns expressed by one principal that it was more challenging to manage part-time staff and that “full-time staff were easier from a management perspective”. Secondly, all principals expressed that being an effective team player was an essential characteristic for teachers. Both these patterns revolve around the availability to participate in effective communication.

Part-time staffs’ availability is restricted and is a problem that needs to be managed. It may create a sense of disconnect and disjointedness between the whole school and the part-time teachers as it limits opportunities available to build relationships, to be part of the collaboration and decision-making processes, remain up to date with the direction of programmes, and participate fully in professional
development opportunities. Evidence shows that “active professional collaboration is essential for effective learning and teaching” (Jensen 2012, 15). Principals reflected their understanding of this factor in their responses and part-time teachers must work towards counteracting their physical absence.

Part-time staffs’ absence doesn’t mean that they cannot be effective team players, nor that full-time staff are always effective team players. Part-time staff use different techniques to maintain their presence in schools. Some are happy “going along” with decisions even if they don’t agree (Young and Brooks 2004, 138) which makes them a non-threatening team member, whilst others use visibility as a strategy for career development (Young and Brooks 2004, 142) through running extracurricular programmes, subject specialisations and ensuring colleagues know that they are part of the team. (Young and Brooks 2004, 143). This is already challenging and with the introduction of the IPS initiative part-time staff must manage this with the added complexity of dealing with competition.

As highlighted in Chapter 2, IPS creates a greater degree of competition as more full-time staff seek opportunities to raise their profile to ensure employment opportunities. IPS principals have the opportunity to employ full-time staff from range of sources, not just the DOE pool (Gobby 2013, 280). This creates a serious issue for part-time staff, especially in schools where the principal consciously or unconsciously favour full-time staff. Women make up 91% of part-time teachers in public schools in WA (DOE, 2013). Women are less likely to opt into competitive work environments and more likely to opt out of competitive work environments (Hogarth et al. 2012, 137). Consequently, part-time staff may find themselves further isolated in IPS schools, and it may become more challenging for IPS schools and principals to engage the strengths of part-time teachers. This demonstrates how IPS may create
NPM-induced gender inequity and further isolate women from remaining in meaningful work.

Increasing the number of teachers opting out of the profession will add to an ongoing issue of teacher supply. Attrition rates in Australia during the first three years of teaching are estimated at 30%, although this does not include the number of temporary and relief teachers who leave the profession (Adoniou 2013, para2). The cost of educating teachers is between one and three years annual teaching salary. The Department and the State pay a high price when teachers leave the profession. Schools also pay a high price when teachers leave. Schools lose investment in formal and informal professional development, and any ongoing curriculum and community relationships suffer as a result. Many part-time staff have survived the beginning years of teaching, have strong work experiences and strategies in place to cope with the challenges of teaching. It should be of a concern to the IPS decision-makers that there is a heightened risk of losing these experienced staff members, who may yet move back into full-time work, as well as newly graduated teachers.

Competition may also create issues of whole staff management for principals. As identified in Chapter 1, competition is a core tenet of NPM and is believed to increase efficiencies and programme effectiveness. Chapter 2 examined the possible consequences of competition between individual teachers vying for appointments in schools. This competition, whilst encouraging personal development in many teachers, may impede the development of successful team work and collaboration that is essential for developing effective schools. The added competition creates tension between the IPS initiative and principal values in interfering with teamwork and the overall effectiveness of the learning environment. If the effectiveness of the learning environment is worse because of competition, then outcomes (student
learning) may be worse as well. Hence, creating a further tension between the IPS initiative and principals.

One principal in the survey commented that “staff who work four days (a week) are better teachers for working one day less”. This principal was supportive of staff who wished to work a four day schedule. Other principals noted that part-time staff were “sensible”, and “busy”, whilst others shared that “IPS was inevitable regardless”, “money should not be the driver at all times”, “Devolution (through IPS) is simply passing the buck”. This language all reflects principals’ awareness of other factors that affect the management of schools and their support for different ways of constructing school management. So whilst principals generally embraced the IPS initiative, there is evidence that other factors, as outlined in Wise (2002, 556), would be incorporated into their decision making. For example, the value principals’ place on teamwork would enable a part-time teacher who was an effective team member to feel less vulnerable in their job, and increased knowledge about the stress levels of teachers would help principals support teacher decisions to move to a part-time schedule regardless of possible minor economic efficiencies.

Nonetheless, there is a risk here. A principal in the Melbourne University research (2013, 31) was quoted saying that he loved ‘the idea of being able to do what I believe is good’ as an IPS principal. IPS promotes autonomy since “in meeting their key performance indicators principals are empowered to be autonomous choosers in response to local needs” (Gobby 2013, 279). These decisions are dependent upon the individual principal’s values and as this small survey shows, all principals have different values. Alongside this is the fact that schools are small micro political spaces that reproduce “existing power relations” (Eacott 2013, 80). Part-time teachers in IPS are therefore more vulnerable to the whims of the principal rather than supported
by the DOE policy frameworks, Federal policies on equal opportunity and the Fair Work Act 2009.

The phrase non-IPS was used in the survey as a term of convenience rather than ‘not an IPS school’. No thought had been given to the connotations implied by prefix ‘non-’. However, as the research and thesis progressed it became apparent that this usage transferred negative meanings onto regular schools who were just not IPS. Non- by definition means ‘negation; refusal; exclusion from a specified class; or to indicate lack or absence (Collins Dictionary 1995, 2006). In relation to public schools ‘non-’ implies that regular schools are not as special, capable or unique, and that IPS schools are better. This is particularly reinforced with the rhetoric currently found in DOE and government statements about IPS schools such as ‘autonomous’, ‘innovation’ and ‘local needs’. It was noted during interviews that not one principal said anything along the lines of ‘don’t you mean just a normal/regular school?’ I was sure I had not made up the term, and that I had read or heard the phrase before. As a consequence I discovered that the DOE does not use the term non-IPS in any of its documents about public schools or the IPS initiative. However, it has crept into newspaper articles and the current State Education Minister began using ‘non-IPS’ in 2013 (Australian Broadcasting Commission, 2013b).

This observation is along the lines of the US experience where there are Charter and traditional schools. The label ‘traditional’ can imply old fashioned, and out of date. Klaf (2014, 297) explains that labels are convenient, but that labels such as ‘good schools’ or ‘bad schools’ define and classify a school, and reinforce a dominant ideology. In regards to IPS and non-IPS, it reinforces the concepts of IPS being a better type of school for their ability to support autonomy, independence and innovation, with no evidence that this is true.
CONCLUSION

There are a number of policy implications that emerge from this research in relation to part-time teachers and access to social equity. First of all, there is a need to ensure that principals and school boards are well informed of their legal requirements to uphold equal opportunities in their schools. Gray et al. (2013, 86) argue that the DOE must “develop a vision of governance” to ensure effective independence occurs and that at this time whilst a vision has been expressed there is no policy that identifies the “specific boundaries of independence”.

The DOE must also ensure IPS policies continue to support equal access to employment in an increasingly competitive teaching workplace. Gobby (2013, 280) identified that whilst the DOE did not outwardly support a principal sourcing staff from outside WA and the teacher pool, as this is considered too politically risky, they didn’t stop this action either. None of the principals in this research mentioned this method of employment, however, it is a concern that this may become a more common staffing strategy and result in greater inequities. Clear policy guidelines regarding the sourcing of staff will at least inform teachers of the type of work environment they are in.

Part-time teaching staff are a diverse group with diverse needs. They are subject to multiple pressures, and some require ongoing, long-term support to remain in meaningful workplaces. There are still many unanswered questions about part-time teachers including; how long do they stay part-time?; Why are they part-time?; What would help the transition from part-time to full-time work?; and What challenges do they face in the workplace and what strategies do they engage to manage these?
The State and Federal governments recognise the importance of flexible work options in maintaining women’s access to lifelong, meaningful employment. However, the devolution of schools adds to the challenges of maintaining equitable workplaces. If there are not clear policy guidelines and specific boundaries regarding equal opportunities and flexible work schedules, the success of the DOE policies of the past will remain in the past.

The OECD in 2004 (in Dunleavy et. al. 2006, p.472) stated that “The proliferation of more or less autonomous arm’s length public bodies makes collective action difficult”. The IPS initiative is promoted as a tool for empowering local communities to meet the needs of its young people. WA is a geographically large state with many small rural and remote schools. The challenges of maintaining an effective and equitable education system through the IPS initiative are multiple, as is the need to maintain equitable workplaces. Effective governance and clear policies are essential for IPS to succeed.

The IPS initiative has been received positively by the principals in this research. This concurs with the findings by Melbourne University (2013) and Gobby (2013). Support also comes from both sides of the political fence, and since I began this research, the DOE announced that in 2015, 70% of students in Western Australia will be attending IPS. It is therefore reasonable to assume that IPS is not going away. The policy challenge is therefore to identify, ameliorate, and avert any inequities created by the IPS initiative.

The purpose of this thesis was to identify and analyse any tensions that existed between the perceptions of principals’ regarding part-time teaching staff, the IPS initiative and policies that support social equity in the workplace. It developed this
analysis over four chapters; Chapter One examined key concepts that exert pressure upon the education system in Western Australia; Chapter Two placed the IPS initiative in the specific Australian and Western Australian context and demonstrated the relationship between IPS and NPM; Chapter Three detailed the research strategy and identified the findings of the survey tool *IPS and Principal Perceptions of Part-time Staff*; Chapter Four analysed these findings in relation to the workplace characteristics that IPS creates.

The thesis succeeded in identifying several areas of tensions that exist between the part-time teaching workforce, principal perceptions and the IPS initiative. It also identified the way language is used to reinforce the agenda of IPS supporters through labelling conventional public schools as ‘non-IPS’. This thesis has highlighted workplace equity challenges that may be exacerbated by the IPS initiative, and has raised questions about current understandings of the nature of the part-time workforce in Western Australia. It is hoped that this thesis adds to the knowledge of IPS, and provides impetus for future research to maintain and develop workplace equity amongst the teaching workforce. This will help make the IPS initiative the success that many in the community want it to be.
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Appendix 1: Principal Survey Script
Thank you for agreeing to complete my survey.

I will read out each question to you.

You are not obliged to answer all the questions so please only answer the questions you feel comfortable answering.

Please ask if you need me to repeat a question.

Your responses will assist me in my analysis of the employment opportunities for teachers in Independent Public Schools and I truly appreciate your participation.

**INITIAL QUESTIONS**

1. What are the first three words you think of to describe the strengths of full-time teaching staff?

2. What are the first three words you think of to describe the strengths of part-time teaching staff?

3. What are the first three words you think of to describe the weaknesses of full-time teaching staff?

4. What are the first three words you think of to describe the weaknesses of part-time teaching staff?
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. How long have you been a principal?

☐ 0-5 years  ☐ 5-10 years  ☐ 10 years+

2. What type of school do you manage?

☐ IPS  ☐ non-IPS
☐ Primary  ☐ High  ☐ District  ☐ Ed Support
☐ Metro  ☐ Regional  ☐ Remote

3. Would you like to be/do you like being a principal of an IPS?

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ not bothered

4. As an IPS principal where would you source teaching staff?

☐ Employment Agency  ☐ DOE  ☐ Sourcing via internet, networks

5. In your experience, are part-time teachers more or less committed than full-time teachers?

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ other (unsure, the same, have not noticed)

6. In your experience, are older teachers more committed to teaching than younger teachers?

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ other (unsure, the same, have not noticed)

7. In your experience, does permanency affect teacher commitment?

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ other (unsure, the same, have not noticed)
TEACHER QUALITIES

I will read out pairs of words.

Can you tell me which is more important when considering teacher appointments?

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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Corporate knowledge or</td>
<td>budget</td>
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<td>2. Team player or</td>
<td>organised</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Positive staff or</td>
<td>organised</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. High content knowledge or</td>
<td>Team player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Experience level or</td>
<td>Cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. High pedagogical knowledge or</td>
<td>Team Player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Full-time or</td>
<td>Team player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Calm staff member or</td>
<td>Budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Full-time or</td>
<td>positive</td>
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STAFF QUALITY QUESTIONS

Which is most important teacher quality if money was a non-issue and you were determining who best to employ;

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<tr>
<td>1. Full-time or</td>
<td>years of experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Organised or</td>
<td>always available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Participates in extra-curricular programmes or</td>
<td>full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Limited sick days or</td>
<td>full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. First to arrive last to leave or</td>
<td>organised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Commitment to career or</td>
<td>full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Part-time or</td>
<td>a teacher with job security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Corporate knowledge or</td>
<td>youthful vigour</td>
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</table>
Is there anything else you wish to add or share?

Thankyou very much for participating in my survey.
Appendix 2: Responses to Questions 1 to 4 and Principals’ final comments
Responses to Questions 1 to 4 and Principals’ Final Comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal 1</th>
<th>Principal 2</th>
<th>Principal 3</th>
<th>Principal 4</th>
<th>Principal 5</th>
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<th>Principal 8</th>
<th>Principal 9</th>
<th>Principal 10</th>
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<td><strong>Question 1</strong></td>
<td>3 strengths of full-time teachers</td>
<td>Pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Resilient</td>
<td>Hard-working</td>
<td>Loyal</td>
<td>Experience</td>
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<td>Pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Resilient</td>
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<td>Loyal</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
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<td><strong>Question 2</strong></td>
<td>3 strengths of part-time teachers</td>
<td>Pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Added-value</td>
<td>Caring</td>
<td>Busy</td>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
<td>Caring</td>
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p/t = Part-time teaching staff
f/t = Full-time teaching staff
Responses to Questions 1 to 4 and Principals’ Final Comments

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<th>Question 3 3 weaknesses of full-time teachers</th>
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<th>Principal 6</th>
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<th>Principal 8</th>
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<td>Discontented Lack of commitment Limited knowledge</td>
<td>Overwhelmed Pressure Change</td>
<td>Cynical Know-alls Historically burdened</td>
<td>Poor time management Repetitiveness Lack of curiosity</td>
<td>Time poor Exhausted Unhappy</td>
<td>Time poor Lack of broad curriculum knowledge Underpaid</td>
<td>Unchanging Inflexible Complacent</td>
<td>Disenchanted Tiredness selfishness</td>
<td>Workload Tired Overwhelmed</td>
<td>Overloaded Stressed Stretched</td>
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<th>Principal 7</th>
<th>Principal 8</th>
<th>Principal 9</th>
<th>Principal 10</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncommitted Complacency Poor pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Low commitment Unprofessional Inadequate</td>
<td>Distracted Incomplete work Impartial</td>
<td>Communication Out-of-date Lack of corporate knowledge</td>
<td>Time poor Exhausted Unhappy</td>
<td>Time poor Poor connection to whole school programmes and parents</td>
<td>Accessibility, communication Staff development</td>
<td>Angst Alienated Unconfident outside of their area of knowledge</td>
<td>Communication Out of touch Inflexible with scheduling</td>
<td>Relationship building Communication Disjointed</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>Final Comments</th>
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<th>Principal 2</th>
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<th>Principal 7</th>
<th>Principal 8</th>
<th>Principal 9</th>
<th>Principal 10</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff who work four days seem better teachers for working one day less</td>
<td>How big the school is affects staffing issues and number of p/t staff to manage</td>
<td>Part-time teachers scheduling can cause considerable strain for them</td>
<td>When balancing money and staffing – money shouldn’t be the driver at all times</td>
<td>You can be a good teacher p/t or f/t teacher, but f/t is easier from a management perspective. IPS is inevitable regardless.</td>
<td>Often p/t teachers work harder to keep up with the work</td>
<td>No Comment</td>
<td>Commitment of p/t staff depends whether staff chose to be p/t. There are generational differences between staff work ethic and expectations.</td>
<td>The DOE is impersonal and doesn’t consider how rules affect people. Devolution to schools is simply passing the buck</td>
<td>It was difficult to decide between the characteristics.</td>
<td></td>
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p/t = Part-time teaching staff
f/t = Full-time teaching staff
Appendix 3: Raw Data Responses to Questions 5 to 13
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

**Question 5: How long have you been a principal?**

- 0-5 years: 4
- 5-10 years: 2
- 10+ years: 3

**Question 5: What type of school are you principal of?**

- IPS: 8
- Primary: 7
- High: 6
- Rural: 5
- Remote: 4
- Metro: 3
- ED Support: 2
- District: 1
- Non-IPS: 0
Question 7: Would you like to be/do you like being a principal of an IPS school?

- Yes: 8
- No: 0
- Not bothered: 1

Question 8: As an IPS principal where would your source your staff?

- Employment Agency: 0
- DOE: 2
- Via internet or networks: 6

Question 9: In your experience are part-time teachers more or less committed than full-time teachers?

- Yes: 1
- No: 2
- Other: 5
Question 10: In your experience are older or younger teachers more or less committed than full-time teachers?

Yes
No
other

Question 11: In your experience does permanency affect teacher commitment?

Yes
No
other
Question 12: What qualities are most important when considering teacher appointments?

- Corporate knowledge: 9
- Team player: 9
- Positive: 9
- High content knowledge: 8
- Experience level: 8
- High pedagogical knowledge: 8
- Full-time: 8
- Calm: 8
- Budget: 8
- Organised: 8

Question 13: What qualities are most important when if money/budget is a non-issue and you are determining who best to employ?

- Full-time experience: 9
- Years of experience: 9
- Always available: 9
- Organised: 9
- Participates in extra-curricula: 9
- Limited sick days: 9
- Full-time: 9
- First to arrive, last to leave: 9
- Organised: 9
- Commitment to career: 9
- Full-time: 9
- Part-time: 9
- Job security: 9
- Corporate knowledge: 9
- Youthful vigour: 9