IT'S ABOUT TIME!!

A Report on the Impact of Workload on Teachers and Students



Dr. David Dibbon Faculty of Education Memorial University of Newfoundland 2004

Additional copies of this document as well as other related documents are available on the following website – www.nlta.nl.ca

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Lloyd, a former high school teacher and distance educator is an educational consultant and holds a Masters Degree in Education from Memorial University. He has worked on numerous research projects over the past couple of years and was instrumental in analyzing the qualitative data.

Katina is a doctoral student in the Theory and Policy Studies Department at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/University of Toronto. Katina is an experienced researcher and was responsible for reviewing much of the literature on teacher workload.

David C. Dibbon, Ph.D. Principal Researcher

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Teaching is a wonderful, fascinating profession and it is never, never, dull; it is one of those professions in which you can really say "I change lives". However, as much as I love my job I could leave it tomorrow. The personal price that I have to pay to work as a teacher is very high. I have to work far more than 35 hours per week because, like other teachers, almost all of my official time is committed to the classroom instruction of students.

(a young, urban)

elementary teacher)

It's About Time!

Chapter 1

The Context for a Teacher Workload Study

An Era of Educational Reform and Restructuring

The educational community in Newfoundland and Labrador has been facing somewhat turbulent and uncertain environments for the past decade or so. Since the release of *Our Children Our Future: The Royal Commission on Education* (1992), our K-12 education system has been working to reinvent itself. After almost a decade of turbulence, *Supporting Learning: A Report of the Ministerial Panel on the Delivery of Education in the Classroom* was released in 2000, and that had the effect of accelerating change into the new millennium.

Recommendations out of Our Children Our Future called for far-reaching reform to the K-12 education system. Pivotal to the success of this reform initiative was the elimination of the denominational education system; this was achieved in a province-wide referendum in 1996. For two to three years following that decision teachers and administrators alike were caught up in a restructuring movement that saw massive district and school consolidation as well as numerous school closings. In the final analysis, 27 school boards were consolidated to form 11¹; the number of schools was reduced from 472 in the 1995-96 school year to 326 in 2002-03. There were other changes as a result of the restructuring, but one in particular, the reduction in the number of district level administrators from 193.5 in 1996 down to 90 in 2003, is believed by many to have had a negative impact on the implementation of new programs, and consequently teacher workload, as a significant amount of administrative work was downloaded to the school and the classroom. This happened at a time when there was a large decline in the teaching force as the number of teachers dropped by approximately 1,200. This decline was primarily

due to declining student enrollments and layoffs caused by the elimination of the 2% savings clause² in 1994.

In 1999, the Premier and the Minister of Education announced the formation of a Ministerial Panel on Educational Delivery in the Classroom. In March of 2000, the authors released their final report. Supporting Learning: A Report of the Ministerial Panel on the Delivery of Education in the Classroom came complete with 86 recommendations aimed at improving the delivery of education in the province's schools. As innovative and well intentioned as these recommendations were, many, especially those concerned with curriculum implementation, had implications for teachers and their workload. This is not to suggest that these recommendations should be stalled or altered, or that we should stop being innovative. However, the full impact of the implementation of new programs and policies on teacher workload must be recognized and proper supports must be put in place. In their Annual Report (2001-02), the Department of Education claims to have "moved aggressively on all of the recommendations which speak to the Department of Education" and "increased the pace of new curricula implementation, particularly curricula developed with our partners in other Atlantic Provinces" (p. 18). This aggressiveness has had an impact on teacher workload. Readers wishing more details on the implementation of recommendations of the Ministerial Panel Report should refer to Appendix 2 in the 2001-02 Annual Report issued by the Department of Education. Readers might also note that while the NLTA (Newfoundland and Labrador Teachers' Association) agreed in principle with many of these recommendations, their concerns were outlined and presented to the Ministerial Panel in their own publication, Response to Supporting *Learning* (2000).

¹ In March of 2004, as this document was in the final stages of preparation, a new Progressive Conservative government passed legislation that would see the number of school boards reduced from 11 to 5, effective September 2004.

² The two percent savings clause was designed to counteract the effects of declining student enrollments. Under the clause, no school district could lose more than 2% of their teacher allocation no matter how large the decline in student enrollment.

There are other issues besides local educational matters that impact on teacher workload. A change in the expectations that society has for educators, an increase in the level of complexity associated with teaching, challenges in the areas of teacher recruitment and retention, and workload trends in other jurisdictions all have an impact on what teachers do inside and outside of the classroom. A brief overview of these factors and trends is presented in this section of the report.

Changing Societal Expectations

The interface between the school and the community has been evolving since the province joined confederation in 1949. At that time and throughout most of the 1950's the family was the major socializing force in the lives of its members and a wide variety of functions were provided for primarily by the family. For example, in many outport communities much of the work was home based and children received job training from their parents, families assumed responsibilities for disciplining family members, parents supported the work and judgment of teachers, and care was provided for all, young and old. As our society became more and more industrialized and somewhat more diverse, governments gradually began to view education as a way to meet various social agendas (e.g., reduction in unemployment and dependence on social services). As a result of this belief, children were encouraged to stay in school longer. Many of the students who remained, instead of leaving school early, experienced some academic and social problems and these presented challenges for teachers who were not used to dealing with these types of issues. For many teachers, this was the beginning of an era where they would have to spend more time dealing with social problems and learning to manage them within a classroom setting - even if it was at the expense of other students' academic achievement and a decline in the quality of their own worklife.

The school/community interface continues to change and most would acknowledge that we are living in the midst of an age of tremendous social turbulence which has resulted in a depletion of the social capital (Colman, 1987) that communities have available to assist with the cognitive, social and emotional development of children. Changing economic conditions, population shifts, changing family structure and the weakening of the traditional community structure are all having an impact on the province's schools and on the work of teachers. For example, the high level of out-migration from many rural communities has resulted in smaller schools in some communities, fewer teachers and more multi-level teaching. Multi-level teaching has resulted in teachers needing new skills, necessitating familiarity with

many different curricula, methodologies and theories of learning, requiring much planning. Also, teachers in rural and urban areas speak of the changing structure of the family unit and how they spend more time on guidance and social counseling, helping students deal with such issues as: being a single parent; living with a single parent; poverty as a result of no working parents; and parents migrating back and forth between Newfoundland and Labrador and another province or country in order to get work.

Many teachers argue that this increase in social responsibility has escalated over the past decade and that the added responsibility, unaccompanied by the necessary resources to deal adequately with the issues has resulted in teachers feeling that their core competency - teaching children the academic, teamwork and personal management skills they need to succeed (Conference Board of Canada, 2001) has been undermined. For many teachers, successful teaching is a function of being able to help their students achieve to the best of their ability – that is after all, why most teachers entered the profession in the first place (Lorti, 1975 & Johnson, 1990). However, the demands of teaching have changed so much in recent years, the pace of change has been so fast, and with so few supports that many teachers are concerned about the capacity of the school system to meet the needs of today's students.

Increase in the Complexity of Teaching

These social changes are occurring at the same time as teaching itself is becoming more and more complex. Creating student-centered classrooms that enable multiple sensory stimulation in a collaborative work environment where students focus on inquiry-based and authentic real world experiences, demands much more than a teachercentered classroom where the teacher simply transmits information to students. Also, today's classrooms are diverse and demanding. Never before has there been so much potential for excellence and at the same time so many challenges for learning. Some students can read when they come to school, while others cannot read when they enter high school. Children are characterized by different learning styles and bring with them numerous attitudes about school and learning. Furthermore, after years of research, the technology of teaching is still not well defined or clearly accepted. Researchers are only just beginning to understand the human brain and how students learn, and as a result, how they should be taught. Critics of educators often say teaching is not rocket science and they are correct – good teaching is much more complex!

³ Colman defines social capital as "the raising of children in the norms, the social networks, and the relationships between adults and children that are of value for the child's growing up", and he argues that "the social capital in family and community has declined precipitously." (p.36-37)

It is beyond the scope of this paper to define what good teaching is, but we do know that it is more than the efficient administration of a curriculum, program or educational system. Teaching and learning are profoundly emotional activities (Fried, 1995; Hargreaves & Evans, 1997) involving what Hochschild (1993) refers to as "emotional labor". Hargreaves & Evans (1997) use Hochschild's work and claim that:

This emotional labor requires a kind of acting: not just acting out feelings superficially, but also consciously working oneself into experiencing the necessary feelings required to perform one's job well... In many respects this emotional labor is a positive aspect of teaching. Classrooms would be (and sometimes are) barren and boring places without it. But emotional labor also exposes teachers, making them vulnerable when the conditions of the demands on their work make it hard for them to do their emotional work properly. (p.109) [Emphasis added by author]

When teachers are overwhelmed by the demands of change such as new curriculum, those who invest themselves emotionally are likely to become racked by guilt, feeling they are victimizing those for whom they care (Hargreaves 1994). In coping with KinderStart and other new programs, many of the Kindergarten teachers in this study provide an excellent example of how teachers are becoming crippled by their own conscientiousness (Campbell & Neil, 1994), by their determination to make the best of unreasonably imposed demands for the sake of the students they teach. The costs of such intense emotional labor when teachers over-extend themselves are quite high, as we will see.

Teacher Recruitment and Retention

The past decade has been a difficult one for teachers and on almost any measure one would care to take, teachers have experienced a sense of professional loss in relation to the terms and conditions of their work. The conditions under which teachers are expected to work have a direct impact on their capacity to perform their job functions, and dysfunctional working conditions are known to reduce both high levels of capacity and high levels of motivation – to the point where some teachers burn out and others just leave the profession. This study was also motivated by concern over the recruitment and retention of teachers within the province.

It has been well documented that many of the school districts in the province are experiencing difficulty attracting and retaining qualified teachers (Dibbon and Sheppard, 2001). In this report the authors note that the attrition rate in the province for new teachers (those with

less than five years experience) is 33% (p. 122) and that almost 50% of new teachers are giving consideration to leaving their current position because of reasons related to heavy workload, a stressful teaching environment and a lack of opportunities for advancement and pay increases (p. 125). The report also highlights that senior teachers (those within a year of retirement) feel that society has unrealistic expectations for teachers and that teaching is a socially undervalued profession that is open to much more public criticism now than it was earlier in their career. These, along with other concerns that focus on the quality of a teacher's worklife, led 50% of these teachers to indicate that they would not recommend teaching as a viable career option for young people today. This is consistent with the results of other studies conducted in other jurisdictions (e.g., Evans, 1996; Canadian Teachers' Federation, 2001; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 2003).

Of course the recruitment and retention of teachers is not only a local problem – in other parts of Canada and in most areas of the developed world there is well documented evidence of teacher shortages. These shortages often lead recruiters from other jurisdictions to try and recruit teachers away from this province to accept employment in another province or country and this trend has raised concern that the province may not be able to meet its future demand for teachers. To counter this trend it is important that teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador have access to a compensation package that has a balance between economic and workload related issues. Failure to address the issues associated with a high workload will likely result in lower levels of teacher satisfaction and higher levels of attrition - two conditions that would have a negative impact on the provincial school system.

Trends in Other Jurisdictions

Much of the available research on teacher workload and stress states that teacher workloads are excessive and intensive, and the negative effects associated with an unrealistic workload are having a considerable impact on teachers and the quality of their worklife as well as on students and their academic experience. In their analysis of workload issues the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF) claim that the effects include declining levels of job satisfaction, reduced capacity to meet students needs, increased absences from work and high levels of attrition amongst younger teachers. These effects, they note, are evident in virtually all regions of the country where studies have been conducted and are consistent with the findings of many studies conducted in other countries (Naylor & Schafer, 2003, p. iv). My own analysis of other Canadian studies and an analysis conducted by the Canadian Teachers' Federation (2003) confirm these findings.

In Prince Edward Island, a study by Belliveau, Liu & Murphy (2001) used a time diary, a survey questionnaire and focus groups to assess the teacher workload situation in that province. Their survey of approximately one-third of the teaching population indicated that PEI teachers typically work between 48 and 52 hours per week. Recurring themes mentioned by teachers were the intensification of teaching and the multifaceted role of teachers. Compared to five years earlier, full-time teachers perceived that they spent significantly more time on school related activities (especially student discipline, administrative tasks, resource development, technology, attending meetings, modifying curriculum and meeting with parents). Teachers also noted that unfavorable class size and composition were having a negative impact on their capacity to do their job, and job satisfaction scores were significantly higher for teachers with classes between 16 and 30 as opposed to those who teach classes with more than 30 students. They also found that compared with teachers in the last 10 years of their career, younger and less experienced teachers are experiencing the effects of work intensification more, and are more likely to feel stressed about their work.

The Nova Scotia Teachers Union commissioned two researchers from St. Mary's University's Time Research Program (Harvey & Spinney, 2000) to undertake a study of teacher workload and working conditions. These researchers collected data using a 24 hour time diary that was completed by 45.7% of the 1,800 teachers in the random sample of teachers. Supplementary questionnaires were also administered (1) to assess teachers' perceptions of the changes in time required to complete certain teaching related functions, and (2) to determine a teacher's degree of involvement with Individual Program Plans (IPP's) for special needs students; the amount of preparation time assigned to teachers within the instructional day and; a teacher's perception of how often he/she felt pressed for time.

Findings based on the time use diaries indicate that full-time teachers in Nova Scotia spent an average of 52.5 hours per week on school related activities. Also, as a result of the combination of an intensification of teaching, insufficient preparation time within the instructional day (average of 179.9 minutes per 5-7 day cycle) and teachers' feelings that their work is not fully appreciated, stress levels are high among teachers. The authors also concluded that teachers do not have enough time for planning, reflection and collaboration with their peers.

In New Brunswick, the New Brunswick Teachers' Federation (NBTF) commissioned a study of teacher workload and working conditions by Leblanc (2000) which indicated that New Brunswick teachers work an equivalent of 51 hours

per week on school related work. LeBlanc's survey of 436 teachers, which comprises 5.5% of the NBTF's membership, also indicated that teachers perceive an increase in time spent on school related paperwork, student discipline, communicating with parents, marking/grading, helping students with personal matters, collaborating with other teachers and preparing report cards.

LeBlanc also concluded that the size and composition of teachers' classes present serious workload issues for some teachers, that teachers have inadequate preparation time within the school day (average of 174.8 minutes per week) to do their preparation work, and that assigned supervision (average of 94.2 minutes per week) constitute a substantial demand on a teacher's time.

Teachers in Ontario were also surveyed on their perceptions of whether certain aspects of workload and worklife had changed over the past two years (Environics Research Group, 1996). A representative sample of 1,002 members of the Ontario English Catholic Teachers' Association (OECTA) indicated that teachers devote large amounts of time outside the instructional school day to various professional activities. The findings indicated that just over 80% of teachers reported a larger overall workload compared with two years earlier. This is partially attributable to other findings that class size increased slightly or substantially for almost 70% of respondents, while the number of integrated, exceptional students per class increased slightly or substantially for 60% of respondents, and more than 70% indicated spending more time on students' non academic problems. Class size, student discipline and inability to complete tasks were sited as the three most stressful aspects of teaching and 80% of teachers considered their work more stressful than two years earlier.

In Saskatchewan, the Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation (STF) (1995), conducted a time use diary study with 160 full-time teachers to provide data on teachers' hours of work, the major activity categories on which time is spent and how their work time is organized. The results indicate Saskatchewan teachers spent an average of 47 hours per week on professional related activities. Of that time, teachers spent an average of 10.9 hours per week on preparation activities, yet primary and elementary teachers had only approximately one hour of assigned preparation time per week compared with about two hours for secondary teachers. Average assigned preparation time of 2 to 2.6 hours per week for teachers in major cities compared with just 0.8 hours for teachers in northern areas. Assigned supervision time before or after school, at lunch or recess typically accounted for 2.1 to 2.5 hours per week, but

⁴ The source used for this study is the Canadian Teachers' Federation (2003).

significant variations were evident according to school level and geographic area. The areas of the job that were viewed as most stressful related to conflict with teachers, student discipline, extra work associated with large classes, multigrade classes, integrated special needs students, frequent changes in teaching assignment, the pace and intensity of curriculum change and special events such as preparing report cards and attending parent teacher interviews.

To assess teacher workload issues in Alberta, the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA) conducted a time use diary (logbook) study of 115 full-time teachers. According to the sample, Alberta teachers spent an average of 52.9 hours per week on teaching related activities. On average, instructional time constituted 1,220 minutes per week, lesson planning comprised 328 minutes, marking involved 330 minutes, preparing report cards took 229 minutes, 163 minutes was spent on extra-curricular activities and 91 minutes was devoted to supervision activities. The report also acknowledged that the structure of a teacher's workload is significantly different for teachers in elementary schools, compared with teachers in junior and senior high schools. Whereas elementary teachers spent more time on supervision and preparing report cards, junior and senior high teachers spent more time on lesson planning, marking and extracurricular activities. There were also significant differences in the structure of a teacher's workload as school size varied.

In British Columbia, a study of workload involving 737 secondary school English teachers conducted by Naylor & Malcolmson (2001) indicated that on average, full-time English teachers spent a total of 53.1 hours per week on teaching related activities. Marking at 11.5 hours per week and preparation for class at 7.6 hours per week comprised almost 65% of the time that these teachers were not in class. Assigned preparation time at 70-80 minutes for half of the teachers and 90 minutes for just over 20% was deemed to be inadequate for these teachers. The teachers in this study were somewhat overwhelmed with the amount of marking that was required for them to do their job and to manage this workload pressure, and more than two-thirds of respondents reported altering teaching methods and evaluation techniques in an effort to make their job more manageable.

The interest in identifying and understanding teacher workload and teacher worklife has increased over recent years as school systems, governments and teacher associations struggle to make sense of the work intensification that has occurred as a result of the increased levels of accountability, role conflict, unrealistic expectations and burdensome administrative tasks. Studying teachers and their workload is a difficult assignment due primarily

to: the wide variance that exists between students' academic abilities; teachers' knowledge of curriculum and use of teaching methodologies; class size and composition; and teaching assignments that differ from school to school, district to district and community to community. These earlier studies on teacher workload helped in the development of a framework for this study.

Background to the Study

The Provincial Collective Agreement, January 1, 1996 to August 31, 2001, between the Newfoundland and Labrador School Boards Association (NLSBA), the Government of Newfoundland and Labrador and the Newfoundland and Labrador Teachers' Association (NLTA) contains Schedule P which states:

Memorandum of Understanding Re Workload

The parties to this agreement will conduct a study to gather and analyze data related to activities involved in a teacher's workday/year. The parties agree to participate jointly in the design and conduct of the study. Where the parties concur on the terms of reference of the study, they will share equally in the cost.

While a committee was established in 1999, some months after the signing of this agreement, it was unable to produce a workload study before that agreement expired. The same clause appeared as Schedule M in the collective agreement of September 1, 2001 to August 31, 2004.

A joint committee representing all three parties attempted, on its own, to facilitate the development of a survey instrument and to coordinate the study, but this attempt was unsuccessful. During the winter of 2003, the joint committee approached a professor in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University to develop a proposal to conduct a province-wide study on teacher workload. After the proposal was agreed upon, the committee asked for the development of a research plan and diagnostic instruments. This process began in January of 2003 and it was hoped that the research would be conducted before the end of April. However, after reviewing the independently developed instruments and helping in the question refinement stage, two of the parties decided not to participate in the study unless there were further modifications to the instrument and a narrowing in the scope of the study. At that point, the NLTA decided that the study needed to be completed and commissioned the completion of the work. It is significant to note, however, that neither the survey instruments nor the research methodology was altered as a result of that decision.

⁵ The source used for this study is the Canadian Teachers' Federation (2003).

Chapter 2

Methodology

This was primarily a quantitative study but rich data from a number of open-ended questions provided significant insight into many of the issues associated with teacher workload. As a result, we were able to capture the thoughts, feelings and emotions of numerous participants and these are reflected in the personal quotes that are used throughout the report.

Sample Selection

There were 5,898 full and part-time educators working in Newfoundland and Labrador who were eligible to complete this survey (this did not include personnel working at school board district offices). The minimum required sample size at 99% confidence level was 598 teachers. Considering the potential for less than a perfect return, the researchers conducted a stratified random survey of 1,000 teachers, across each of the 11 school districts. The confidence level is 99% and the confidence interval is plus or minus 2.5%. Table 1 shows how the sample was stratified.

Questionnaires were distributed randomly based on the following procedures. The number of teachers in each district was prorated using the following formula: 1,000/5,898 x (number of teachers in the district). For example, in District 1 there were 375 teachers, which meant $1000/5898 \times 375 = 64$ questionnaires for that district. The same approach was used to determine the number of questionnaires that would be sent to each of the schools within the district. For example, in District 1, school number 1 had six teachers, that meant $6/375 \times 64 = 1$. This procedure was repeated for each school in each district. Using this approach with all schools in each of the districts resulted in 302 of 317 schools receiving at least one questionnaire. The 15 schools that did not receive a questionnaire represented a total of 27.5 teaching units.

Within each school, questionnaires were assigned to every sixth person on the school alphabetical staff list. To avoid the 1st , 7th , 13th , etc. person on the list being selected in each school the selection was refined so that the list began at a different place in each of the schools. For example, in School 1 the selection order would be teacher 1, 7, 13, etc.; in School 2, the selection order would be teacher 2, 8, 14 etc. until the appropriate number was selected from each staff.

In the final analysis, 681 completed surveys were returned in time for the quantitative analysis. Following the quantitative data analysis another 14 surveys were returned

Tabl	e 1	: T	he	stra	tified	sampl	e

	Number of Teachers per District	Number of Questionnaires Mailed	Number of Questionnaires Returned	Percentage of Questionnaires Returned
District Number	-			
1	375.00	64	37	57.8
2	298.39	49	32	65.3
3	528.45	90	64	71.1
4	399.00	69	55	79.7
5	610.45	103	82	79.6
6	557.75	94	61	64.9
7	298.25	50	33	66
8	304.00	51	28	54.9
9	673.05	114	87	76.3
10	1,834.55	311	194 (+14) ⁶	62.4 (66.8)
11	28.50	5	3	60
Total	5,898.39	1,000	695	69.5

⁶ 14 questionnaires were returned too late for the quantitative analysis but they were included in the qualitative analysis.

for a total return rate of 69.5%. The additional 14 surveys were used only for the portion of the research that focused on qualitative data analysis (see Table 1 on previous page).

The Sample

A review of Table 1 shows that the sample was stratified to select a representative number of teachers from each of the school districts. This was done to ensure the sample was representative of the entire population of teachers. The final results ranged from a response rate of 54.9 % in one district to 79.7% in another. Table

2 shows how the sample breaks down around gender, location, age, experience, and school size, both for the sample, and where possible, for the total population of teachers in the province based on the 2002-03 school year. There was also representation from all 28 of the different school configurations (e.g., K-12, 7-9, 10-12 etc.) that are operating in the province. Eightyone percent of the teachers were tenured with 10% on replacement contracts and 9% on probationary contracts. Seventy percent were full-time teachers, 16% were special education teachers, 4% were parttime teachers, 4% were teaching department heads, 3% were learning resource teachers and 3% were assistant principals with some teaching responsibities. Principals and full-time assistant principals were not included in this study.

Data Collection

A review of the studies from other jurisdictions indicates that there are various methods available to conduct a review of teachers' workload. Surveys, time diaries, focus groups and telephone interviews are all valid means of assessing teacher workload and some jurisdictions chose to use multiple methods to assess the situation in their province. All of

the above listed methods were considered in the design of this study but the initial direction given by the Joint Committee on Teacher Workload was that this was to be a quantitative study and as a result of that initial direction the decision was to proceed with only a survey of the membership. This decision was not altered after the NLTA decided to proceed with the study independently.

A sample survey questionnaire, designed to assess the workload of teachers, was developed by the researchers in February of 2003. To generate thoughts and ideas about

Table 2: Description of the sample

Demographic Factors	Percentage of Sample	Percentage of Total Teache Population (2002-2003 school year)	
Gender			
Male	31	38	
Female	69	62	
Location			
Rural	57 (teachers)	63.5 (schools)	
Urban	42 (teachers)	36.5 (schools)	
Age categories			
< 26	2	<25 1.0	
26-30	7	25-29 7.3	
31-35	10	30-34 12.6	
36-40	25	35-39 18.7	
41-45	19	40-44 16.7	
46-50	20	45-49 22.8	
>50	16	> 49 20.8	
Teaching Experience			
<1	1	2.9	
1-4.9	11	13.0	
5-9.9	12	15.4	
10-14.9	19	16.5	
15-19.9	18	15.0	
20-24.9	15	15.7	
25-29.9	21	20.6	
>30	3	1.1	
School Size			
1-99	8	6.6	
100-199	15	14.5	
200-299	21	20.5	
300-399	19	20.9	
400-499	15	11.7	
500-599	10	10.0	
>600	13	16.0	

⁷Note a slight difference between the age categories used in the survey and the way data are collected by the Department of Education.

what should be contained in such a survey, recent research reports were reviewed and focus group sessions were held with teachers from four different schools. The schools represented teachers from all grade levels between K-12. Following an analysis of the notes from the focus groups, a draft survey was designed and presented to the members of the Workload Committee. The survey was reviewed by committee members and their respective organizations, changes were suggested, and all suggestions were incorporated into the final draft copy. Once a final draft was decided upon, the survey was field-tested by 16 teachers working in five different schools. The field test necessitated minor changes to the wording of questions but no substantive changes were necessary as a result of the feedback.

The final survey collected demographic information as well as other information about teacher job satisfaction, class size, categories of students, preparation time, supervision time, curriculum implementation, professional development, testing, correcting and reporting to parents. There was also an open-ended question which asked teachers: "If your assigned workload is unreasonable or unmanageable please tell us about the two issues that are most important to you." Readers interested in obtaining a copy of the survey should contact the NLTA office.

Data Analysis

The 681 surveys returned by June 30, 2003 were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The data was analyzed using various descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. Chronbacks Alpha was used to test the reliability of the section of the survey dealing with Teacher Job Satisfaction. The alpha was .8628; an alpha score over .70 is felt to be acceptable (Jaeger, 1990).

Realizing that it would be difficult for teachers to be precise about the actual amount of time that they spend on various tasks, some of the data collected on the survey was reported in intervals or groups. For example, teachers were asked to report the amount of time they spent in staff meetings in 30 minute intervals (i.e.) 1-30 minutes, 31-60 minutes, etc. The decision to collect the data in this format resulted in grouped data. While it is perfectly acceptable to do so, there is a limitation in using grouped data to calculate the median and the mean. The limitation is that it distorts, to some degree, the true mathematical mean and median (Bernard, 2000). Nevertheless, in this instance it made sense to use the grouped data, and in the opinion of the researcher the distortions are minimal.

Section 6 of the questionnaire provided teachers with an opportunity to list and explain the two most serious issues that contributed to making their workload unreasonable or unmanageable. Almost seventy percent (68%), 474 out of the 695 surveys, contained comments. Many of these comments were quite lengthy and detailed, and many made reference to more than one or two issues. To help in the analysis, all comments were coded and transcribed. After transcription they were further analyzed for common themes and ideas. Table 3 shows each of the issues as well as the number and percentage of teachers who indicated that the factor contributed to what they felt was an unreasonable or unmanageable workload. In total, there were 816 comments that related in some way to individual teacher workloads.

Table 3: Identification of major teacher workload issues

Teacher Workload Issues	#of teachers indicating an issue with	% of teachers indicating. an issue with
1. Lack of Time	245	52
2. Class Size and Composition	252	53
3. New Programs and Curriculum	144	30
4. Inappropriate Assignment	125	26
5. Other ⁹	68	14

For more detail on the use of grouped data see Chapter 14 in Bernard (2000).

For example, CRT's, extra-curriculars, public perception, downloading of responsibilities, etc.

Chapter 3

The Impact of Teacher Workload

All of the data for this study were collected using the Teacher Workload Questionnaire that was distributed to 1,000 teachers in the province. The questionnaire was designed to collect data around fixed parameters such as teacher demographics, teacher job satisfaction, class size, categories of students taught, preparation time, assigned supervision time, curriculum implementation, professional development and time spent testing, correcting and reporting. While each of these factors plays a key role in the reporting of the data, this report is organized around four major themes that emerged throughout the research process as significant factors affecting teacher workload.

The chapter begins, however, with a brief look at the concept of work intensification and what the literature says about how the phenomena manifests itself within the education community. Following this, arguments will be made to show how, in Newfoundland and Labrador schools, there are four factors that have contributed significantly to the intensification of work and an increase in teacher workloads. The four factors are: (1) a lack of time for such things as preparation, assessment and reporting, assigned supervision, and attending meetings; (2) classes that are too large and have too many students with diverse needs; (3) the implementation of new programs without adequate resources; and (4) scheduling challenges that result in inappropriate and out-of-field teaching.

Intensification of Work

One of the most basic concepts of economics is "opportunity cost" – the idea that everything has a cost associated with it. This concept also applies to time. For example, the opportunity cost of teachers having to search for their own resource materials or develop alternate lessons is the activities they might have been able to work on if they didn't have to complete these tasks. This is not to suggest that either of these examples is an unimportant part of a teacher's work, however, when new policies that require teachers to do something new get implemented, there are two possible responses. The first is that the new actions will be at the cost of something that was previously being done.

In this situation teachers just replace an old task with the new task or expectation and continue their work as if little had changed. The second, and more likely response, is that the new task or expectation gets "added on" to what for most teachers is an already busy schedule, and their work becomes increasingly intensified (Hargreaves, 1992).

There is a developing body of evidence to show that as a result of such factors as increased levels of accountability, a policy of inclusion, downsizing of the educational infrastructure, a shift to an outcomes-based curriculum, and the integration of new technology, teachers' work has intensified over the past decade (e.g., Hargreaves, 1992; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Belliveau, Lie & Murphy, 2002; Naylor & Malcolmson, 2001; Naylor & Shaffer, 2003; Canadian Teachers' Federation, 2003).

In 1992 Andy Hargreaves of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, studied teacher work in Ontario using the work intensification theory developed by Larson (1980). Larson focused on intensification as one piece of a broader analysis of the labor process. Drawing on this work, Hargreaves examined the implications of what appeared to be a case of intensification of teaching – the scheduling of additional statutory preparation time for elementary school teachers. Prior to this study, the research on intensification had relied primarily on single or two teacher case studies. However, as noted by the various sources (e.g., Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Belliveau, Lie & Murphy, 2002) the empirical evidence to support the concept in education has increased considerably since that time.

Hargreaves uses Larson's definition of intensification as the framework for his research and the same definition and its component parts are used in this study. By definition, work intensification "represents one of the most tangible ways in which the work privileges of educated workers gets eroded" (Hargreaves, 1992, p.88-89). In his discussion of the concept Hargreaves made the following claims:

- Intensification leads to reduced time for relaxation during the working day . . . ;
- Intensification leads to a lack of time to retool one's skills and abilities and keep up with one's field;

- Intensification creates chronic and persistent overload (as compared with the temporary overload that is sometimes experienced in meeting deadlines) ...;
- Intensification leads to reductions in the quality of service, as corners are cut to save time;
- Intensification leads to enforced diversification of expertise and responsibility to cover personnel shortages, which can in turn lead to excessive dependency on outside expertise and further reductions in the quality of service;
- Intensification is voluntarily supported by many teachers and misrecognized as professionalism.

It is important to identify these propositions so that when we listen to teachers' voices, the standard of comparison will be clear. The remainder of this paper will focus exclusively on the work of teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador. As each of the four major factors that impact teacher workload is investigated, there is evidence in the voices of teachers to support many of these claims. The analysis of the results begins with a close look at how teachers use their time.

Lack of Time

Teachers use of professional time has been examined by several authors. It is well known that teachers spend long hours at work (Lorti, 1971; Moore-Johnson, 1990; Hargreaves, 1992 & 1994; Saskatchewan Teachers' Association, 1995, 1997, & 1998; Alberta Teachers' Federation, 1997; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002). Although, for most teachers, a majority of their time is spent directly with their students, the working time outside the classroom is of considerable proportions (e.g., Hargreaves, 1994; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Naylor, 2001; Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002). This latter part of teachers working time, the invisible work (Nordanger and Per Lindqvist, 2002), has contributed significantly to the intensification of the job of teaching.

Much of this report concerns itself with the invisible work of teachers. This is the work that is done outside the legislated school day. In Newfoundland and Labrador the official school day consists of 5 hours and 30 minutes; that is, 5 hours of instructional time and 15 minutes before the first bell and another 15 minutes after dismissal. This results in a statutory work week of 27.5 hours. If we compare the 27.5 hour work week for teachers with the 35 hour statutory work week for public servants, and we assume that the weekly workload should be comparable, that leaves teachers with 7.5 hours per week for planning and preparation, evaluating student work, reporting and communicating with parents, attending required meetings and supervising students. Is this a realistic expectation? Just how much time is required to do this invisible work? These are just two of the questions surrounding teacher use of time that will be addressed in this report.

Table 4 shows the use of professional time by Newfoundland and Labrador teachers. Instructional time and mandatory time before and after class are shown

Table 4: Teacher use of professional time/Newfoundland and Labrador

Teacher non-voluntary work	Median (hrs per week)	% in the high range (hrs per week)	% in the low range (hrs per week)	Mean (hrs per week)
Fixed instructional day				
• Instructional time	25.0 hrs	Not applicable	Not applicable	25.0 hrs
 Mandatory time before & after school 	2.50 hrs	Not applicable	Not applicable	2.50 hrs
Outside the instructional day	•			
 Assigned supervision time 	1.30 hrs	35% > 1.50 hrs	30% < 0.50 hrs	1.35 hrs
Preparation time	8.0 hrs	25% > 11.50 hrs	25% < 5.0 hrs	9.25 hrs
• Meetings	1.80 hrs	Not available	Not available	2.30 hrs
• Assessment time	2.51 hrs	20% > 5.0 hrs	30%< 1.50 hrs	2.93 hrs
• Testing/Reporting time	1.50 hrs	Not available	Not available	2.67 hrs
 Time meeting with parents 	0.50 hrs	Not available	Not available	0.67 hrs
Sub-Total	43.11 hrs			46.67 hrs
• Voluntary activities 10				5.65 hrs
Total				52.32 hrs

Estimate based on the PEI data.

as fixed values but for each of the other facets of nonvoluntary work there is a wide variation in the demand on teachers' time. Unlike many of the other studies referenced in this report (e.g., Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002; Harvey & Spinney, 2000; Leblanc, 2000), this investigation concerned itself only with non-voluntary work. This is an important point that should not be overlooked when making comparisons with other jurisdictions. For example, Belliveau, Liu & Murphy (2002) found that teachers in PEI spent between 48 and 52 hours per week on school related activities including such voluntary activities as fundraising, professional development and extra-curriculars. In fact, teachers in PEI spend .55 hours per week at fundraising activities, 2.5 hours per week on professional development activities and 2.6 hours per week on extracurricular activities, for a total of 5.65 hours per week (Belliveau, Liu & Murphy, 2002). There is no reason to think that teachers in this province don't spend a comparable amount of time on these activities. Hence, if 5.65 hours were added to the 46.67 hours identified in Table 4 (on previous page), the average work week for teachers in this province would be 52.32 hours. This is comparable to the amount of time reported by other researchers for teachers in other provinces (see previous section on trends in other jurisdictions).

Table 5 below shows how teachers actually feel about the amount of time they spend preparing for classes, assessing students and preparing reports, supervising students, and meeting with parents. It also indicates where there are discrepancies based upon grade level. It is obvious from the numbers reported in the table that almost one in every two teachers have expressed concerns over these facets of their jobs. There are differences in the levels of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction based upon grade level and they will be examined in greater detail as we discuss each of the workload facets. For example, while a high percentage of teachers are

concerned with the amount of time they spend on assigned supervision duty, the level of dissatisfaction is higher for teachers at the primary and elementary grade levels.

Our analysis of how teachers spend their time outside the classroom begins with a comparison of how much time teachers in other jurisdictions spend on the activities of preparation, marking/reporting, supervision, and meetings, in comparison to teachers in this province. Table 6 (on page 14) shows comparative data for the provinces of Prince Edward Island (PEI)¹¹, Nova Scotia (NS)¹², British Columbia (BC)¹³ and Newfoundland and Labrador (NL). The data shows that the time spent by Newfoundland and Labrador teachers on these school related activities is comparable with teachers in the other three Atlantic provinces. The differences between the provinces are marginal; however, the number of hours in all four cases is high when the reader takes into consideration that these hours are outside of the fixed school day.

The discussion on the workload factors and how they impact on teachers and students begins with a look at teacher preparation time. This is followed with a discussion of the workload issues associated with assessing, communicating and reporting to parents, the supervision of students, and attending meetings (see Table 5).

Preparation Time

Preparation is the teacher's art and skill in taking the curriculum outcomes and other learning materials (e.g., text books, resource materials) and blending them with his or her subject area knowledge and organizing a classroom so that students are engaged in the learning process. We know from research that all students do not learn the same (e.g., Gardner, 1993). Some respond better if they read the material, others prefer to listen, and others prefer learning when they are actively involved in

Table 5: Percentage of teachers dissatisfied with facets of their job

Job facets	Overall	Primary grades (K-3)	Elementary grades (4-6)	Jr. High grades (7-9)	Sr. High grades (10-12)
Time spent on preparation	55%	62%	57%	51%	51%
Time assessing student work	46%	36%	51%	43%	54%
Assigned supervision time	45%	49%	60%	45%	36%
Time preparing reports/ meeting with parents	45%	50%	49%	56%	41%

¹¹ Source: Belliveau, Lui & Murphy, (2001).
¹² Source: Harvey & Spinney (2000).

Source: Naylor & Malcolmson (2001).

creating their own knowledge (constructivist approach). We know from experience that students will perform better if a variety of approaches are used in the classroom. However, preparing a unit of work that meets the needs of students with varying learning styles and who are working at different ability levels takes a great deal of time – time that many

teachers do not have. In this report, we suggest that ways must be found to build at least some of this time into the teachers' work day.

In his study, *Time and Teachers' Work*, Hargreaves (1992) reported that increases in preparation time for teachers had conferred important benefits on the quality of teacher work in general, and instruction in particular. First, increased preparation time was important in reducing stress levels in teachers, and second, it helped restore a balance between their teaching lives and their lives outside teaching, enabling them to spend a little more time with their families and on leisure activities. Together, these two enhancements helped to improve teachers' temperament in the classroom by improving the quality of the interaction they had with their classes. Increased preparation time (to a guaranteed 180 minutes per week) enabled many teachers to take on more in the way of extracurricular activities, but for many the real value added was the extra investment they could make in their own classes. For many teachers it helped them evaluate students' work more effectively.

Scarce preparation time is said to be a chronic and persistent feature of intensification in teachers' work (Hargreaves, 1992) and there is no disputing that teachers in this province have little scheduled preparation time. In fact, Figure 1 on the following page shows that this province is amongst the lowest in the country. The average teacher in Newfoundland and Labrador has approximately two-thirds the time for preparation as their colleagues in the other Atlantic Provinces. Even in these provinces preparation time is limited to approximately 40 minutes per day, and the research evidence from these jurisdictions shows that these teachers feel they do not have adequate preparation time scheduled into their school day.

In examining the numbers for this province, Figure 2 (on the following page) shows that there is a high degree of

Table 6: Out of school time spent on school related activities

Workload factor	PEI	NS	ВС	NL
Preparation	7.1 hrs	7.5 hrs ¹⁴	7.6 hrs	9.25 hrs
Marking/Reporting	7.8 hrs	9.2 hrs	11.5 hrs	6.3 hrs
Meetings	1.6 hrs	2.3 hrs	2.0 hrs	2.3 hrs
Supervision	2.75 hrs	2.9 hrs	Not available	3.85 hrs ¹⁵
Totals	19.25 hrs	21.9 hrs	21.1 hrs ¹⁶	21.7 hrs

variance between the amounts of scheduled preparation time that is available to individual teachers. In this research some teachers have no preparation time; some have in excess of three hours a week. However, with 81% of teachers having less than 40 minutes per day (200 minutes per week), 69% having less than 30 minutes per day (150 minutes per week) and 52% of teachers having less than 25 minutes of preparation time per day (125 minutes per week), it is obvious that preparation time is a scarce resource. Figure 2 also shows that the situation is somewhat worse at the primary/elementary level as only 20% of teachers have more than 30 minutes of preparation time a day (150 minutes per week). This compares with 40% at the junior high level and 49% at the high school level.

Given that there is so little time for preparation during the school day it is obvious that teachers spend a considerable amount of time outside the school day preparing for their classes. It is also understandable that over half (55%) of the teachers in this study indicated they were dissatisfied with the amount of time they spend preparing for classes (see Table 5 page 13). Table 4 (see page 12) shows that 50% of the teachers spent eight hours or more per week, outside the school day, preparing for classes. Twenty-five percent of the teachers spent over 11.5 hours per week (16% were spending over 14 hours per week) preparing for their classes. Like their colleagues in other provinces these teachers are investing large amounts of time outside the school day on class preparation activities.

Figure 3 (on page 16) shows that teachers in schools of all sizes felt they did not have enough preparation time, with teachers in the largest schools (≥600) at 64%, and teachers in the smallest schools (<50), at 82% being the least satisfied with the amount of preparation time available. Over 40% of teachers in all schools indicated that they were dissatisfied with the amount of time they had available during the school day to do preparation work. Also, almost 60% of the teachers teaching grades K-6 were

¹⁴ In the data provided by Harvey & Spinney (2000) Nova Scotia teachers have an average of 179.9 minutes of assigned preparation time within the scheduled school day. For consistency in the comparison, 3 hours are subtracted from the original number of 10.5 hours.

 $^{^{15}}$ The 2.5 hours of mandatory time are included in this total (see Table 4).

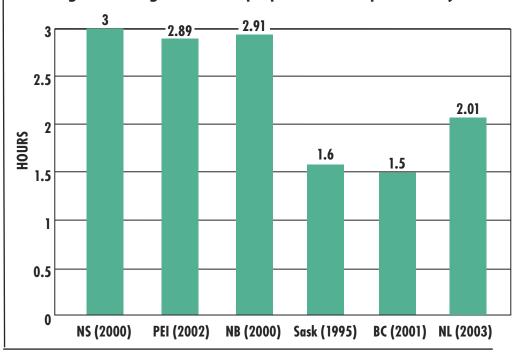
¹⁶ This study by Naylor and Malcolmson (2001) examined the workload of BC English teachers only.

dissatisfied with the amount of preparation time. This compared to 51% of the teachers in junior high and senior high school grades (see Table 5, page 13).

In the qualitative portion of the survey, 20% of the teachers indicated that a lack of assigned preparation time was the single biggest issue that they felt was making their workload unmanageable or unreasonable. Some of these teachers indicated that a lack of preparation time contributed to such things as teacher isolation, an unwillingness to take on extra-curricular activities, as well as health related issues like depression and sickness.

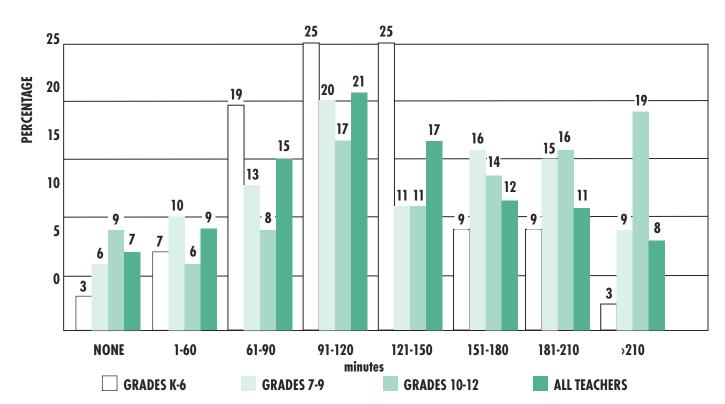
One teacher, working in a large urban elementary school claimed: "I have to spend after school, evenings and mornings preparing for the next day's classes.

Figure 1: Assigned teacher preparation time per week/cycle¹⁷



I have no time for my family and a social life is out of the question – my work has become my life."

Figure 2: Scheduled preparation time per week



¹⁷ Sources: Nova Scotia see Harvey and Spinney (2000); PEI see Belliveau, Liu and Murphy(2002); New Brunswick see Leblanc (2000); Saskatchewan see Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation (1995); British Columbia see Naylor and Malcolmson (2001).

Teachers expressed concern that higher levels of frustration and stress due to a lack of assigned time to prepare classes can negatively impact on their interaction with students. The lack of preparation time can also result in classes that are not planned/prepared as well as they could be. Further, when a teacher doesn't have time to properly assess student work in a timely fashion, and has little time to provide tutorial classes, remedial work for students who need extra teachers are satisfied with the amount of time they spend preparing for classes they are significantly more satisfied with many facets of their job than the main population of teachers (significance at the .01 level for all items). For example, when teachers feel they have adequate planning time they tend to be more satisfied with their job, teaching assignment, teaching load and workload, and they are generally more satisfied with the quality of their worklife.

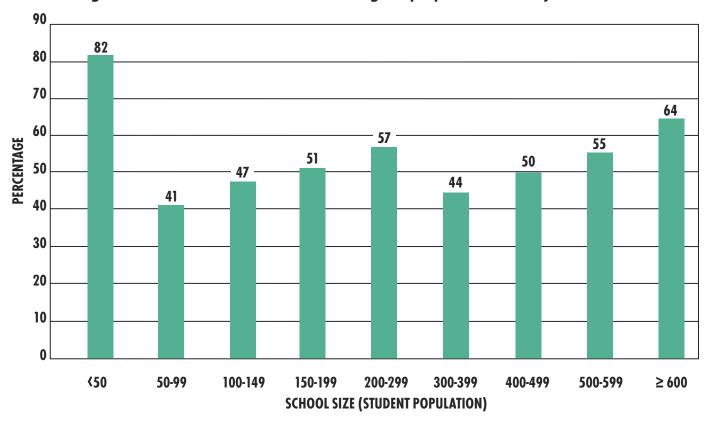


Figure 3: Teacher dissatisfaction with assigned preparation time by school size

help is often compromised. Many teachers noted the lack of adequate preparation time for technology teachers who are in charge of the school computer network, stating that when these teachers are called from the classroom to troubleshoot computer troubles for other teachers and administrators (and that can be often), their students get short-changed.

Having adequate preparation time is a critical factor to teacher satisfaction. In this study, it was the strongest predictor of teacher job satisfaction. In other words, when teachers were satisfied with the amount of time they had for preparation they were much more positive about their work and the profession in general. An analysis of Figure 4 (on page 17) shows that on 20 of 21 items, when between their work and personal life and are much more likely to recommend teaching as a career for young people. Given the nature of our school system with its many small schools (63% have a student population of less than 300)18 it is understandable that many teachers will have multiple preparations. Working to ensure adequate preparation

They are more likely to be satisfied with the amount of time they have to spend marking student work, meeting with

parents and developing mid-year and final exams. They are

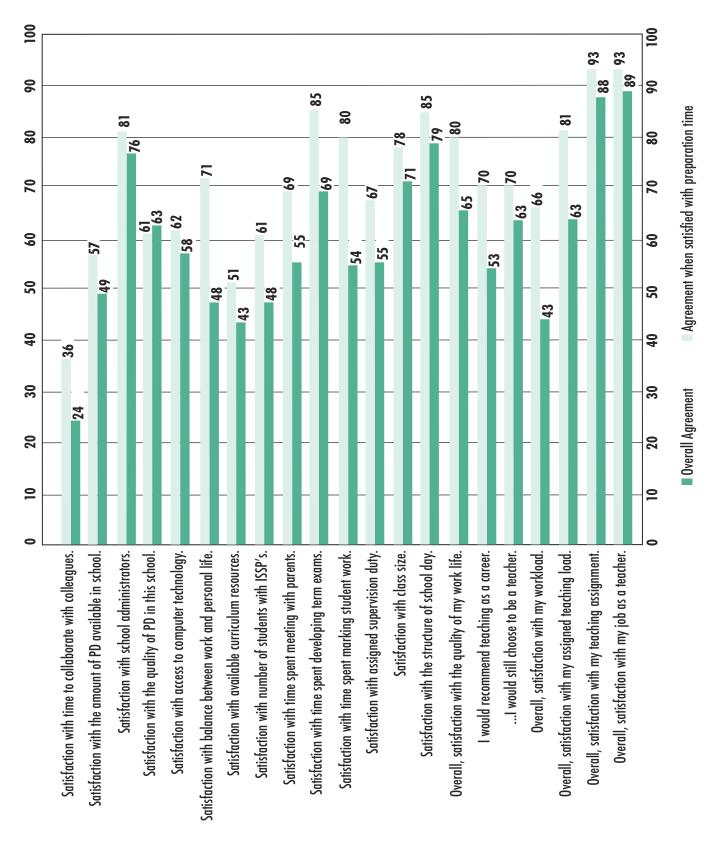
also more satisfied with their ability to maintain a balance

retention levels.

time for teachers seems like a sensible strategy to combat unreasonable workloads - a strategy that would likely result in a reduction in teacher attrition and an increase in

¹⁸Source: *Educational Statistics Handbook*. Department of Education (2003-04).

Figure 4: Preparation time as a predictor of teacher job satisfaction



Assessing, Reporting and Communicating with Parents

If students are to learn to read, write and think well, they need regular feedback on their performance. To accomplish this, student assessment needs to be done on a frequent and consistent basis. However, for many teachers this time is difficult to find. Many of the teachers (46%) in this study indicated they were dissatisfied with the inordinate amount of their own personal time they spend evaluating student work and 45% were dissatisfied with the amount of time they spend preparing for and meeting with parents (see Table 5, page 13).

Teachers were asked to indicate the amount of time spent assessing student work, outside the regular school day, during the week preceding the completion of this questionnaire. The average teacher spent almost three hours per week assessing student work with 20% indicating that they spent in excess of 5 hours per week on the task (see Table 4, page 12). Recognizing that assessing student work and providing feedback is a critical link in student achievement, teachers noted that this was an area of their work that could not be compromised. One of the high school English teachers wrote about the paradox of grading student work and balancing it with his personal life and concluded:

the things that can lighten my workload are, in my opinion, generally not good for students if used regularly (e.g., multiple choice tests, worksheets, lectures, less written assignments). When I am correcting student writing on the weekends it gets to the point where I feel grateful when students do not pass in their work. Their bad habits help me survive. You get the picture!

Other teachers indicated that with an outcomes-based curriculum and an increase in the number of students who are on Pathways ¹⁹ 2, 3, and 4, trying to achieve a balance between preparation and assessment is becoming more and more problematic. One teacher summed up his feelings this way: There just isn't enough time to do justice to everything – when I take the time to plan I don't have the time for correcting and likewise when I have to focus on correcting assignments for the 175 students that I teach, there is not much time left for planning.

Concern was also expressed about the amount of time required for preparing and writing evaluation reports and then reporting to parents on the contents of the reports.

Teachers, mostly from larger schools (>400), made numerous comments about feeling stressed and burned out, especially at reporting times, and they felt that much of the correcting and documentation work was interfering with good planning and as a consequence, good teaching. A few of the teachers indicated that, on occasion, they had to phone in sick in order to complete their report cards on time and they acknowledged that others did so as well. The effects of excessive marking are felt by both teacher and student, as illustrated in a comment by a teacher from an urban high school.

I am tired when I mark. I must mark all work together for fairness, which often means late nights. I am angry when people call me - they should know not to call me at home on a Sunday afternoon! I have turned down numerous invitations to go out, and have lost contact with friends. I'm stressed and less effective in class. I try to give fewer assignments. Students must wait a long time between doing work and getting feedback. Adequate preparation is lessened as well.

Because of the structure of the school year and the way that major reporting periods are scheduled throughout the academic year, the areas of preparing for testing and reporting, and meeting with parents, requires special attention. Three or four times a year teachers provide indepth reports to parents and other authorities on student progress, but there is evidence that these periods are very intense and stressful periods for teachers. Table 6 (on page 14) shows the average amounts of time that teachers spend preparing for testing and reporting, as well as meeting with parents over the course of the various reporting periods. While the hours can be averaged to 2.67 hours per week for preparing for testing and reporting and .67 hours for meeting with parents, averaging these numbers over a 39 week period does not accurately reflect the intensity of these periods and it is the intensity that causes periods of high stress and dissatisfaction for some teachers.

To summarize Table 7 (on page 19), many teachers spend over 24 extra hours preparing for and reporting to parents over a two to three week period in the fall of the year, they spend another 28 hours over the mid-year reporting period, 23 hours over the spring reporting period and almost 29 hours during the year-end reporting period. Depending on the teaching assignment, community, type of school

¹⁹ Pathways is a way to describe how educational programs to meet the individual needs of all students are planned. When the needs of students are not met by the provincial curriculum an Individual Support Services Plan (ISSP) is needed. Pathways is the framework schools use to carry out the educational part of the ISSP. (Source – Pathways to Programming and Graduation: A Brochure for Parents).

and grade level, these reporting periods can place an extra burden on a teacher for up to three weeks at a time. Over the course of the school year this amounts to as much as 12 weeks or almost one third of the school year.

Teachers also indicated that they devote much time to meeting with parents about evaluation related topics and they indicated that the time demand was increasing each year. Table 7 shows the number of hours, outside the school day, that teachers spend in scheduled evaluation meetings with parents at different times during the school year. Twenty percent of teachers indicated that they spend more than 4 hours on student orientation sessions, 8 hours during the fall reporting period, 7 hours during mid-year reporting, 6 hours during spring reporting and another 6 hours at the end of the year. These meetings are scheduled meetings, but many of the primary and elementary teachers indicated that the unscheduled parent meetings that just happen at lunch time or at the end of the school day, when a parent shows up outside the classroom door, are the most stressful of all. One teacher in an urban elementary school said:

I am trying to get the students off to the bus so I can go to a staff meeting or just get to some planning or correcting before I go home, but it seems that every other day there is a parent who needs to talk about something that concerns her child...I don't blame the parent; they are only doing what

I would do as a parent but I have little prep time and 33 students to plan for, pick up after and correct work for. After I get the students out, meet with parents or colleagues, straighten up my room and get my things together it is usually 4:00 P.M. and I still haven't been to the washroom... by that time I realize how tired I am . . . and that means I have to spend two-three hours most nights getting ready for the next day.

Teachers noted that while they and their families pay a personal price for all of the correcting and reporting, there are also consequences for students in their classrooms. For example, teachers say they don't have time to prepare their classrooms the way they want them and sometimes they have to compromise on how they plan a lesson. This might mean the students have to tolerate a more traditional instructional approach rather than a more activity orientated approach. Teachers also noted, on occasions, especially around reporting time, it takes them longer to correct student work and consequently longer to provide them with feedback.

While there is a large variation between the amounts of time different teachers spend on these areas, generally, student assessment time was highest for secondary school teachers of large classes and for those teaching certain

Table 7: The intensity of the reporting periods

Testing/Reporting time	Median hours per reporting period	High range	Low range	Mean hours per reporting period
Fall reporting	12.0hrs	25% > 25hrs	25% < 6hrs	24.5hrs
Mid-year reporting	16.0hrs	25% > 35hrs	25% < 7hrs	28.2hrs
Spring reporting	10.0hrs	25% > 24hrs	25% < 9 hrs	28.9hrs
End of year reporting	20.0hrs	25% > 35hrs	25% < 4hrs	2.7hrs
Total hours				104.30
Average hours per week				2.67
Time meeting with parents				
Orientation	2.0hrs	20% > 4hrs	20% < 1hr	3.6hrs
Fall reporting	5.0hrs	20% > 8hrs	25% < 4hrs	6.8hrs
Mid-year reporting	5.0hrs	20% > 7hrs	25% < 3hrs	5.8hrs
Spring reporting	5.8hrs	20% > 6hrs	40% < 1hr	4.8hrs
End of year reporting	4.2hrs	20% > 6hrs	20% < 2hr	5.2hrs
Total hours				26.20
Average hours per week				.67

subjects (e.g., Language Arts). On the other hand, primary and elementary teachers generally spent more time reporting to and communicating with parents. The analysis also indicated that much of the frustration with reporting occurs when it is not computer based and teachers are required to write lengthy hand-written comments. Surprisingly, only 50% of teachers indicated that they have access to a school-wide electronic reporting system and only 36% of teachers indicated that their school provides them with a personal computer that can be used exclusively for teacher work. Providing teachers with access to the appropriate technology, along with the training to use it effectively, might help to alleviate some of the concerns surrounding the reporting process.

Supervision

Section 75 (1) (e) of the Schools Act (1997) states: "A school board shall insure (sic) adequate supervision of all students enrolled in its schools during the period for which the board is responsible for those students." Under the Schools Act, school authorities have a responsibility to exercise reasonable supervision for students when they are in their care and no one will dispute the duty of care owed to students – that of protecting the student from all foreseeable risks and harm. As a result, teachers spend various amounts of time assigned to supervision duty – patrolling the corridors and school grounds, ensuring that the premises are safe for students.

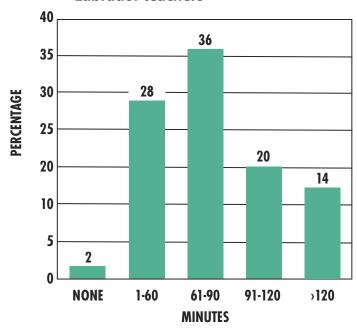
In the province of Newfoundland and Labrador this formal supervision is one of those duties traditionally assigned to teachers. However, it is debatable whether the direct supervision has to be provided by the teacher, if another employee of the school board can be designated the responsibility, as is the case in other jurisdictions. In a 2003 study of assigned non-instructional duties, the Canadian Teachers' Federation (CTF) found that in some jurisdictions, teacher collective agreements either set a limit(s) on teachers' non-instructional assigned supervision duties or exempt teachers entirely from certain types of supervision of students. An exemption of teachers from routine supervision during the students' lunch break is found, for example, in Nova Scotia's provincial agreement, most local agreements in British Columbia, as well as many local agreements in Saskatchewan. It is common in Saskatchewan, though, to provide additional compensation such as cash or paid leave to teachers who agree to noon-hour supervision. The broadest exclusion from student supervision found in a sample of 30 teacher collective agreements is the Greater Victoria School District in British Columbia where article D.7.1 states that "No teacher shall be required to perform supervision duties at noon hour, recess, before or after school." (Canadian Teachers' Federation, 2003, p. 27)

In any event, it goes without saying that doing corridor, playground and bus supervision is probably the aspect of their job that teachers dislike the most. Many accept it as a part of their job but for many others it causes them a level of dissatisfaction. In the words of one elementary teacher:

You get no breaks on duty days, not even 5 minutes to go to the bathroom. I'm so disgusted with having to supervise students eating their lunch at their desks... and having to clean up after they have finished.

Figure 5 shows that there is a tremendous variation in the amount of time that teachers in the province are assigned to supervision duty. Most teachers (70%) are doing over 60 minutes a week while 14% are doing over two hours per week. A relatively high percentage (45%) of teachers are concerned that the amount of assigned supervision that they do each week is unreasonable (see Table 5 page 13).

Figure 5: Amount of assigned supervision time per week for Newfoundland and Labrador teachers



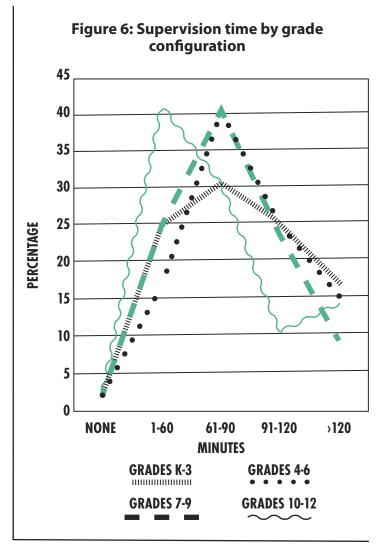
The primary, elementary and junior high teachers generally view themselves as being in a much more disadvantageous situation than high school teachers, for at least two reasons: (1) typically, primary and elementary teachers have fewer minutes of preparation time (see Figure 2, page 15) and more minutes of supervision time (see Figure 6, page 21), and as a result supervision time has a greater impact, and (2) their students are much younger and require a higher standard of care. Nevertheless, the following comment by a

teacher in an urban junior high school is typical of the view of many teachers:

Teachers have to return to afternoon classes having babysat 150+ children on their break. This is not only demeaning, but very stressful. Instead of our lunch-break being a time to get refreshed, it can totally deplete the emotional resources of teachers who then face another 2 hours of teaching before tackling the books after school.

While high school teachers are the group most content with doing the supervision, probably because they do a little less (see Figure 6 below), teachers in larger schools are more dissatisfied with the amount of assigned supervision duty.

Teachers acknowledge that they prepare and teach differently on days when they have supervision duty. When a teacher has morning supervision, a couple of classes to teach, recess supervision, another class, lunch supervision, two more classes to teach and then perhaps another after school supervision, all without a legitimate break, then



the quality of teaching that occurs in the classroom is probably less than ideal. From a pedagogical point of view, supervision usurps natural breaks that can sometimes be better used as preparation or reflection time. In any case, when teachers are assigned to supervision duty they do not have the opportunity to re-energize during recess and lunch time, and many become more tired and stressed. For some, supervision is an added factor leading to increased numbers of sick days and a decreased quality of worklife. In a place that is as turbulent as a school one can't help but wonder if there is not another more sensible solution to the supervision responsibility.

Meetings

Meetings also create a demand on teachers' time. As a general rule most teachers accept meetings as a necessary aspect of their job. The most common concern expressed about meetings is that there are too many, and they are usually held at the end of the day when teachers are tired and stressed. On average, teachers spend 2.3 hours per week in meetings (see Table 8 on page 22) that are directly related to their jobs (e.g., staff meetings, Individual Service Support Program (ISSP) meetings, school improvement meetings and school council meetings). Staff meetings take an average of 1 hour per week; however, for 35% of teachers it is more than 1 hour, but for 30% it means spending less than 30 minutes participating in such meetings. ISSP meetings also take a considerable amount of time outside of the instructional day with the average teacher spending 0.6 hrs per week participating in and arranging such meetings. For 20% of teachers, ISSP meeting time accounted for more than 1 hour per week, and surprisingly, 15% of teachers (e.g., teachers teaching French immersion, advanced level courses, Advanced Placement courses and International Baccalaureate courses) had no responsibilities for ISSP meetings. Teachers also invest an average of 30 minutes per week in school improvement meetings and an additional 12 minutes per week in school council meetings.

Class Size and Composition

Research and common sense generally suggests that smaller class size can help to improve the quality of the classroom experience for both the teacher and the student. For the student it should mean more individual attention and for the teacher it should mean more time to devote to the needs of the individual student. This increase in individualized attention should result in a classroom where students are better able to learn and master the academic, teamwork and personal management skills they need to be successful in our modern knowledge-based economy. Better skills should also mean higher student achievement for all students and this should lead to a decrease in the number of students who require special education services, now and in the future.

Substantial literature emanating from studies conducted mainly in the United States (e.g., Tennessee (Project STAR); ²⁰ Wisconsin (the SAGE project); ²¹ California (CSR program) ²² addresses the issue of class size. Most educational research has confirmed that small classes do yield significant benefits for students, particularly in the early primary grades (K-3), but it appears that achievement gains are greater when classes contain fewer than 20 students, and that students whose classes are small in the primary grades retain their gains in elementary, middle and high school (Biddle and Berliner, 2002; American Educational Research Association (AERA), 2003; Ehrenberg, Brewer, Gamoran & Willms, 2001; Finn & Achilles, 1999; Molnar, Smith, Zahorik, Palmer, Halbach, Ehrle, 1999; Betts & Shkolnik, 1999; Prichard, 1999; Glass, Cahen, Smith & Filby, 1982).

While small classes benefit all types of students, much research has shown that the benefits are greatest for disadvantaged students from low SES neighbourhoods (Biddle and Berliner, 2002; Nye, Hedges & Konstantopoulos, 1999; Howley, 2000; Finn & Achilles, 1999). Even the critics of the class reduction movement (e.g., Hanushek, 1999) agree that students can gain an initial benefit from small classes particularly in the first two years of school. Currently in the United States, more than 20 states and the federal government have adopted policies aimed at decreasing class size, and billions of dollars have been committed over the past few years (Ehrenberg, et al, 2001, p. 68).

The research conclusions about the issues of class size are as clear-cut as any in education (Scherer, 2002). Not only do substantial reductions in class size result in improvements in student achievement, there is also evidence that it boosts teachers' morale and job satisfaction (Glass, et al, 1982;

Molnar, et al, 1999). It also affects how they plan (King & Peart, 1992; Moore-Johnson, 1990), how they work (King & Peart, 1992) and their expectations of success (Moore-Johnson, 1990). Small class settings (13-17 students) promote student participation in learning (Finn & Achilles, 1999; Molnar, et al, 1999; Betts & Shkolnik, 1999), including students who would not be as willing to participate if they were part of a larger class (Finn & Achilles, 1999). Communication between students and teachers tended to be more frequent and as a result teachers knew their students better (Molnar, et al 1999), focused more on teaching activities (AERA, 2003; Finn & Achilles, 1999; Molnar, et al, 1999) and much less on institutional events such as discipline (Biddle and Berliner, 2002; AERA, 2003; Molnar, et al, 1999; Betts & Shkolnik, 1999; Rice, 1999), administration (Molnar, et al, 1999; Betts & Shkolnik, 1999), and classroom management (Molnar, et al, 1999; Betts & Shkolnik, 1999; Ehrenberg, et al, 2001). There was also evidence that smaller class size results in reduced stress and greater satisfaction levels among teachers as well as an increase in pleasure derived from teaching (Molnar, et al, 1999; Biddle & Berliner, 2002).

In this study there were numerous references to the fact that class size and class composition are closely linked and directly related to workload. For many teachers workload issues became much more acute when their class sizes were large and unmanageable, when there were an inordinate number of students in their classes who were on different Pathways, and when they were teaching in multi-grade classrooms.

There were two questions on the job satisfaction inventory that asked teachers to indicate how they felt about the size and composition of their classes (see Appendix 1, item 9 and item 15). Predictably, in a province with many

Table 8: Average time p	er week t	hat teachers	spend in	meetinas
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Type of meeting	Median time (hrs per week)	% in high range (hrs per week)	% in low range (hrs per week)	Mean time (hrs per week)
Staff meeting	.8 hrs per week	35% > 1 hr	30% < .5 hrs	1 hr per week
ISSP meetings	.4 hrs per week	20% > 1 hr	15% = 0 hrs	.6 hrs per week
School improvement meetings	.3 hrs per week	20% > 1 hr	20% = 0 hrs	.5 hrs per week
School council meetings	.0 hrs per week	8% > 1 hr	79% = 0 hrs	.2 hrs per week
Total	1.5 hrs per week			2.3 hrs per week

²⁰ STAR - (Student/Teacher Achievement Ratio) Arguably the largest and best designed field experiment ever undertaken in education.

SAGE - (Student Achievement Guarantee in Education) Led by Alex Molnar, this program began as a five-year pilot project to reduce K-3 class sizes in areas where at least 50% of students were living below the poverty line. The major intention was to reduce class size to 15 students for each teacher.

²²CSR - (Class Size Reduction program) While well intentioned this initiative has provided a near text book example of how a jurisdiction should not reduce class size.

small schools, most teachers (71%) indicated that they were satisfied with the size of their classes. However, there was a perfect correlation between school size and level of dissatisfaction with class size; the larger the school the more dissatisfied teachers were with class size (see Figure 7). With the majority of the province's larger schools located in urban areas, this probably explains why 42% of the teachers located in urban areas are not satisfied with their class size. By contrast, in the rural areas 19% were dissatisfied. Concern was also higher at the junior high level (grade 7-9 schools). At 57%, they were the only group that had more teachers dissatisfied with class size than satisfied.

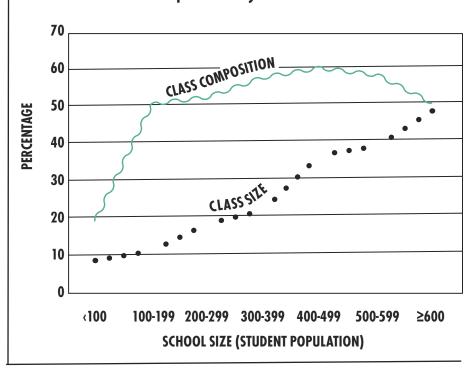
Teachers indicated that when there are too many students in the one classroom, problems begin to develop. For example, it restricts contact time with students, limits the amount of

space for movement around the classroom and restricts the teaching methodologies that teachers can use, thereby eliminating many successful methodologies that are predicated on high rates of student participation. At the junior high level, in particular, many teachers indicated frustration at having to resort to a lecture and text approach to teaching because their classes were so large.

At the primary and elementary levels several urban teachers noted an increase in the amount of time and effort they have to provide for student assessment and documentation (e.g., school/school board/provincial forms, Criterion Referenced Tests (CRTs) and Pathways paperwork). With a large class this takes considerably more time than it would for a smaller class and this translates into less time for other dimensions of the teachers' job (e.g., preparation, assessing student work and interacting with students). Also, the more students there are in a class, the more time it takes to contact and meet with parents, and many teachers indicated that factors associated with large classes (i.e., getting to know students and their work) often resulted in delays in contacting parents. Teachers at all grade levels noted that in a large or overcrowded classroom much more time has to be spent on classroom management and that discipline problems tend to occur more frequently.

It is difficult to isolate the consequences of large class size for students from those for teachers, but some teachers

Figure 7: Teacher dissatisfaction with class size and composition by school size



in this study felt that as a result of large class sizes there was limited interaction between teachers and their students, and that was having a negative effect on the social, emotional and cognitive development of many students. Teachers claimed that many talented students do not get challenged academically in the manner that they should be challenged and, in spite of a comprehensive special needs policy (i.e., Pathways), many special needs students still do not get the help that they need. There were concerns that most classes have limited resources and that every additional student in a classroom decreases the resources that are available for other students (e.g., there are not enough materials, resources, computers, physical education equipment, art supplies, science lab equipment etc., to go around).

Teachers were also concerned about the amount of work they can reasonably assign and correct when they have large classes, and they noted that when classes are large it usually means delays in getting the work back to the students in a timely fashion. The other major concern was large, overcrowded classrooms precipitate unhealthy work environments as students don't have room to move around the classroom. As a junior high teacher from one of the larger urban areas claimed: *I have 34 students in my tiny classroom, I can't do group work, I can hardly walk between the desks... they (students) are on top of each other.*

But numbers were only part of what concerned teachers. They were equally concerned with the issue of class composition and they were adamant that the composition of the class must be taken into consideration when students are being assigned, particularly students who are on Pathways 2, 3, or 4. There was no consensus as to what might be a reasonable number of students on Pathways 2, 3, or 4 for a typical classroom, most likely because of the wide variance in factors like class size, school resources, the skills of the individual teachers, and the needs of the individual children. However, one teacher did recommend a model that he thought was being implemented in another province (i.e., Alberta). Under this model a student on Pathway 2 would count as 2 students in a class, a student on Pathway 3 would count as 3 students and a student on Pathway 4 would count as 4 students in determining class size. In any event, since the Pathways framework was introduced to the provincial school system in the mid-1990s, teachers have been expressing their concerns about the way the program has been implemented and the implications that it brings for teacher workload.

So why is this policy having such a negative effect on class composition and teacher workload? The Pathways program is a proprietary policy; the allocation of special education teachers is carried out in such a manner as to ensure that the most serious needs are met before such personnel are used to meet the needs of Pathways 2 children. In practice, this has resulted in an increase in the number of Pathways 2 and Pathways 3 children who are expected to have all or most of their needs met in the regular classroom by the regular classroom teacher. This has resulted in many teachers having to develop alternate curriculum, plan alternate lessons, find additional resources and create separate assessment tools for students who are on alternate Pathways. When classes get too large, these additional tasks, in the opinion of many, mean a significant increase in workload that results in negative consequences for teachers and students alike. For example, it is possible in a class of 30 students for a teacher to have 20 students on Pathway 1; 5 students on Pathway 2; 3 students on Pathway 3; and 2 students on Pathway 4. When this occurs, the teacher is expected to meet the needs of all 30 individual students. This often means that the teacher has to prepare several lesson plans or program modification plans in order to meet the diverse needs of each individual student. It is important to note that even though two or more students may be designated as being on Pathway 2, their needs may be totally different and when this happens, it is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that the individual needs of the individual students are met. Often, teachers have to prepare two different lesson plans for two students who are designated as being on Pathway 2.

In this study, 52% of teachers were dissatisfied with the number of students with ISSPs that they had to work with each week (see Appendix 1, Item 15). Figure 7 (on the previous page) shows that with the exception of schools with less than 100 students, over 50% of teachers were concerned about the composition of their class as defined by the number of students on Pathways 2, 3, or 4 who are in their regular class. Figures 8 -11 (on the next page) show some of the responsibilities for teaching students on Pathways 2, 3 and 4 as well as levels of satisfaction with their teaching workload.

Figure 8 shows that 66% of the teachers in this study had responsibility for Pathway 2 students. From this group of teachers; 42% indicated that they work with 12 or more students and 57% were dissatisfied with their workload. Figure 9 indicates that 29% of the teachers had responsibilities for students on Pathway 3; 10% of them had 12 or more students and 60% of them were dissatisfied with their teaching workload. Figure 10 shows that same data for teachers teaching students on Pathway 4. There were 27% of the teachers who had responsibilities for students on Pathway 4; 23% worked with 12 or more students on a daily basis and 59% were dissatisfied with their workload. Figure 11 shows the number and percentage of teachers who were working with more than one Pathway category.

Overall, of the teachers who were working with students on Pathways, mid to late career teachers (36 years +) were more likely to feel dissatisfied than early career teachers and the school configurations with the highest levels of dissatisfaction were junior high school (grade 7-9) and K-6 schools. At 19%, teachers in schools with less than 100 students were the only category of school where the level of dissatisfaction with class composition was less than 50% (see Figure 7 on previous page). Teachers commented over and over that schools need more resources (i.e. instructional materials and extra personnel) in order to deal effectively with the issues associated with Pathways. For example, a junior high teacher wrote:

Put more teachers into the system to handle Pathway kids. The system was put in place to better meet the needs of these children... it's not!! These children are our future...we should be putting more help/resources in place for them as they need it. Some children on Pathways 2 and 3 have the potential to succeed, but need more intervention than the classroom teacher can provide. More resources have to be put in place.

Figure 8: Pathways 2

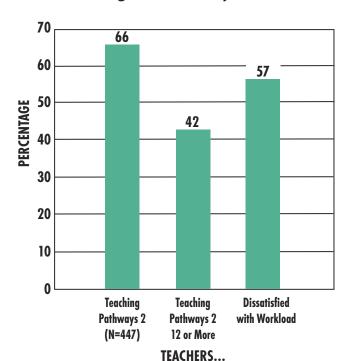


Figure 9: Pathways 3

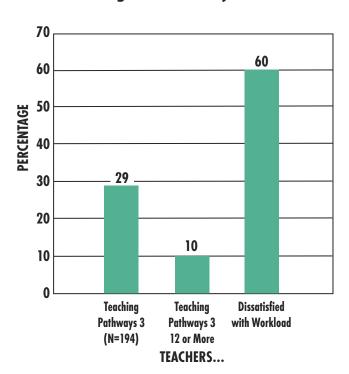


Figure 10: Pathways 4

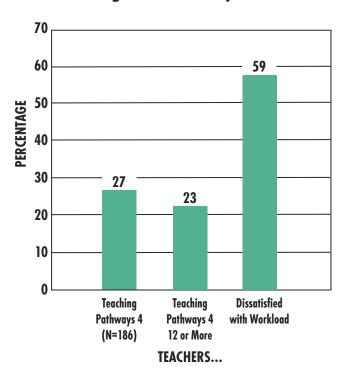
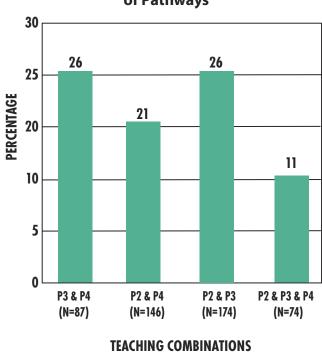


Figure 11: Multiple combinations of Pathways



There was serious concern expressed about the amount of time and effort involved in the ISSP and related documentation processes. From a workload perspective, the main concerns focused on the excessive amounts of paper work and documentation, many hours of evening and weekend work preparing ability-level resource materials and, for some, many after-school meetings. Table 8 (see page 22) shows the amount of time that teachers estimated spending on ISSP meetings during a typical work week. Surprisingly there are still some teachers who are not affected by students on Pathways, but they are a minority. The table also indicates that 85% of teachers are involved in ISSP meetings outside of school hours, and teachers report these meetings can range anywhere from 15 minutes per week to a high of more than two hours per week. Again, although most teachers will tell you that this meeting request is not unreasonable, they will say it is just one more thing that has to be done in an already full schedule. This provides another sample of the impact of work intensification on a teacher's worklife. A primary teacher summed up her feelings this way:

It's not Pathways that I'm against – it is a wonderful program. But there are so many wonderful programs that we are expected to include in our daily routine, Read to Succeed, KinderStart, First Steps, to mention just a few – all wonderful programs but I don't have the time to do it all!

There is an old saying – the animals begin to look at each other differently when the watering hole starts to dry up.

As teachers compete for the necessary resources to do their job there is an indication that the collegial model may be weakening. There was some evidence that teachers are beginning to blame each other for the high workload associated with Pathways. For example, some classroom teachers see the Special Needs teacher as having an easy time with just one or two students at a time, and some Special Needs and Special Education teachers feel they are isolated from the rest of the staff and are carrying the brunt of the load of coordinating the special needs program. All are asking for help.

The frustration and stress levels of teachers are also exacerbated by the realization that, at home, the family life of teachers is being affected, while in school it becomes very difficult to prepare for, and teach, so many children with varied and diverse needs. There is no doubt that the frustration level over workload associated with Pathways is high. One somewhat disturbing indicator is the high number of respondents who either suggested or hinted (probably out of frustration), at the notion of streaming students into homogeneous groupings as a possible solution to their own workload problems.

While teachers naturally expressed concern for their own workload (the focus of this study) they expressed considerable concern that individual student needs were not being met. Teacher after teacher claimed that when there are too many of one Pathway or too many students on different Pathways in the same classroom, the teacher cannot deliver appropriate programs to these and the other students.

The data in Figure 11 (on previous page) indicates that high percentages of teachers have responsibility for multiple classifications of students (i.e. Pathway 2, Pathway 3 and Pathway 4). Teachers were concerned that often times students on Pathways 2 and 3 "learn to be helpless", that the average and above average students are held back academically, and there is no time for enrichment activities for the gifted and higher academic students. Moreover, certain borderline students who do not qualify for special services are not getting the help they need. As one junior high teacher commented: We become so consumed with the teachers' responsibility to Pathways students (sic) that others in the class don't get the attention they deserve.

Teachers also expressed concerns with the exorbitant amount of paperwork associated with the documentation process; while time consuming for them in some instances, it was also helpful to them in others. However, in the minds of many of these teachers the policy is having an indirect and negative impact on students. This could be an example of how theory and practice diverge. While the theory behind the Pathways policy is directed at improving learning opportunities for students, teachers claimed that, in reality, the requirement to modify curriculum and document progress has really decreased the contact the teacher can have with the student. As one of the elementary teachers commented: *The student should be our number one priority, but in reality we are so busy covering ourselves on paper that the student comes last.*

There was also concern expressed that due to a lack of sufficient resources at the school, district and department levels that it often takes far too long to carry out assessments and referrals that are required in order to place a student on the Pathways program.

Some teachers indicated that working in a multi-grade classroom involved long hours of adapting resources and planning group strategies and that the number of hours increased with the number of grades for which the teacher was responsible. Multi-level/multi-grade classrooms refer to classes in which two or more grades or courses are combined for institutional purposes. This study did not identify the number of teachers who were responsible for a multi-grade classroom, but a 1999-2000 study by the Department of Education (http://www.gov.nf.ca/edu/facts.htm)

indicated that 24% of the province's teachers had such responsibility. Many of the comments made by respondents to this study focused on the structure of the curriculum and how it was inappropriate for small rural schools. One teacher noted: it (curriculum) is designed for large city schools — how can I possibly cover all of the objectives for the 17 subjects that I am responsible for. Another teacher quoted a section from the Ministerial Panel on Education Delivery in the Classroom claiming that he agrees with the statement, but since the Report was published in 2001 things have not changed for him. The section quoted was:

Given that multi-level and multi-course teaching is inevitable in many schools . . ., the curriculum must be designed to reduce the burden placed on teachers of having to treat a class as if it were several classes, each working separately. Whatever the merits of individualized instruction or within class grouping, the Panel finds it difficult to support a system in which a teacher must prepare multiple content and materials for every class session in a multi-level situation. (p.47)

Class size and composition has a tremendous impact on workload and affects how teachers decide to go about their job. Because modern teaching theories (e.g. constructivist, problem-based learning) encourage teachers to move beyond traditional ways of teaching to incorporating more innovative approaches to teaching and learning (see Figure 12) in their day-to-day work, and because implementing these strategies often requires space for students to move around and interact with each other, there is often a disconnect between the expected teaching methodologies and the reality of what methodologies can realistically be implemented in an overcrowded and physically small classroom. Achieving a balance between class size and composition should prove beneficial for teachers and students.

New Program Implementation

In any given year there are numerous new initiatives that are introduced to schools. Many of these new programs are initiated at the school level through the school development/improvement process but many of the initiatives, particularity those involving new curriculum are mandated by the Department of Education. While some researchers (e.g., Rogers, 1996; Hall and Hord, 2001) feel that the adoption rate for mandated programs is higher than it is for other programs, others like Michael Fullan (2001) insist that "you can't mandate what matters." In the latter case, Fullan argues that while an innovation may be widely adopted, it is also highly likely that it will be poorly implemented.

Figure 12: Innovative approaches towards teaching and learning

Innovative approaches towards teaching and learning advocate for a movement from:

- a teacher-centered classroom to a student-centered classroom;
- a single path of skill acquisition to a multiple path approach;
- a system that relies on single sense stimulation to a system that enables multiple sensory stimulation;
- a single media environment to a multimedia environment;
- isolated work to collaborative work;
- information delivery to information exchange;
- passive listening to an active inquiry-based classroom; and
- isolated artificial content to authentic real world experiences. (Dibbon, 2001)

There is a fairly large body of research to show that in the process of adopting innovations educators tend to modify practices to suit their own needs. That's because implementation is complex and difficult work (e.g., Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001; Leithwood & Seashore Lewis, 1998; Argyris, 1991). Some refer to the practice of modifying practices as good intentions gone astray. For example, Evans (1996) refers to this practice as "false clarity", where people believe they are implementing an innovation but in reality they just maintain the status quo. This is similar to what Fullan (1999) and Argyris (1991) refer to as the gap between "espoused theories" of action and "theories in use", arguing that people consistently act inconsistently, unaware of the contradiction between their espoused theory and their theory in use. Others, for example, Hargreaves, Earl, Moore & Manning (2001) claim that teachers intentionally modify many of the innovations simply because their pedagogical and subject matter knowledge leads them to believe that the new policy/innovation does not make sense for the students in their classroom. Shollenberger-Swain & Swain (1999) support this claim noting that due to the diverse nature of classrooms, schools are one of the least productive environments for top-down management. Large scale change depends on the development of local capacity to manage multiple innovations at one time (Fullan, 1999) and it is difficult to develop this capacity in a critical mass of teachers because of the complexity of the context in which the implementation is occurring (schools and classrooms).

The goal of new and innovative policy is to institutionalize new patterns of practice in schools and classroom so that teachers can be more effective in their teaching and students can learn both more effectively and efficiently. It is difficult for implementation to be done well if teachers don't have adequate time to collaborate and reflect on their work. Lack of time for reflection and collaboration is one of the reasons we get so many poorly implemented innovations in education and it is a concern that needs to be addressed. Over three-quarters of the teachers in this study were dissatisfied with the amount of time available for collaboration with their colleagues (see Appendix 1, Item 25).

The adoption of new initiatives/programs are complicated in that for the most part these innovations, initiatives and interventions are change initiatives that are not typically centered around a single innovation but a bundle of innovations (Hall and Hord, 2001). In other words, several innovations may be masquerading as one. Although a single name may be used to identify the innovation – such as Pathways, First Steps, KinderStart, new curriculum – each of these programs is in fact a bundle of innovations. For example, a change as extensive as the introduction of a new curriculum implies new outcomes, new delivery modes, new forms of assessment, new methodologies, new technologies and other new resources. In any event, as exciting as these changes are, they require the time and attention of teachers who are already working at or near full capacity on other equally important and demanding responsibilities.

In this province, the implementation of new programs and the provision of adequate curriculum resources to support their implementation are huge issues for teachers. In this study, 47% of teachers were teaching at least one course that was new to the curriculum, 25% were teaching two courses new to the curriculum and 10% were teaching three courses new to the curriculum (see Figure 13). Interestingly, over one-third (36%) of teachers teaching one new course expressed dissatisfaction with their assigned course load. For teachers with two new courses it was 44%, and for teachers teaching three new courses just over 52% were dissatisfied with their assigned teaching load. Almost three-quarters of these teachers had no choice as to whether or not they would teach these programs, and as might be expected, 55% of the people with no choice were also dissatisfied with their course load assignment. Of course, choice is often a function of school size, and as school size increased so did the amount of choice.

Preparing to teach new courses is a time-consuming process. Over 60% of teachers teaching at least one new course indicated that they spend over an hour a week in extra preparation time (see Figure 14, page 29). Almost 40% of teachers teaching two new courses indicated that it took them in excess of three extra hours per week to prepare, while 68% of the teachers teaching a third new course devoted an extra three hours per week to preparation activities. In both instances over 30% indicated that the additional course demanded more than 90 minutes per week in extra preparation. Figures 14, 15 and 16 (on page 29) show how much extra time teachers reported having to spend on preparation as the result of teaching courses that were new to the curriculum.

In-service training is critical to the successful implementation of new courses and programs (Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001). However, many of the teachers in this study claimed that the in-service related to new programs was inappropriately timed, inadequate or non-existent. Two-thirds of the teachers in this study had one day or less and 21% of teachers with a new course indicated that they had no in-service at all. For those who did receive in-service,

Figure 13: Relationship between new curriculum, dissatisfaction with teaching assignment and choice

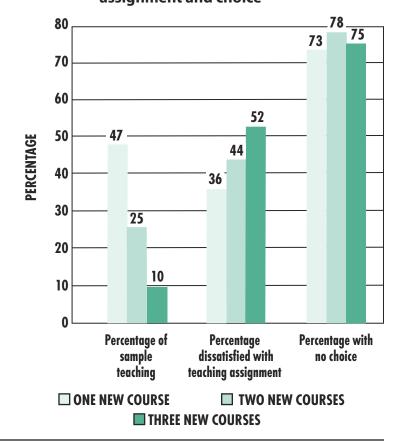


Figure 14: Extra preparation time associated with one new course

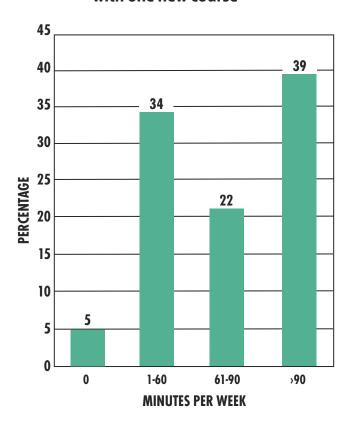


Figure 15: Extra preparation time associated with two new courses

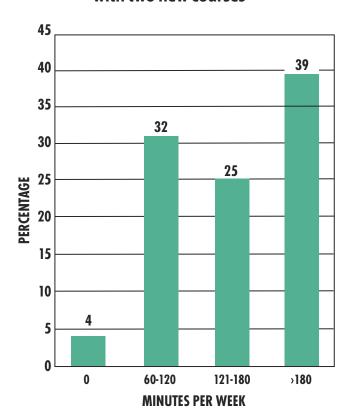
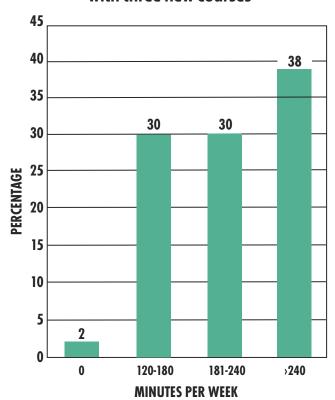


Figure 16: Extra preparation time associated with three new courses



most received it sometime during the final two months of the previous school year or during September of the implementation year. Amazingly, 46% of teachers who were teaching new curriculum did not receive any in-service until after one month into the school year. Even the teachers who did receive in-service were not overly impressed with the quality of the training as almost half (47%) rated the training as less than moderately good. This might be one of the limitations of the "train the trainer" model that the province has adopted for training program specialists. Under this model, the Curriculum Specialists at the Department of Education train the Program Specialists at the district level²³ who then train teachers within the district. This cascade approach combined with little or no follow up after the training (due primarily to a lack of resources), few opportunities for teachers to reflect and collaborate on their work, and teachers with varying backgrounds and degrees of training are some of the reasons why teachers are concerned about new curriculum implementation.

While the province has been aggressively making the transition from a text-book driven, content-based approach towards curriculum to an outcomes-driven, resource-based, approach towards curriculum delivery, this new approach has had a dramatic impact on the teachers who are charged with its implementation. Almost 40% of the teachers teaching new programs indicated that they do not have their own copies of the required teacher resource materials needed to implement the new course effectively. They also indicated that they were stressed to some degree by the amount of time that was required to implement new programs that they were required to implement. For example, many teachers highlighted First Steps and KinderStart as taking an inordinate amount of time. Most agreed that KinderStart was a useful program, but they emphasized that demanding preparations were stressing already overworked Kindergarten teachers.

time preparing curriculum materials to use in the classroom. With the outcomes-based approach they claim they are forced to find much of their own resource material and as a result they spend large amounts of time searching the Internet and either photocopying or waiting to photocopy material. Special education teachers are especially concerned about this trend claiming that they have sole responsibility for providing a curriculum for special needs students. As one of the special education teachers indicated: the development of alternate courses takes a tremendous amount of time in searching for appropriate resources, contacting specialists, organizing/typing the documents, meeting with parents and the ISSP team, and so on.

Teachers also indicated that they were spending much more

The consequences of poor curriculum implementation are not only felt by the teacher. It is obvious that if teachers are teaching courses without the proper in-service training and resources, then students' performance levels are likely to be lower than the program implementation team would have hoped for. The obvious conclusion is that it is difficult to expect students to be achieving at, or above, average levels if teachers lack adequate training and resources. One teacher summed up the views of many when he wrote:

Many students are not getting rich learning experiences because materials/supplies are lacking (e.g., chemicals for science, manipulatives for mathematics, appropriate courses for high school Special Needs students). Also, when teachers are forced to use much of their energy to obtain materials and develop written material and assessment instruments, they often have little left for the delivery phase of teaching. I think teachers are also concerned that some of their course material might be second-rate (and probably not consistent with what is being done in other schools).

Inappropriate assignment/scheduling

Teachers are often faced with teaching unfamiliar topics within their academic discipline; however, in most cases they are able to draw upon their disciplinary knowledge to help them overcome these challenges. For example, the new mathematics curriculum involves many new topics (e.g., the introduction of networks and matrices and data management and probability statistics as content strands at the high school level) that experienced teachers were not familiar with when the new curriculum was introduced. Properly trained mathematics teachers have a better understanding of the pedagogy of mathematics and that knowledge is an asset when they have to overcome a subject matter deficit. In many situations, though, teachers are assigned to teach subjects for which they have little or no academic training (less than a university minor – 8 courses). This can lead to a myriad of problems ranging, for example, from poor academic performance by students, resistance to curriculum change, classroom management problems and high teacher workloads, turnover and attrition. It is the area of teacher workload that is of interest in this study but the other areas are not unrelated.

Exact figures for the province are not available, but almost 12% of the teachers who responded to the question on workload issues indicated a level of frustration associated with having to teach subjects that were outside their academic

²⁸ Due to the fact that Program Specialists do not have a subject matter expertise in all subject areas they often lack the training to do in-service for certain subjects. In these instances the task usually gets assigned to full time teachers. This might (or might not) suffice for the training portion but it is impossible for the Program Specialist to do the necessary follow-up and intervention that many teachers need. Thus policies are often misinterpreted and the implementation process becomes difficult.

training. Almost all of these teachers indicated that it was a serious issue for them and resulted in their teaching workload being unreasonable or unmanageable. Many, but certainly not all of these teachers were new and beginning teachers (30% had less than 10 years experience; 40% were between 10 and 20 years; and the remaining 30% had over 20 years experience). While 30% of the teachers with less than 10 years experience indicated they were dissatisfied with their teaching assignment, just over half of the teachers in this category (n=78) wrote comments that would suggest otherwise. Typical comments were "too much night and week-end work", "not enough time to do all of the assessment and documentation", "overwhelmed!", "too many preparations", "stressed!", "burned out!", and "not much time for family."

In many instances these situations arose because the teacher was trying to deal with too many subjects or attempting to deliver a course outside his/her area of expertise. One teacher, teaching in a small school claimed: *I am teaching 17 different courses! – I can't keep up with it.* Another teacher from a rural community commented:

I had sole responsibility for all Kindergarten students in the school. I taught both classes of Grade 6 in science and social studies, and I taught Grade 3 health. I was also solely responsible for the delivery of KinderStart to 35 three and four year olds. This meant I was dealing with 185 children and their parents, responsible for reporting to 150 of them, and dealing with issues that arose daily. Too damn much!!!

In an era where it is difficult to attract qualified teachers to rural and remote areas of the province (Dibbon and Sheppard, 2001) it is unfortunate that many of the younger early career teachers are expressing these frustrations. This has to be a concern for retaining current teachers and attracting new teachers to the profession, although with the exception of specialty areas (e.g., French, physics and mathematics) attracting new teachers hasn't been a problem to date (Dibbon and Sheppard, 2001). Also, Faculty of Education Admissions Committee Reports (1991-2003) indicate that the Faculty is still rejecting applications from some applicants who meet the entrance requirements.

For students, the consequences of teachers teaching outside their areas of expertise are quite serious. Many teachers expressed concern about teaching outside their subject area but they also recognized that it was one of the limitations associated with working in many Newfoundland and Labrador schools. One teacher recognized the inherent danger in out-of-field teaching when he wrote:

When a teacher is teaching outside her/his expertise, the students may be ill-prepared in that subject and also students are disadvantaged by the fact that the teacher has to invest so much of his time preparing a course that he is not familiar with that often times the other courses suffer – and in the end it is the student who pays the price.

There are also workload problems when teachers are assigned to more than one job (e.g., science teacher/librarian, technology teacher/network manager, music teacher/language teacher). In such situations, many teachers feel pressure to give 100% to each portion of their job. Similarly, teachers in half-time or quarter-time positions are inclined to work beyond the strict requirements of the job description, putting in additional hours. As one of the younger teachers claimed: *I am working full time for half-time pay – I don't mind it for now because I hope it means I will get a full time job next year.*

The very nature of teaching suggests that teachers need to possess subject area expertise (particularly at the intermediate/ secondary level) if they are going to meet the needs of their students. Without a reasonable knowledge base in the subject(s) that a teacher is assigned to teach, it is only reasonable to expect an increased workload. In the best of all possible worlds, teachers would only teach courses for which they have certified training. However, given the fact that there are many small schools, with multi-level classrooms, who experience difficulty attracting highly qualified teachers, it appears that out-of-field teaching is a reality that we will be forced to live with for many years to come. How we choose to deal with this situation will have implications for levels of student achievement and teacher workload.

Chapter 4

Conclusion and Recommendations

Studying teacher workload issues has become somewhat of a trend in recent years with studies having already been completed in most other Canadian provinces. The consistency in teacher workload across the country is remarkable (see Appendix 2), and many of the findings in this study are supported by research in other jurisdictions. However, this discussion of the findings will deal primarily with the issues in Newfoundland and Labrador.

First, in Newfoundland and Labrador the average teacher invests 52.32²⁴ hours per week to school related activities – that is the equivalent of seven (7), 7.5 hour days for 39 weeks of the year. If we compare the total hours of work per year for the average teacher (2,042 hrs.) to the number used by Treasury Board to calculate annual salaries for public sector workers (1,820 hrs.) then it becomes obvious that the average teacher works the equivalent of fifty-two (52), 39.5 hour weeks as compared to the public service where all employees work a standard 35 hours per week, based on a 52 week year.

Using the 35 hour work week as a benchmark, the average teacher has 7.5 hours per week for planning and preparation, evaluating student work, reporting and communicating with parents, attending required meetings and supervising students. Given the nature of the job of teaching and the turbulence associated with today's schools, it is impossible to imagine any teacher being able to accomplish these tasks in the allocated time. In fact, most teachers do most of these activities on their own time. In school, most of the time not spent teaching is needed for copying curriculum materials, tests and handouts, filling out forms, doing attendance checks, checking with counselors on students, returning parent phone calls, organizing field trips and extra-curricular activities and in some instances, filling in for other teachers. This results in invisible work for teachers – the work done outside the school day. For most teachers the time associated with

this invisible work is significant and as a result, school work tends to "bleed" into the personal lives of teachers. Lawyers are another group of professionals who have to deal with the issue of invisible work, as many of their work tasks, (e.g., research and preparation) are done outside the courtroom. For lawyers though, the invisible time is measured in billable hours – teachers are not that fortunate.

The degree of consistency between the findings of this study and similar studies conducted in other jurisdictions is sufficient evidence to conclude that the invisible work of teachers is a very real phenomena and that teachers are over worked, stressed and frustrated with various facets of their jobs. There needs to be some public recognition that teachers work well beyond the mythical five-hour day and contribute much of their personal time to their professional life.

Second, given the research evidence (e.g., Hargreaves, 1992) that increasing preparation time to a mandatory 180 minutes per week has been shown to have a positive impact on the quality of a teacher's worklife, and the fact that for teachers in this study there was a very strong correlation between the amount of preparation time and satisfaction with their job, and that teachers in Newfoundland and Labrador have less assigned preparation time than teachers in the other Atlantic Provinces, there is a strong argument for providing all teachers in the province with a minimum of 180 minutes of preparation time per week.

Third, accountability to parents and administrators has increased the sense of pressure for many teachers, particularly for teachers in junior high schools and larger schools. This accountability has brought with it an increase in the amount of time spent documenting the past, preparing for the future and reporting to parents. Three or four times per year teachers are required to provide indepth reports to parents and other authorities and they are

²⁴ This includes an adjustment of 5.65 hours per week for voluntary activities such as participation in extra-curriculars, fund raising and professional development that are critical to the functioning of all schools in this province. The 5.65 hours was the amount of time that PEI teachers spent on such activities and it is reasonable to assume that it is similar for teachers in this province.

required to do this outside the regular school day. There was significant evidence that some teachers find these periods very intense and stressful and they have a negative impact on how they are able to cope with the demands of their job. Therefore, it is important that schools be provided with discretionary leave days to be used during the school year and have flexibility to utilize these days during the reporting periods. For example, perhaps using administrative days as reporting days makes more sense in some schools than at the beginning and end of the year. Also, it can be argued that spending a day meeting with parents about learning plans for individual students is a wise use of professional development and school improvement time and provision should be made for schools to use that time as they need it.

Fourth, given the turbulent nature of schools today where there are tremendous demands placed on teachers, ranging from the implementation of new curricula to managing a plethora of social issues, the expectation for teachers to do mandatory supervision is no longer reasonable – in fact it is an extremely poor use of professional time. The fact that teachers report altering their practice on days when they have assigned supervision duty (probably about 20% of the school year) is evidence enough to show that this activity should be assigned to others (e.g., para professionals) or made a voluntary activity for which teachers are compensated (e.g., increase in assigned preparation time).

Fifth, class size and class composition are closely linked and directly related to teacher workload and have a tremendous impact on how teachers go about performing their job. For many teachers workload issues become much more acute when class sizes are too large, when there are an inordinate number of students in their classes who are on Pathways 2, 3, or 4 and when they are teaching in multi-level classrooms.

The topic of class size is a workload issue that is receiving a great deal of attention from policy makers, researchers and teachers, particularly those teaching in larger urban schools. Based on research evidence that class size reductions (<20 students) are effective in both reducing teachers' workload and increasing student achievement (particularly at the primary levels), this is a sensible strategy for improving the education system for both teachers and students.

Class composition is another factor that needs to be taken into consideration when students are being assigned to classes. Over half of the province's teachers are

concerned that the number of students in their classes on Pathways 2, 3, or 4 makes their workload unreasonable or unmanageable, claiming that the extra work associated with ISSPs and the related documentation process needs to be reduced, or the number of students that teachers are responsible for needs to be capped. Given the concerns over the implementation of the Pathways framework, placing a limit on the number of students on Pathways 2, 3, or 4 in the classroom seems likely to improve teacher workload conditions and increase learning opportunities for students.

Given the number of multi-level and multi-grade classrooms that exist in the province, the best suggestion for improving the working conditions for these teachers seems to be to follow the advice of the Ministerial Panel on Educational Delivery in the Classroom. In discussing program considerations the Panel agreed that in multi-level classrooms the curriculum needs to be redesigned so that teachers do not have to prepare multiple content and materials for every class session in a multi-level situation.

Sixth, the implementation of new programs and the provision of appropriate resources are huge issues for teachers in this province. While there has been a great deal of effort invested in the development and initiation of new programs, that same commitment has not been made to the implementation of these programs. The result of this has been an increase in the workload of teachers who are doing the implementation work. Research has shown over and over (e.g., Fullan, 1996 & 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001; Evans, 1996) that training is a critical part of new program implementation. The training must not only precede the implementation, it must accompany it through the early, and into the middle of the implementation process – when it doesn't the result is not likely to be the one intended by the implementation team. Also, much of the change that is expected in implementing new curriculum challenges teachers' beliefs and assumptions about how they teach.²⁶ As a result, training must include continuing opportunities for teachers to consider, discuss, argue about and work through changes in their assumptions. Without this opportunity, the technical training that they are exposed to during in-service training is unlikely to make a deep, lasting impression on their practice. Trainers may preach the necessity of rethinking students' needs and redefining best practice, but unless teachers get the opportunity to explore these issues in an extensive, meaningful, interactive way, the implementation process can be a frustrating, lonely experience where teachers begin to resent the added burden.

²⁵ In their *Blueprint for Change*, the governing Progressive Conservative Party pledged to re-assign redundant teaching units to cap class size in the primary grades at 25 students, to be phased in by grade level over three years starting with Kindergarten. The cap will be extended to elementary classes beginning with grade four in 2008.

The focus of the APEF curriculum is as much about new teaching methodologies as it is about new content.

The time, support and resources to guide the implementation process are not cheap but they are essential for successful implementation. What is required at this time is a policy shift to eliminate the development-implementation imbalance. This policy shift needs to provide support and resources for the proper implementation and diffusion of new curriculum. Only in schools do we consistently seek major reform on a shoestring budget, clinging to a futile formula for fast, cheap change: plan in the summer, implement in the fall, spend very little, measure good results by spring (Evans, 1996, p. 139). The ideology that leads to this type of thinking places an unnecessary burden on teachers, increasing both their frustration levels and workload, and must be changed if we expect teachers to effectively implement new curriculum.

Seventh, an American report by the Education Trust (1996) indicated that students fare better when teachers are more proficient with their subject matter, particularly at the middle and high school levels. The data are especially clear in mathematics and science where teachers with majors in the fields they teach routinely get "higher student performance" than teachers without majors. (Ringstaff and Sandholtz, 2002, p. 814). The full extent of out-of-field teaching was not identified in this study, however, it did emerge as a workload concern for many teachers who were working with such an assignment.

Given the structure of our local school system with its many small and dispersed schools, multiple grade configurations (there are 28 different types of schools based on grade configurations), multi-level classes, etc. it is unlikely that there is a quick fix for out-of-field teaching. It is not as simple as changing certification regulations to restrict what teachers can and cannot teach – there are already severe shortages in many subject areas, particularly in small rural and remote communities and such policy would just compound the problem. Nor can the problem be solved solely by altering the degree requirements for teachers; however, teacher training institutions do have a role to play in preparing teachers for the realities of small rural schools.

Out-of-field teaching is a characteristic of our school system that we need to know more about. We need more data on the extent to which it occurs and on the consequences (for teachers and students) and we need to know what takes place in the classrooms of teachers where there is not a good fit between their qualifications and training and their teaching assignment. By taking a close look at out-of-field teaching we should be able to determine how to better assist teachers so that their workload becomes more manageable and student performance improves. My own knowledge of the Newfoundland and Labrador school system as a teacher, administrator and researcher, leads me to believe that out-of-field teaching is typical for many teachers in many schools.

Eighth, there is sufficient evidence to show that teachers' work has intensified over recent years. Teachers noted that the hectic pace of the school day, and for that matter, the school year leaves little time for relaxation and reflection on their practice. This at a time when research (e.g., Brubacher, 1994; Evans, 1996; Fullan, 1991) indicates that teachers need time to reflect on their current teaching methodologies; that for teachers to increase the learning of their students and to grow professionally they must be afforded adequate opportunity during the regular school day for reflection, personal planning and collaboration with colleagues. This vitally important time must be provided for in addition to structured, on-going professional development opportunities. The teachers in this study also reported a feeling of chronic and persistent overload, as well as a reduction in the quality of the services they were able to provide to students.

Finally, the job of teaching needs to be redesigned so that teachers can do an excellent job working a reasonable number of hours per week. By changing teacher workloads and the way that schools are organized and managed, teachers should have more time for encouraging excellence and personal growth.

Many possible solutions to the workload problem have been proposed. However, given the diverse nature of teachers' work, no single solution will provide a panacea for all teachers. Reductions in class size will work better for some: increased preparation time will be more beneficial to others. Still others will benefit most from increased professional development and training while for others it will be the elimination of mandatory supervision. The issues associated with teacher workload are real and serious, much too serious to be dealt with exclusively as a collective bargaining issue. Because a one size fits all solution is unlikely to be found, all of the partners/ stakeholders (NLTA, Newfoundland and Labrador Association of Directors of Education (NLADE), Newfoundland and Labrador School Boards Association (NLSBA) and the Department of Education) must work together to find appropriate ways to implement solutions that are sensible, meaningful to teachers, and timely. It is common knowledge that we are living in times of fiscal restraint, but the fact that we cannot change everything does not mean that we can or should do nothing.

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Appendix 1

Results of the Teacher Job Satisfaction Survey Teachers were asked if they agreed with the following statements:

ITEN	NUMBER OVERALL AND FACET JOB SATISFACTION	% AGREEING	% DISAGREEING
1.	Overall, I am satisfied with my job as a teacher. (n=676)	89	11
2.	Overall, I am satisfied with my teaching assignment. (n=677)	88	12
3.	Overall, I am satisfied with my assigned teaching load. (n=676)	63	37
4.	Overall, I am satisfied with my workload. (n=673)	43	57
5.	If I had the opportunity to start my career over again, I would still choose to be a teacher. (n=671)	63	37
6.	I would recommend teaching as a career for young people. (n=673)	53	47
7.	Overall, I am satisfied with the quality of my work life. (n=673)	65	35
8.	I am satisfied that the school day (e.g., opening and closing times) is structured as effectively as possible. (n=677)	79	21
9.	I am satisfied that my class size for this current year is reasonable. (n=655)	71	29
10.	I am satisfied that the amount of time I spend on assigned supervision duty each week is reasonable. (n=669)	55	45
11.	I am satisfied that the amount of time that I spend each week on the preparation of classes is reasonable. (n=670)	45	55
12.	I am satisfied that the amount of time that I spend each week marking student work is reasonable. (n=641)	54	46
13.	I am satisfied that the amount of time that I spend developing mid-year and final exams is reasonable. (n=415)	69	31
14.	I am satisfied that the amount of time I spend preparing, writing and reporting with parents is reasonable. (n=671)	55	45
15.	I am satisfied that the number of students with ISSP's that I work with each week is manageable. (n=602)	48	52
16.	I am satisfied that the curriculum resources that I have available to teach my courses are adequate. (n=672)	43	57
17.	I am satisfied with my ability to maintain a balance between my work and my personal life. (n=677)	48	52
18.	I am satisfied that the amount of time I spend on school related extracurricular activities is reasonable. (n=654)	75	25
19.	I am satisfied that the access I have to computer technology is adequate for me to do my job. (n=674)	58	42
20.	I am satisfied with the quality of PD that is offered in this school. (n=675)	63	37
21.	I am satisfied that I am knowledgeable about the ISSP process. (n=660)	68	32
22.	I am satisfied that my school administrators are working to make my workload as reasonable as possible. (n=674)	76	24
23.	I am satisfied with the way the school year is structured (e.g. Sept. – June). (n=680)	83	17
24.	I am satisfied with the amount of PD that is available in this school. (n=674)	49	51
25.	I am satisfied with the amount of time that I have to collaborate and plan curriculum with my colleagues. (n=666)	24	76

Appendix 2

Teachers Weekly Hours of Work by Province

PROVINCE	YEAR	AVERAGE TEACHER WORK WEEK	
Newfoundland	2004	52.32 hours	
Nova Scotia	2000	52.5 hours	
Prince Edward Island	2002	48-52 hours	
New Brunswick	2000	51.0 hours	
Saskatchewan	1995	47.0 hours	
Alberta	1999	52.9 hours	
British Columbia	2001	53.1 hours	