



TALIS 2024

Australian Report

The Teaching and Learning International Survey

Tim Friedman, John Ainley, Wolfram Schulz and Katherine Dix





TALIS 2024

Australian Report

The Teaching and Learning International Survey

TALIS 2024. Australian Report.

Tim Friedman, John Ainley, Wolfram Schulz & Katherine Dix

ISBN: 978-1-74286-801-1

This publication has been produced by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) under contract with the Australian Government Department of Education. Funding was provided jointly by the Australian Government and all Australian state and territory governments.

© Commonwealth of Australia 2025.



With the exception of the Commonwealth Coat of Arms, the department's logo, the artwork, any material protected by a trademark and where otherwise noted, all material presented in this document is provided under a Creative Commons Attribution International 4.0 (CC BY 4.0) licence. The details of the relevant licence conditions are available on the [Creative Commons website](#).

Copyright requests and enquiries concerning further authorisation should be addressed to: The Copyright Officer, Department of Education, GPO Box 9880 Canberra ACT 2601 or emailed to: copyright@education.gov.au.

Recommended attribution

TALIS 2024. Australian Report by Tim Friedman, John Ainley, Wolfram Schulz and Katherine Dix (Australian Council for Educational Research) under contract with the Commonwealth of Australia as represented by the Department of Education. <https://www.acer.org/au/talis>

Recommended citation

Friedman, T., Ainley, J., Schulz, W., & Dix, K. (2025). *TALIS 2024. Australian Report*. Australian Council for Educational Research. <https://doi.org/10.37517/978-1-74286-801-1>

Front Cover

'Sharing Knowledge' by Davinder Hart

Sharing knowledge is very important especially in Aboriginal culture. We have stories that teach us about our surroundings, our environment and how to care for them. These stories are essential for the survival of Mother Earth and sharing knowledge through story telling can allow us to continue to live in a sustainable way.

This design consists of circles which represent the different mobs coming together and sharing with each other. It tells of the importance of sharing knowledge ingrained in the lessons passed on to Davinder by his elders.

Davinder Hart is a First Nations artist from the southwest region of the Noongar people Western Australia. He grew-up in Adelaide before reconnecting with culture in New South Wales and now lives in far-north Queensland. With knowledge passed down from his uncles and aunties he's able to tell stories through his paintings. His paintings reveal the traditional lessons that show the morals, ethics and values as well as his own personal lessons along his cultural journey.

ACER is proud to support First Nations artists, particularly when their stories resonate so strongly with ACER's own mission and in the work we do, like TALIS, which brings the knowledge shared by teachers and principals across the globe together.

Contents

Executive Summary	xiii
Reader's Guide	xx
Overview of TALIS 2024	xxiii
1 Teaching for today's world	1
1.1 Introduction	3
1.2 Teacher profiles	4
1.3 Teacher shortages	10
1.4 Teacher self-efficacy	13
1.5 Teaching diverse learners	14
1.6 Teaching practices	20
1.7 Technology and teaching	22
2 Thriving in teaching	28
2.1 Introduction	30
2.2 Teachers' professional outcomes	30
2.3 Variation in teachers' stress by teacher school characteristics	37
2.4 Teachers' personal resources and their professional outcomes	38
2.5 Demands on teachers and their professional outcomes	40
3 The demands of teaching	45
3.1 Introduction	47
3.2 Workload	47
3.3 Classroom discipline	55
3.4 Adapting teaching to diverse learning needs	60
3.5 Teacher accountability	63
3.6 Implementing educational change	65

4	Developing teacher expertise	67
4.1	Introduction	69
4.2	Initial teacher education	69
4.3	Induction and mentoring	73
4.4	Continuous professional learning.....	75
4.5	How learning opportunities impact teachers and teaching	84
5	Teacher leadership and autonomy	87
5.1	Introduction	89
5.2	Teacher leadership	90
5.3	Teachers’ decision-making authority and professional outcomes.....	98
6	Professional relationships in school communities	102
6.1	Introduction	104
6.2	Professional relationships with other teachers	104
6.3	Teacher–student relations.....	111
6.4	Professional relationships with parents and guardians	113
7	Sustaining the teaching profession	118
7.1	Introduction	120
7.2	Teachers’ career intentions	120
7.3	Teachers’ intrinsic motivations.....	123
7.4	Status of the teaching profession	126
7.5	Teachers’ terms of employment.....	130
	References	135
	Appendix	140

List of Figures

Figure 1.1	Proportion of female teachers	4
Figure 1.2	Change in the average age of teachers, from 2018 to 2024	5
Figure 1.3	Change in previous non-teaching work experience, from 2018 to 2024	8
Figure 1.4	Second-career teachers	9
Figure 1.5	Perception of shortage of qualified teachers	10
Figure 1.6	Teachers' self-efficacy	13
Figure 1.7	School composition	15
Figure 1.8	Change in schools' intake of students with special education needs, from 2018 to 2024	18
Figure 1.9	Teachers' self-efficacy in inclusive practices for special education needs	19
Figure 1.10	Teaching practices	20
Figure 1.11	Change in frequency of teachers calming students who are disruptive	21
Figure 1.12	Teachers' views of the benefits and challenges of students using digital resources and tools	22
Figure 1.13	Teachers' use of artificial intelligence	23
Figure 1.14	Teachers' views of the benefits and challenges regarding AI use in education	26
Figure 2.1	Teachers' fulfilment of their lesson aims	30
Figure 2.2	Change in teachers' stress, from 2018 to 2024	31
Figure 2.3	Teachers' stress, by proportionate school intake of socio-economically disadvantaged students	37
Figure 2.4	Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy	38
Figure 3.1	School safety	56
Figure 3.2	Maintaining classroom discipline as a source of stress, by teacher experience	59
Figure 3.3	Class composition	60
Figure 3.4	Class intake of students with difficulties understanding the language of instruction, by teacher age	62
Figure 3.5	Methods for providing formal teacher appraisal	63
Figure 3.6	Teachers' change fatigue, by years of teaching experience	66
Figure 4.1	Teachers' preparedness for teaching	72
Figure 4.2	Content of professional learning activities for teachers	77
Figure 4.3	Teachers who find professional learning impactful	80
Figure 4.4	Barriers to teacher participation in professional learning	83
Figure 5.1	Teachers' involvement in school decision-making on curriculum and instruction	90

Figure 5.2	Views of opportunities for teacher leadership	92
Figure 5.3	Representation of teachers on the school management team	93
Figure 5.4	Teacher leadership in promoting professional learning communities, by self-efficacy	94
Figure 5.5	Change in teacher perceptions of their capacity to influence education policy, from 2018 to 2024	95
Figure 5.6	Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and participation in school decisions	98
Figure 5.7	Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and instructional autonomy	101
Figure 6.1	Teacher collaborative practices	104
Figure 6.2	Change in teacher collaboration, from 2018 to 2024	106
Figure 6.3	Change in team teaching, from 2018 to 2024	107
Figure 6.4	Teachers who engage in discussions about specific students' learning development, by self-efficacy	108
Figure 6.5	Teachers' views of their principals	110
Figure 6.6	Relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their views of relationships with school stakeholders	112
Figure 6.7	Teachers' time spent on communicating with parents and guardians	115
Figure 7.1	Career intentions among teachers aged under 30	120
Figure 7.2	Motivations to teach	124
Figure 7.3	Change in teachers' perceptions of the value of the teaching profession and teachers by policymakers, from 2018 to 2024	126
Figure 7.4	Change in teachers' perceptions of the value of the teaching profession by society, from 2018 to 2024	127
Figure 7.5	Teacher employment by permanent employment and fixed-term contracts	130
Figure 7.6	Teachers working part-time	131
Figure 7.7	Change in teachers' satisfaction with employment terms (excluding salaries), from 2018 to 2024	132

List of Tables

Table 0.1	TALIS 2024 participating countries and economies: 55 ISCED 2 (with 14 ISCED 1 countries in bold)	xxv
Table 0.2	Participation rates and sample sizes for Australian schools in TALIS 2024	xxvii
Table 1.1	Highest education level of teachers	6
Table 1.2	Teachers' teaching experience	7
Table 1.3	Change in shortage of personnel, from 2018 to 2024	12
Table 1.4	Teachers' self-efficacy in multicultural environments	17
Table 1.5	Teachers' practices regarding AI	25
Table 1.6	Barriers to using AI in teaching	27
Table 2.1	Teachers' stress according to teacher characteristics	32
Table 2.2	Teachers' wellbeing according to the WHO-5 index by teacher characteristics	34
Table 2.3	Change in teachers' satisfaction with the teaching profession, from 2018 to 2024	36
Table 2.4	Teachers' beliefs about growth mindset	39
Table 2.5	Relationship between the demands of teaching and teachers' fulfilment of their lesson aims, teachers' wellbeing, and teachers' job satisfaction	42
Table 2.6	Relationship between teachers' wellbeing and task intensity	44
Table 3.1	Change in teachers' weekly working hours, from 2018 to 2024	48
Table 3.2	Change in distribution of teachers' time across activities, from 2018 to 2024	50
Table 3.3	Teachers' sources of stress	52
Table 3.4	Teachers' sources of stress, by years of teaching experience	54
Table 3.5	Classroom discipline issues	55
Table 3.6	Teachers' perceptions of classroom discipline issues, by self-efficacy in classroom management	57
Table 3.7	Classroom composition characteristics, by teachers' age categories	62
Table 3.8	Teacher appraisals conducted at least once per year, by source	64
Table 4.1	Teachers' types of first teaching qualifications	70
Table 4.2	Teachers' ratings of quality of first teaching qualification, by year of completion	71
Table 4.3	Change in participation in induction activities for teachers recently arrived at their school, from 2018 to 2024	74
Table 4.4	Change in pairing with instructional mentors for early career teachers, from 2018 to 2024	75
Table 4.5	Change in the content of professional learning activities for teachers, from 2018 to 2024	79

Table 4.6	Change in professional learning needs of teachers, from 2018 to 2024	82
Table 4.7	Regression analyses of relationship between teacher job satisfaction and mentoring	85
Table 5.1	Teachers' autonomy in planning and teaching	96
Table 5.2	Teacher self-efficacy in areas of classroom management and instruction	97
Table 5.3	Relationship between teachers adapting their teaching to students' needs and instructional autonomy	100
Table 6.1	Change in teacher collegiality, from 2018 to 2024	109
Table 6.2	Teacher–student relations	111
Table 6.3	Teachers' collaboration with parents and guardians, by teacher characteristics	114
Table 6.4	Teachers' views on whether they are valued by parents and guardians in the school, by school characteristics	117
Table 7.1	Relationship between teachers' career intentions and sources of stress	122
Table 7.2	Relationship between teachers' career intentions and enjoyment of teaching	125
Table 7.3	Teaching as a first career choice, by gender, age, and teaching experience	129
Table 7.4	Change in teachers' salary satisfaction, from 2018 to 2024	133
Table 7.5	Teachers' satisfaction with their salaries, by school characteristics	134



Abbreviations

ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
AI	Artificial intelligence
ICT	information and communication technology
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
NAC	TALIS 2024 National Advisory Committee
Lower sec.	lower secondary level
NGO	non-government organisation
NPM	National Project Manager
NDM	National Data Manager
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
S.D.	Standard deviation
S.E.	Standard error
SEIFA	Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas
SEL	social and emotional learning
SES	socio-economic status
TALIS	Teaching and Learning International Survey
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WHO	World Health Organization



Acknowledgements

In the spirit of reconciliation, ACER acknowledges the Traditional Custodians of Country throughout Australia and their connections to land, sea, and community. We pay our respect to their elders past and present and extend that respect to all First Nations peoples today. ACER acknowledges the First Nations peoples who continue to contribute to our work to improve learning, education, and research.

A national educator workforce survey such as TALIS could not be successful without the co-operation of school systems, principals, and teachers. The ACER team greatly appreciated the co-operation from TALIS school coordinators, as well as the principals and teachers who so generously gave their time and support to the project. We are deeply grateful to all these communities—without their efforts, Australia’s successful participation in this fourth cycle of TALIS would not have been possible.

Australia’s participation in TALIS 2024 was jointly funded by the Australian Government and all state and territory governments. In Australia, TALIS is managed by a team from the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) and guided by the TALIS 2024 National Advisory Committee (NAC). We thank the members of the NAC for their commitment throughout TALIS 2024, and their valuable insights and support in engaging schools. We extend our gratitude to the NAC Secretariat in the Australian Government Department of Education for their support, including Anthony Flint, Oliver Berry, Catharina Moltke and Molly Decini.

We express our thanks to the TALIS National Data Manager Toby Carslake, and to Anna Plotka and Tamara Van Der Zant for their valuable assistance in preparing this report.



Executive Summary

Introduction

The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) is the largest international survey of teachers and school leaders, designed to provide internationally comparable data on the working lives, learning environments, and professional practices of educators. Four cycles of TALIS have been conducted since 2008. TALIS gives teachers and principals a platform to share their experiences and perspectives, contributing to a global understanding of the teaching profession. The data inform policy discussions by highlighting both common challenges and unique contexts across countries.

The 2024 TALIS cycle involved 55 countries and economies, expanding on earlier cycles in 2008, 2013, and 2018. While the main focus of TALIS remains on lower secondary education (ISCED 2; Years 7–10 in Australia), countries were able to survey additional education levels. In 2024, Australia participated in both lower secondary (ISCED 2) and primary (ISCED 1) levels of TALIS, providing an opportunity to compare results across these stages of schooling.

Australia's national sample included 204 lower secondary schools and 208 primary schools, with 20 teachers randomly selected within each school. Participation rates for both teachers and principals met the OECD's technical standards, ensuring that Australia's data are included in the international database and in this report.

Australia has participated in all four TALIS cycles in ISCED 2, making it possible to track trends over time as well as to compare results with international benchmarks. In addition to comparisons with the OECD average for lower secondary level, this report pays particular attention to a group of high-performing education systems—Estonia, Japan, Korea, Shanghai (China), and Singapore—identified for their significantly higher average achievement scores than Australia in the 2022 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

Teaching for today's world

There has been no real change in the gender distribution and average age of either lower secondary or primary teachers since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. Australian lower secondary teachers were closer to gender parity and younger in age in comparison to the average among OECD countries for either metric.

The most common highest level of education for Australian teachers was a Bachelor's degree. Lower secondary teachers from across OECD countries (and in high-performing PISA 2022 countries) were, on average, more likely to have higher degrees (Master's or PhD) than Australian teachers. Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers had an average of 15 years of experience in teaching. Compared to other TALIS countries, Australia had a high proportion of lower secondary teachers who had previous work experience (6–20 years) in non-education roles.

Over two in five Australian lower secondary teachers (42%) and over one-third of Australian primary teachers (36%) attended schools where the principals believed that a shortage of teachers hindered quality instruction. The lower secondary teachers' result was considerably higher than the OECD average. There was an increase in this perception since the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018.

Australian teachers expressed high self-efficacy beliefs for a range of different classroom management, instruction, and student engagement practices. Australian schools and classrooms were more diverse than the average across OECD and TALIS countries with respect to students with special needs, refugees, immigrants, students from a disadvantaged background, and students with a language background other than the language of instruction. Australia reported large increases in the proportion of students with special education needs since the previous cycle of TALIS, mirroring international trends. Teachers expressed mixed levels of confidence in their ability to implement different inclusive practices for these students.

Australian teachers were positive about the benefits of students' use of digital resources and tools but cautioned there were challenges such as negative impacts on student wellbeing and students potentially using internet content as their own work.

Approximately two-thirds of Australian lower secondary teachers reported using AI in their work in the previous year, placing Australia among the TALIS countries with the highest reported levels of teachers' AI use. Among Australian primary teachers, just under half used AI within the same period. Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to use AI to generate lesson plans, automatically adjust the difficulty of lesson materials according to students' learning needs, or generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications in comparison to teachers from other OECD countries. They were less likely to use AI to help students practise new skills in real-life scenarios, support students with special education needs, assess or mark student work, or review data on student participation.

Australian teachers reported mixed views about the benefits and challenges of using AI in education. While many teachers believed that it would help them write or improve lesson plans and allow them to adapt learning material to different students' abilities, there were also widespread concerns that AI could make recommendations that may not be appropriate or correct and that this technology could enable students to misrepresent work as their own. The most frequently reported barriers to using AI for lower secondary teachers were a lack of knowledge and skills to teach using AI, not believing that AI should be used in teaching, and feeling overwhelmed by integrating new technologies into their teaching. They were less likely to attribute their lack of AI use to school factors such as their school lacking the infrastructure to use AI (25%) or that their school does not allow the use of AI in teaching.

Thriving in teaching

Most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported that they had often fulfilled their aims for their lessons. For example, most teachers reported that they were able to present content in a comprehensible way, engage students in work that challenged them, and offer students opportunities to practise what they learned.

Australian teachers reported quite high stress levels compared to the OECD on average. Over one-third of both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers indicated that they were experiencing a lot of stress. At both education levels, teachers in 2024 reported significantly higher stress levels compared to 2018. Approximately one in seven Australian teachers reported that their job had a substantial negative impact on their mental health, while one in ten reported a similar effect on their physical health.

In Australia, female lower secondary teachers expressed higher levels of stress than male teachers. At both education levels younger teachers (aged under 30 years) indicated having higher stress levels than older teachers (aged over 50 years). Just under half of Australian teachers at both lower secondary and primary levels had poor levels of wellbeing according to an index developed by the World Health Organization (WHO-5). Female teachers and younger teachers at lower secondary level reported lower levels of wellbeing.

Australian teachers at both education levels expressed high levels of job satisfaction, even though there was a significant drop in satisfaction since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. The level of satisfaction at lower secondary level was similar to the average of teachers from OECD countries. Australian lower secondary teachers had higher levels of 'growth mindset' than what was reported on average across OECD countries. Lower secondary teachers were more likely to experience higher levels of stress if they worked at schools with a higher intake of socio-economically disadvantaged students. There was also a strong relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

There were strong relationships between increased demands of teaching and lower levels of wellbeing, lower job satisfaction, and some aspects of teachers' fulfilment of their lesson aims among both lower secondary and primary teachers. The intensity of some tasks such as marking/correcting of student work and general administrative work contributed to lower levels of teacher wellbeing.

The demands of teaching

Administrative workload remains a burden for Australian teachers and those in other OECD countries. Two-thirds of Australian lower secondary teachers, and just under two-thirds of Australian primary teachers, reported having too much administrative work as the most frequent source of work-related stress. In comparison, half of lower secondary teachers across OECD countries reported administrative work as a source of stress. Time spent on administrative work for Australian lower secondary teachers did not change between 2018 and 2024 but increased for Australian primary teachers. The OECD average for lower secondary teachers increased by a small amount over the same period.

Maintaining classroom discipline was a source of stress for two-fifths of Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers. This was similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. Maintaining classroom discipline was more frequently cited as a source of stress for early career teachers than experienced teachers.

Australian lower secondary school principals reported higher levels of bullying in their schools than the OECD average and that of Australian primary teachers. More than one-third (37%) of Australian lower secondary teachers worked in schools where reports of student bullying or intimidation on school grounds was a regular issue (considerably higher than the rates of Australian primary teachers and the OECD average). Nearly half (44%) of these teachers also worked in schools with higher proportions of reported online bullying or intimidation, and around one in five (18%) worked in schools with regular intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff on school grounds (also both at considerably higher rates than of Australian primary teachers and the OECD average).

Australian lower secondary teachers reported more frequently that their classrooms reflected ethnic and linguistic diversity than the OECD average. Teachers also reported a greater frequency of classrooms where more than 10 per cent of students belonged to ethnic/national minorities (including Indigenous students), and where more than 30 per cent of students were immigrants or had a migrant background. Younger teachers were more likely to teach these classes.

Australian lower secondary teachers reported that formal appraisal processes more frequently involved the principal, assigned mentors, and external bodies than the OECD average. These processes less frequently involved teachers outside the school management team. Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported that there were too many change initiatives at their school, and that they would like to have a period of stability.

Developing teacher expertise

Three-quarters of Australian secondary teachers and two-thirds of Australian primary teachers reported that the quality of their initial teacher education was quite high. While lower secondary teachers tended to be more likely to report that this education prepared them well on subject content, subject-specific and general pedagogy, and classroom practice in the subjects they teach, they still felt less prepared than their counterparts from OECD countries, and primary teachers felt even less prepared. Smaller proportions of teachers felt prepared to teach in a multicultural or multilingual setting, to support students' social and emotional development, and to use digital resources in teaching, than felt well prepared for other aspects of teaching.

In both Australia and on average across the OECD, the share of recent graduates reporting a high sense of preparedness for classroom practice in their teaching subject declined since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. Approximately one-third of Australian early career teachers participated in a mentoring program with an assigned mentor. This represented an increase since 2018, especially among primary teachers. In Australia, and in a majority of education systems, being mentored and mentoring other teachers were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.

About half of Australian teachers who had started at their school over the past five years reported that they had participated in a formal induction program. Compared to the OECD average, Australian lower secondary teachers reported undertaking professional learning (i.e. professional development) activities more frequently that involve engagement with teacher networks, reflections on lesson observations, self-initiated learning activities, and courses/seminars/workshops.

Most professional learning by Australian teachers involved knowledge of the curriculum, subject area knowledge, assessment practices, and subject-related pedagogies. The greatest growth in professional learning participation was on classroom management for student behaviour. Australian teachers also reported that feedback they received in the previous 12 months led to a positive change in how they managed student behaviour in the classroom. Just over half of

Australian teachers reported that the professional learning activities they participated in during the 12 months preceding the survey had a positive impact on their teaching. Frequently reported areas in which Australian lower secondary teachers cited a need for professional development included their content areas and classroom management for student behaviour. One in four teachers reported a need for professional training in the use of artificial intelligence (AI).

Time was the most frequently mentioned barrier to professional learning. Three-quarters of Australian lower secondary teachers and three-fifths of Australian primary teachers indicated that conflicts with work schedules and other commitments were impediments to professional learning activities.

Teacher leadership and autonomy

Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers reported higher levels of decision-making involvement on instruction and curriculum than on school policies. However, most Australian teachers at both education levels reported having opportunities for teacher leadership at their schools. The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers reporting being part of a school management team was lower than the OECD average. Australian primary teachers were more likely to report being part of a school management team compared to lower secondary teachers.

Australian lower secondary teachers with higher levels of instructional self-efficacy were more likely to “agree” or “strongly agree” that staff were provided with leadership roles in promoting professional learning communities, while no significant difference was reported among Australian primary teachers. The proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who viewed that their profession had an influence on educational policy had declined from 2018 to 2024.

Most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported having instructional autonomy for different aspects of teaching and expressed confidence in their ability to manage classrooms. Opportunities for teachers to influence school decisions and instructional autonomy were positively associated with higher job satisfaction. Furthermore, having instructional autonomy had positive effects on teacher adaptations to student needs among Australian lower secondary teachers but not among primary teachers.

Professional relationships in school communities

Both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers tended to work collaboratively. Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to exchange teaching materials and take part in collaborative professional learning, but were less likely to teach jointly in the same class than the OECD average. Australian lower secondary teachers were less likely to teach jointly or engage in joint activities with other classes than Australian primary teachers.

The proportions of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported teaching jointly in a team in the same class, observing other teachers’ classes and providing feedback to other teachers have declined since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. Australian primary teachers were also less likely to report spending time teaching jointly in 2024 than in 2018 but were more likely to report taking part in collaborative professional learning.

Australian teachers with high self-efficacy were significantly more likely to engage in discussions about the learning development of specific students than teachers with lower self-efficacy.

However, lower secondary teachers were less likely to report having these discussions than primary teachers.

Around nine in ten Australian teachers at both education levels reported that teachers can rely on each other at their school, which for lower secondary teachers was above the OECD average. Australian teachers mostly expressed positive views towards their principals, but the proportion of lower secondary teachers who expressed having those views was lower than that of primary teachers.

Australian lower secondary teachers had higher rates of agreement for items in which their principal ensured teachers feel responsible for student learning outcomes and in which their principal had good professional relationships with parents. Most teachers also felt that principals encouraged all staff to have a say in important decisions, provided useful feedback, or monitored performance effectively.

Most Australian teachers had positive perceptions of the quality of the relationships between students and teachers. Teachers who had positive perceptions tended to have higher levels of job satisfaction. Just under one-quarter of Australian lower secondary teachers and just over one-third of Australian primary teachers reported collaborating with parents and guardians once a month. Female primary teachers were more likely to report collaboration than their male colleagues.

Australian teachers at both education levels reported spending on average less than two hours per week communicating with parents and guardians. For lower secondary teachers, this was similar to the OECD average. More than two-thirds of Australian teachers felt that they were valued by parents in their school. Teachers at both education levels felt much more valued if they worked at schools with a lower proportion of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes.

Careers in teaching

About one in five Australian lower secondary and primary teachers under 30 years of age reported that they intend to leave teaching within the next five years. This was similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. Intentions to leave were impacted by sources of stress, such as having too many lessons and lack of classroom discipline.

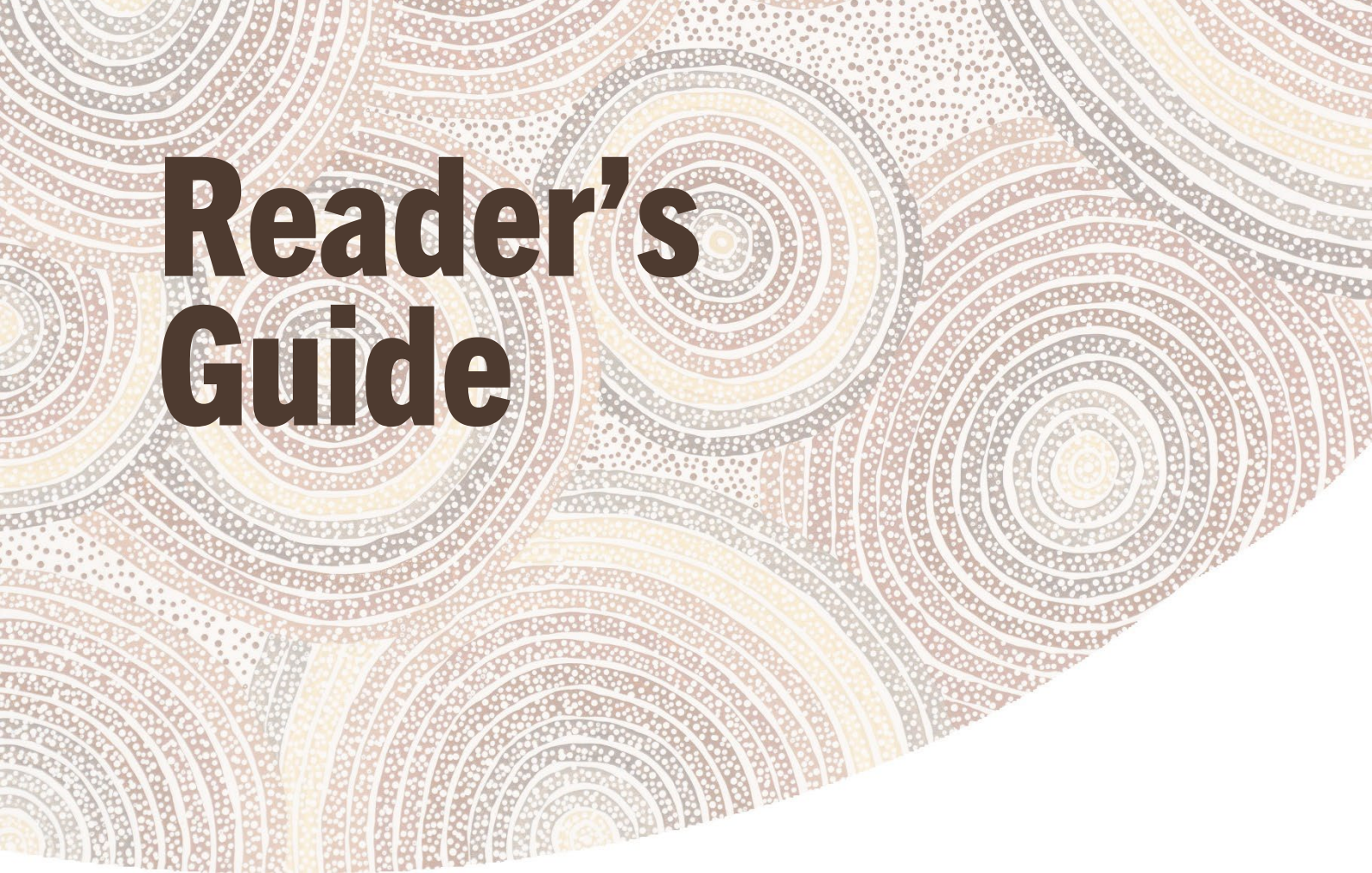
When asked about their motivations for becoming a teacher, most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported social utility reasons (concerning factors such as influencing the next generation or making worthwhile social contributions), job security, having the right abilities for the job, and liking work with children/adolescents. Almost all Australian lower secondary and primary teachers agreed that they enjoyed teaching. The joy of teaching was associated with lower intention to leave teaching, even after controlling for teacher and school characteristics, contract type, and satisfaction with employment terms. Both lower secondary and primary teachers' perceptions of feeling valued by policymakers and society in general were lower than in the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018.

The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported that becoming a teacher was their first career choice was below that for both Australian primary teachers and the OECD average at lower secondary level. Higher proportions of female teachers and younger teachers (those aged below 30) reported that teaching was their first career choice.

Nine out of ten Australian lower secondary teachers reported having a permanent contract, higher than the OECD average at lower secondary level. Three out of four Australian primary teachers

reported a permanent position. In Australia, part-time work was also more frequently reported among primary teachers (one out of four) than among lower secondary teachers (one out of five).

More than two-thirds of Australian teachers in 2024 were satisfied with their terms of employment. However, teachers' satisfaction with employment conditions and salaries decreased significantly between 2018 and 2024. In contrast, there were small increases on average across OECD countries for lower secondary teachers.



Reader's Guide

Classification of levels of education

The classification of the education levels used in TALIS 2024 reporting is based on the revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 2011). ISCED is an instrument for compiling statistics on education internationally and distinguishes between nine levels of education:

- ❖ Early childhood education (ISCED 0)
- ❖ Primary education (ISCED 1)
- ❖ Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)
- ❖ Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)
- ❖ Post-secondary non-tertiary level of education (ISCED 4)
- ❖ Short-cycle tertiary education (ISCED 5)
- ❖ Bachelor's or equivalent level of education (ISCED 6)
- ❖ Master's or equivalent level of education (ISCED 7)
- ❖ Doctoral or equivalent level of education (ISCED 8).

The primary focus of TALIS is at the lower secondary education level (ISCED 2), however, countries also have the option of surveying teachers and principals at the primary education level (ISCED 1) and the upper secondary education level (ISCED 3). In TALIS 2024, Australia elected to participate at both lower secondary (ISCED 2) and primary (ISCED 1) levels.

Country coverage

TALIS 2024 publications feature data on 55 countries and economies, including 31 OECD countries and 17 partner countries and economies. TALIS focuses on the education systems of those participants, and the term ‘education systems’ is often used. For detailed information provided by the OECD about participating entities, please refer to the Appendix – Country notes.

Data underlying the figures

A large proportion of data referred to in this report are sourced from the TALIS 2024 international report (OECD, 2025a), with some greater details available in Annex C of that volume.

Definitions of groups and comparison countries

High-performing PISA 2022 countries

A group of five countries or economies – Estonia, Japan, Korea, Shanghai (China), and Singapore – were selected as a comparison group for this report. These five participants performed at a level significantly higher than Australia in all three domains of PISA 2022. Within this report they are referred to as ‘high-performing PISA 2022 countries’. It should be noted that several other high-performing PISA 2022 countries that are typically used as comparison countries failed to meet minimum response rates in TALIS 2024 and consequently were ruled out as potential comparison countries for Australia.

Early career and more experienced teachers

Teachers’ self-reports of years of experience in the teaching profession were used to create two groups of teachers for use in comparisons:

- ❖ ‘Early career’ teachers are those who reported five years or less of teaching experience.
- ❖ ‘Experienced’ teachers are those who reported more than five years of teaching experience.

Statistics and analysis

The primary focus of TALIS and this report is the statistics and analysis derived from the survey responses of teachers and principals of lower secondary education (ISCED 2). Some parallel analyses of the responses of primary teachers and principals (ISCED 1) are also included in this report.

Means and international averages

Reported OECD averages are calculated as the mean of the lower secondary data values of participating countries who are also members of the OECD. In tables and figures, the number of countries included in the statistic being calculated is shown after the OECD label – for example, ‘OECD average-27’ means that the data from 27 OECD countries were used to calculate the statistic.

An OECD average for the primary level was not produced because only 12 countries took part. Furthermore, the participating countries differ widely in their status as OECD countries as well as their geographic location, cultures, and performance in PISA 2022. As a result, Australian primary level results are only compared against Australian lower secondary level results.

Odds ratios

An odds ratio indicates the degree to which an explanatory variable is associated with a categorical outcome variable and is calculated following a logistic regression. An odds ratio below one denotes a negative association; an odds ratio above one indicates a positive association; and an odds ratio of one means that there is no association.

Regression coefficients

A regression coefficient indicates the degree to which an explanatory variable is associated with a non-categorical outcome variable. For example, a statistically significant regression coefficient of 3.5 would indicate that for every change of one unit in the explanatory variable, the outcome variable would increase by 3.5 units.

Statistical significance

The term ‘significant’ is used throughout this report to describe a difference that meets the requirements of statistical significance at the 0.05 level, indicating that the difference is real, and would be found in at least 95 analyses out of 100 if the comparisons were to be repeated. It is not to be confused with the term ‘substantial’, which is qualitative and based on judgement rather than statistical comparisons. A difference may appear substantial but not statistically significant (due to factors that affect the size of the standard errors around the estimate, for example) while another difference may seem small but reach statistical significance because the estimate was more accurate.

Reporting conventions

Rounding of figures

Totals, differences, and averages are always calculated using exact numbers and are rounded only after calculation. Due to this rounding, some figures in tables may not exactly add up to the totals presented.

Many estimates and their associated standard errors have been rounded to one decimal place. Where the value 0.0 is shown, this does not imply that the standard error is zero, but that it is smaller than 0.05.

Further documentation

For further information on TALIS documentation, the instruments and methods, see the TALIS 2024 Technical Report (OECD, forthcoming) and the TALIS website:

<https://www.oecd.org/en/about/programmes/talis.html>.



Overview of TALIS 2024

Introduction

The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) collects internationally comparable data on the learning environment and working conditions of teachers and principals in schools across the world. It originated as part of the OECD Indicators of Education Systems (INES) project, with its conceptual foundations being informed by the report *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (OECD, 2005). TALIS has previously been conducted in 2008, 2013, and 2018. The most recent cycle was conducted in 2024 across 55 countries and economies (OECD, 2025a).

The survey offers teachers and principals the opportunity to provide their perspectives on the state of education in their own countries, allowing for a global view of teachers, the education systems in which they work, and the successes and challenges faced by teachers and school leaders. The main objective of TALIS is to “generate reliable indicators of teachers, school leaders and teaching that provide the basis for valid international comparisons and perspectives on changes or consistencies over time” (OECD, 2025b, p. 9).

TALIS provides a voice to teachers and school leaders and allows them the opportunity to reflect on and discuss their practice and find ways to enhance it. TALIS also provides information for policymakers to assist them to review and develop policies that promote the teaching profession and provide optimal conditions for effective teaching and learning.

Content for TALIS 2024

TALIS is composed of two online surveys: one for school principals and another for teachers. As in previous cycles, the primary focus of TALIS 2024 remained on lower secondary education (Years 7–10 in the Australian school system, or ISCED 2). Participating countries also had the option of surveying at primary schools (ISCED 1) and upper secondary schools (ISCED 3). In TALIS 2024, Australia opted to survey teacher and principals at both the lower secondary (ISCED 2) and primary (ISCED 1) schools.

The content for TALIS 2024 was articulated in a conceptual framework as embracing enduring and contemporary issues in teaching and learning (OECD, 2025b). The enduring features of teachers, teaching, and learning that had been investigated over previous cycles of TALIS were as specified below, with two domains articulated for each issue.

Teachers' learning and development

- ❖ Initial teacher education
- ❖ Continuing professional learning

Teachers' work practices

- ❖ Teaching practices
- ❖ Professional practices

Occupational perceptions

- ❖ Job satisfaction, occupational wellbeing, and perceived value of teaching
- ❖ Teacher self-efficacy

Institutional environments for teaching

- ❖ School leadership
- ❖ School climate

In addition, TALIS 2024 collected data on teacher, principal, and school characteristics. Contemporary issues included in TALIS 2024 after dialogue with educational experts were:

- ❖ diversity and equity;
- ❖ educational use of technology;
- ❖ social and emotional learning of students; and
- ❖ environmental sustainability education (this data is not available at the time of this report).

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire used a rotated/split design to broaden the conceptual coverage of TALIS, while at the same time limiting the amount of time needed from each respondent (OECD, 2025b, pp. 109–110). There were three questionnaire forms randomly assigned to respondents. Each form had some common questions (including demographic and background characteristics), some standard questions that appeared on two of the three forms, and some low inference questions that appeared on one of the three forms (and for which less precision was needed) (OECD, forthcoming). The questions covered general aspects of teaching and learning and in addition some questions related to what happened in a randomly chosen class that teachers teach from their weekly timetable (the target class).

Participants in TALIS 2024

Countries

The first cycle of TALIS was conducted in 2008, with 24 countries participating. TALIS 2024 expanded to include 55 countries and economies. Australia has participated in all four cycles of the TALIS survey.

The main survey for TALIS 2024 was conducted in the following 33 OECD countries and economies and 22 OECD partner countries and economies (Table 0.1).

Table 0.1 TALIS 2024 participating countries and economies: 55 ISCED 2 (with 14 ISCED 1 countries in bold)

OECD countries and economies				
Australia	Czech Republic	Ireland	Mexico	Slovenia
Austria	Denmark	Israel	Netherlands	Spain
Belgium Flemish & French	Estonia	Italy	New Zealand	Sweden
Canada (Alberta)	Finland	Japan	Norway	Türkiye
Chile	France	Korea	Poland	United States
Colombia	Hungary	Latvia	Portugal	
Costa Rica	Iceland	Lithuania	Slovak Republic	
OECD partner countries and economies				
Albania	Shanghai (China)	Malta	Saudi Arabia	Uzbekistan
Azerbaijan	Croatia	Montenegro	Serbia	Viet Nam
Bahrain	Cyprus	Morocco	Singapore	
Brazil	Kazakhstan	North Macedonia	South Africa	
Bulgaria	Kosovo	Romania	United Arab Emirates	

Each country or economy participant in TALIS 2024 selected a representative sample of approximately 200 schools at each ISCED level using a systematic random sampling approach (most often with a probability proportional to size) and 20 randomly selected teachers within each school (or all teachers, in schools with fewer than 20 teachers) (OECD, 2025b, p. 106). Schools entirely devoted to students with special needs were considered out-of-scope, however, teachers working with students with special needs in regular schools were in-scope. Schools offering adult education exclusively were considered out-of-scope.

For TALIS 2024, a teacher was defined as a person who “as part of their regular professional duties in the school, provide[s] student instruction in programmes at the respective ISCED level” (OECD, 2025b, p. 106). Teachers were eligible to participate regardless of the amount of teaching they did at the relevant ISCED level. However, substitute and other emergency teachers were not part of the target populations. Principals were defined as people “with the most responsibility for the administrative, managerial and/or pedagogical leadership at the school” and they could “also spend part of their time teaching” (OECD, 2025b, p. 106).

Overview of TALIS 2024 in Australia

At an international level, TALIS 2024 was coordinated and managed by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), and the study's implementation was overseen by IEA Hamburg. The IEA Secretariat was responsible for overseeing the quality control of the data collection. The OECD TALIS Governing Board and its Secretariat had overall responsibility for managing TALIS 2024 and monitoring its implementation in participating countries.

As was the case for the three previous cycles of TALIS, the Australian Government Department of Education commissioned the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) to oversee and implement TALIS 2024 in Australia.

In Australia, the national sample was drawn from a list of all Australian schools, stratified by jurisdiction, sector, and geographic location. The TALIS 2024 sample included 204 lower secondary (ISCED 2) schools and 208 primary (ISCED 1) schools.

The technical standards for TALIS set by the OECD require countries to reach specified response rate targets (OECD, 2023). A minimum 50 per cent participation of schools from the original sample of schools was required for data to be included in the international database. A school was counted as a participant if 50 per cent of the sampled teachers participated. The standard participation expected in TALIS 2024 was 75 per cent of sampled schools and 75 per cent of sampled teachers across all participating schools. To attain these targets, each non-responding school could be replaced by a school selected at the same time as the main school sample. Each sampled school had up to two designated replacement schools.

The numbers and response rates for Australia's participation in TALIS 2024 are displayed in Table 0.2. For TALIS 2024 in Australia, 133 of the 204 schools first sampled at lower secondary level participated (i.e. 65%) and 48 replacement schools participated (making a total response of 181 schools or a response rate of 89%). Correspondingly, for the primary level, 131 of the 208 schools sampled participated (i.e. 63%) with 47 replacement schools bringing the total to 178 schools (making an overall response rate of 86%). In response to the initial participation rate of schools (i.e. without replacement) being 65 and 63 per cent respectively, non-response bias analyses were conducted. These analyses indicated that there was no statistically significant bias across stratification variables between the lower secondary and primary levels in participating schools and the first sampled schools or the population statistics. In addition, teacher participation within participating schools was high, being 87 per cent for lower secondary and 90 per cent for primary, making overall participation rates of 77 per cent at both education levels. Further details about the response rate for Australia's participation this cycle are reported in the non-bias analysis report for Australia (Dix & Carslake, 2025).

Table 0.2 Participation rates and sample sizes for Australian schools in TALIS 2024

	Australia (Lower sec.)	Australia (Primary)
Number of schools sampled	204	208
Number of schools participating before replacement	133	131
Participation before replacement	65%	63%
Number of schools participating after replacement	181	178
Participation after replacement	89%	86%
Teacher participation within participating schools	87%	90%
Teacher participation overall	77%	77%
Number of participating principals	181	178
Number of participating teachers	3035	3005

In TALIS 2024, Australia was successful in meeting minimum response rates for teachers and principals at both lower secondary and primary levels and qualified for being reported in the main body of all applicable tables in the TALIS 2024 international report. In the 2018 TALIS cycle, Australia fell just short of meeting the minimum response rate for lower secondary school principals, primary teachers, and primary school principals. However, after taking into account replacement schools, Australia did meet the targets for lower secondary schools and teachers but did not for primary school principals or teachers. For this national report, the Australian data from 2018 have been placed in tables and figures as if all groups had met the OECD criteria, and while ACER’s analysis has shown no significant bias exists, the results should be treated with some element of caution. See Australia’s 2018 TALIS report for further details (Thomson & Hillman, 2019).

Profile of teachers

Extensive data were collected from teachers and principals across all participating countries, allowing ACER to prepare a broad profile of some of the demographic characteristics of Australia’s lower secondary and primary teachers (Table 0.3).

Table 0.3 Profile of teachers responding to TALIS 2024

		Australia (Lower sec.)		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Gender	Female	63	(1.0)	70	(0.2)	86	(0.8)
Age	< 30 years	17	(0.8)	10	(0.1)	19	(1.0)
	30–49 years	53	(1.0)	53	(0.2)	56	(1.2)
	50 years & above	30	(1.0)	37	(0.2)	25	(1.2)
Education level	Doctoral degree	2	(0.3)	2	(0.1)	0	(0.1)
	Master’s degree	28	(1.1)	57	(0.3)	18	(1.3)
	Bachelor’s degree or Graduate diploma/Graduate certificate	68	(1.1)	38	(0.3)	79	(1.3)
	Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree	2	(0.3)	1	(0.1)	3	(0.4)
	Did not achieve at least a Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree	0	(0.0)	2	(0.1)	0	(0.0)

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables BIN.NO.TQ01, MCOB.UND.TQ02, and BMUL.UND.TQ03.

Comparison groups

Throughout this report, comparisons are made between Australian teachers and schools at lower secondary and primary levels and the following:

- ❖ The OECD average (the average of participating countries who are members of the OECD). This comparison is only available at the lower secondary level.
- ❖ A set of comparison countries and economies: Estonia, Japan, Korea, Shanghai (China), and Singapore. These systems significantly outperformed Australia in PISA 2022 in all three domains: mathematical, reading, and scientific literacy.

Interpreting the data

TALIS data provide an important contribution to understanding the working conditions of teachers and the learning environment in schools. When interpreting the data presented in this report, care must be taken when making any comparisons between countries, or between groups of countries. Comparisons must be made with an understanding of the cultural, social, and economic factors that underpin these responses in various countries.

In addition, TALIS data are based on self-reports by teachers and principals and therefore represent teachers' and principals' own sets of opinions, perspectives, and beliefs on a given matter. In this way, some of these data may differ from administrative data provided by national or state authorities. However, results derived from TALIS may cover content areas not addressed by these other data sources and may enable investigation of relationships between measures and constructs.

As in the TALIS 2024 international report, differences that are statistically significant are emphasised in the text of this report. As TALIS is a sample study, the data are weighted to take account of disproportionate sampling and non-response. Standard errors are calculated and used to ascertain whether differences are statistically significant.

Complementary data for Australia

Surveys such as TALIS collect internationally comparable data from teachers and principals that may help guide the work of policymakers. It is helpful to consider TALIS results in the context of complementary research. Australia's participation in the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (De Bortoli, Underwood & Thomson, 2022), the IEA's Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (Wernert et al., 2025), and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) (Hillman et al., 2023) all have extensive school and teacher questionnaires. The Australian Teacher Workforce Data (ATWD) project uses data from higher education providers, teacher regulatory authorities, and the Australian Teacher Workforce Surveys to inform issues important to the national teacher workforce (AITSL, 2025).

Report outline

The structure of this report mirrors that of the TALIS 2024 international report (OECD, 2025a) and it includes some content that has been reproduced or adapted, with permission, from the TALIS 2024 international report. This national report is organised around seven substantive chapters:

- ❖ **Chapter 1** provides an overview of the characteristics, backgrounds, and working contexts of teachers in Australia. It examines key demographic features of the teaching workforce – including the age, gender, education, and prior experience of teachers, with particular attention to early career and second-career entrants. It examines teachers’ self-efficacy as a lens for understanding their confidence in responding to contemporary classroom situations. The chapter also examines the profiles of schools that different teachers work at, including schools with higher shares of students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, refugee or migrant communities, or those with special education needs. The chapter concludes with a discussion on teacher perspectives on how digital tools and artificial intelligence can be used to meet the needs of all learners.
- ❖ **Chapter 2** explores teachers’ perceptions of their professional outcomes. It begins with a discussion on teachers’ level of fulfilment of their lesson aims, then discusses various aspects of teacher stress and wellbeing, including differences across sub-groups of the teaching population and across time. It proceeds to discuss teacher job satisfaction, how this has changed since the previous cycle of TALIS, and its relationship with self-efficacy. It explores the growth mindset of Australian teachers, then concludes with an examination of the relationships between various teacher demands and workload and professional outcomes measures.
- ❖ **Chapter 3** focuses on the demands of teaching. It begins by exploring teacher workload and its relationship with teacher outcomes measures. It then progresses to explore classroom discipline and its relationship between various teacher characteristics and outcomes measures. The chapter continues to discuss how teachers adapt to diverse learning needs and concludes with a discussion on how education change is implemented.
- ❖ **Chapter 4** looks at how teachers develop their expertise. It reviews teachers’ initial preparation and how well they felt it prepared them for the realities of teaching, as well as the role of induction and mentoring in supporting new teachers. The chapter also examines professional learning, highlighting the content areas most frequently covered, the activities that teachers participate in, and their perceived impact. It concludes by exploring the barriers that teachers face in accessing professional development, with a particular emphasis on time constraints.
- ❖ **Chapter 5** examines teacher leadership and autonomy. It analyses the extent to which teachers participated in decision-making at classroom and school levels, and the opportunities they have for leadership roles within schools. It also explores teachers’ views on their influence on educational policy, and how autonomy and leadership opportunities are linked to job satisfaction and instructional practice.
- ❖ **Chapter 6** explores professional relationships in school communities. It describes the collaborative practices teachers engage in and how these have changed over time. It also examines relationships between teachers and their peers, principals, and parents, and the ways in which these relationships influence teachers’ job satisfaction.

- ❖ **Chapter 7** turns to teachers' careers in teaching. It explores teachers' motivations for entering the profession, their career intentions, and their views on working conditions. It examines patterns of contract type and part-time work, and how satisfaction with employment terms and salaries has shifted over time. The chapter also considers how teachers' sense of being valued by policymakers and society has changed over time, and how this relates to their career intentions.



1 Teaching for today's world

Key findings

- There was no real change in the gender distribution and average age of either lower secondary or primary teachers since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. Australian lower secondary teachers were closer to gender parity and younger in age in comparison to the average among OECD countries for either metric.
- The most common highest level of education for Australian teachers was a Bachelor's degree. Lower secondary teachers from across OECD countries (and in high-performing PISA 2022 countries) were, on average, more likely to have higher degrees (Master's or PhD) than Australian teachers.
- Australian teachers at both lower secondary and primary levels had an average of 15 years of experience in teaching.
- Compared to other TALIS countries, Australia had a high proportion of lower secondary teachers who have had previous work experience (6–20 years) in non-education roles.
- Over two in five Australian lower secondary teachers (42%) and over one-third of Australian primary teachers (36%) attended schools where the principals believed that a shortage of teachers hindered quality instruction. The lower secondary teachers' result was considerably higher than the OECD average. There was an increase in this perception since the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018.
- Australian teachers expressed high self-efficacy beliefs for a range of different classroom management, instruction, and student engagement practices.
- Australian schools and classrooms were more diverse than the average across OECD and TALIS countries with respect to students with special needs, refugees, immigrants, students from a disadvantaged background, and students with a language background other than the language of instruction.
- Australia reported large increases in the proportion of students with special education needs since the previous cycle of TALIS, mirroring international trends. Teachers expressed mixed levels of confidence in their ability to implement different inclusive practices for these students.
- Australian teachers were positive about the benefits of students' use of digital resources and tools but cautioned there were challenges such as negative impacts on student wellbeing and students potentially using internet content as their own work.
- Approximately two-thirds of Australian lower secondary teachers reported using AI in their work in the previous year, placing Australia among the TALIS countries with the highest reported levels of teachers' AI use. Among Australian primary teachers, just under half used AI within the same period.
- Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to use AI to generate lesson plans, automatically adjust the difficulty of lesson materials according to students' learning needs, or generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications in comparison to teachers from other OECD countries. They were less likely to use AI to help students practise new skills in real-life scenarios, support students with special education needs, assess or mark student work, or review data on student participation.

- Australian teachers reported mixed views about the benefits and challenges of using AI in education. While many teachers believed that it would help them write or improve lesson plans and allow them to adapt learning material to different students' abilities, there were also widespread concerns that AI could make recommendations that may not be appropriate or correct and that this technology could enable students to misrepresent work as their own.
- The most frequently reported barriers to using AI for lower secondary teachers were a lack of knowledge and skills to teach using AI, not believing that AI should be used in teaching, and feeling overwhelmed by integrating new technologies into their teaching. They were less likely to attribute their lack of AI use to school factors such as their school lacking the infrastructure to use AI (25%) or that their school does not allow the use of AI in teaching.

1.1 Introduction

Australian schools, in recent years, have had to adapt to a range of challenging circumstances. The COVID-19 pandemic caused major disruptions to school systems, impacting both students and teaching staff. The profile and needs of the student population have changed, and recent technologies have changed the nature of teaching and learning in the classroom. TALIS 2024 data help us to explore this context further by understanding the backgrounds, working environments, and teaching practices of teachers in Australia, to provide insight into how the profession is responding to these external challenges.

This chapter profiles the characteristics and working conditions of Australian teachers by examining who they are, what environments they work in, and the practices they use to meet the diverse and evolving needs of their students. The chapter begins by providing details of gender, age, highest education qualification, and teaching experience among Australian teachers at both lower secondary and primary levels. It continues to explore non-teaching work experience and presents results about those who enter teaching as a second career. The chapter further discusses teacher shortages from the perspective of school principals and shows trend data describing how shortages have changed over time. It discusses teacher self-efficacy and the types of activities teachers feel confident administering, then presents findings on the teaching of diverse learners and teachers' self-efficacy regarding work in multicultural environments. Next, it presents trend data on the proportions of schools with students with special education needs, as well as teacher self-efficacy regarding the use of inclusive practices for this group of students. There is also information about practices that teachers use in the classroom. Finally, the chapter concludes with a section about technology and teaching that focuses on the benefits and challenges teachers see with using digital resources and tools, their own use of AI, and their views about the positive and negative aspects of using AI in education.

1.2 Teacher profiles

The ageing demographic of teachers and school leaders and the implications for the education system once they retire have been an issue for some time, particularly in terms of workforce planning. Systems face further challenges with an ageing population, as the uptake of technology increases and drives demand for professional development of existing teachers. In many countries, the entry of the baby boomer generation into the education system in the 1950s and 1960s, along with widening access to education and increasing community expectations about students completing school, led to mass recruitment of teachers in the 1960s and 1970s and hence mass retirements a generation later.

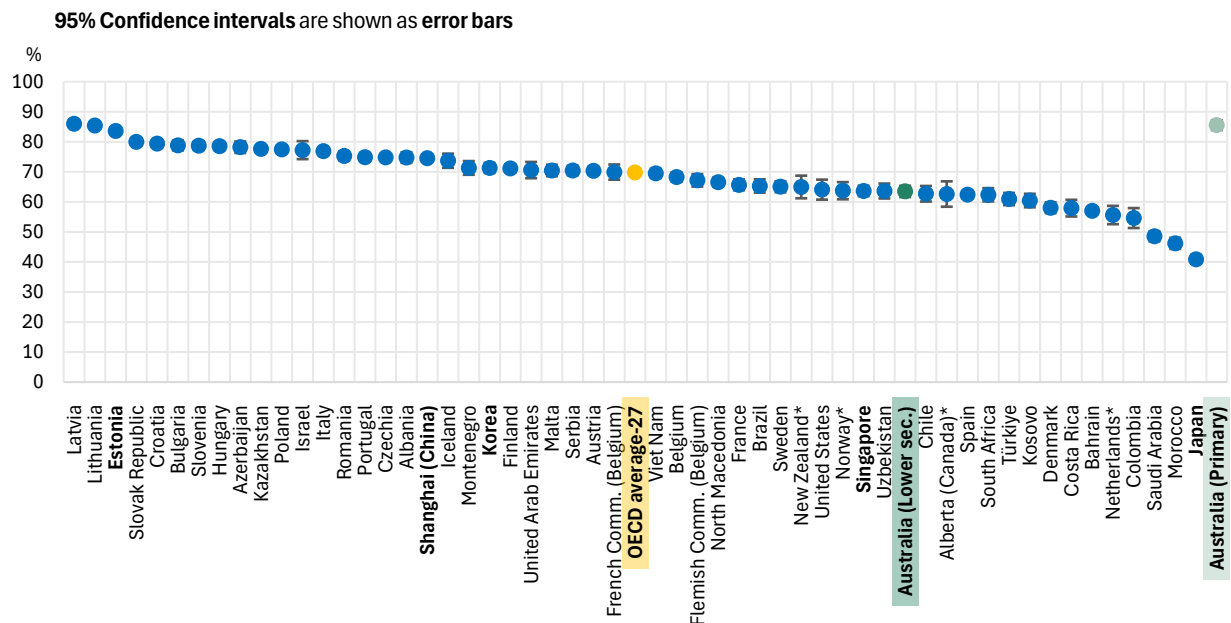
TALIS includes a range of questions for teachers, collecting information about their demographics and backgrounds, including their age, gender, level of experience, level of education, and prior teaching and non-teaching experience.

1.2.1. Gender

Teaching has been a female-dominated profession in Australia, and internationally, for generations. This disparity is typically more evident at the primary level. In Australia, just under two-thirds (63%) of lower secondary teachers were female (see Figure 1.1), a similar proportion to that reported in the 2018 survey (62%) but lower than the TALIS 2024 OECD average (70%). However, this figure was significantly higher than reported in the 2013 and 2008 surveys (both 59%). Among the high-performing PISA 2022 countries, the proportion of female teachers in Australia was comparable to Singapore (64%), but significantly lower than in Shanghai (China) (75%) and Korea (71%), and significantly higher than in Japan (41%).

Australia, like all TALIS countries, had a much higher proportion of female primary teachers compared to the population of lower secondary teachers.

Figure 1.1 Proportion of female teachers
Percentage of female lower secondary and Australian primary teachers



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

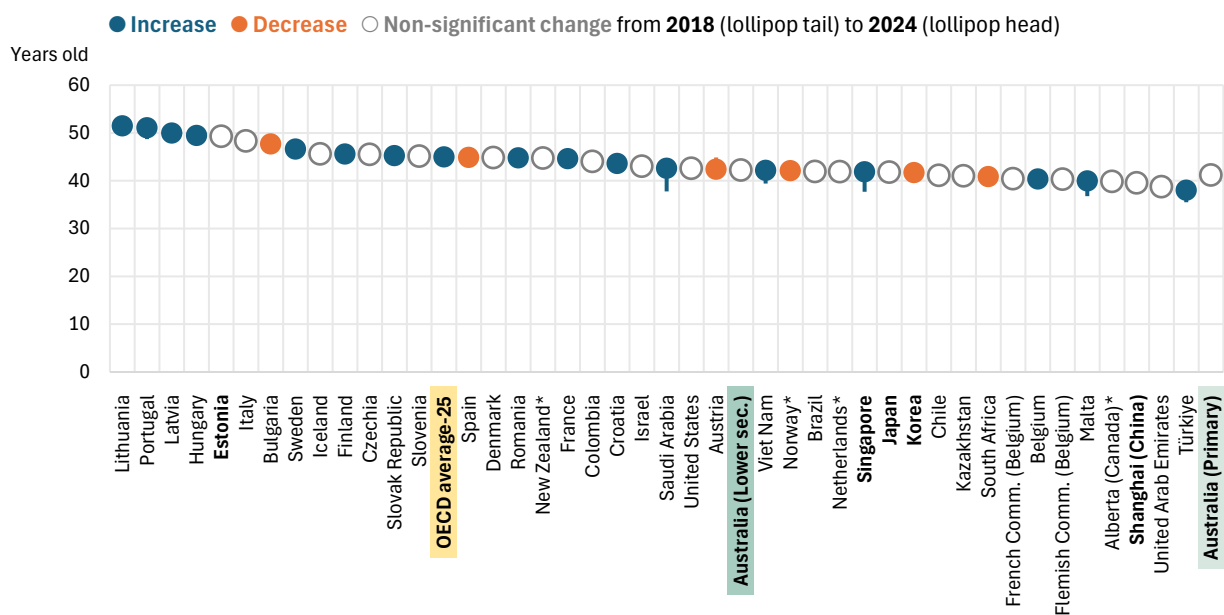
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**. For explanation refer to Reader's Guide.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.NO.TQ01.

1.2.2. Age

The average age of lower secondary teachers in Australia was 42 years, the same as in 2018, but significantly lower than the OECD average (45 years) (see Figure 1.2). Since 2018, on average, the age of teachers in OECD countries increased. Australian primary teachers were also of a similar average age (41 years) as reported in the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018. These figures show that in Australia there was no change in average teacher age since 2018. In the comparison countries at lower secondary level, compared to 2018, teachers from Singapore were on average older in 2024, while teachers from Korea were on average younger. Similar to Australia, the average age of teachers in Japan and Shanghai (China) remained unchanged compared to the previous cycle.

Figure 1.2 Change in the average age of teachers, from 2018 to 2024
Average age of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table CON.TR2.TQ02.

1.2.3. Background

Education

Teachers were asked to indicate the highest level of formal education they had completed. Their options were “Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree”, “Bachelor’s degree (with or without Honours)”, “Graduate diploma/Graduate certificate”, “Master’s degree”, or “Doctoral degree”. Results for Australia can be compared to other countries and economies by using the ISCED classification (UNESCO, 2012).

Just over two-thirds (68%) of lower secondary teachers in Australia reported having their highest level of formal education as a Bachelor’s degree (with or without Honours) or a Graduate diploma/Graduate certificate (see Table 1.1). Less prevalent highest education levels for lower secondary teachers were a Master’s degree (28%), a Doctoral degree (2%), or a Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree (2%). Teachers from the five comparison countries with data available (Estonia, Japan, Korea, Shanghai (China), and Singapore) all had majorities of teachers achieving an education level consistent with either a Master’s degree (73% in Estonia) or a Graduate diploma/Graduate certificate (64% to 77% in Korea, Singapore, and Shanghai (China)).

Table 1.1 Highest education level of teachers
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers, by highest level of formal education completed

	Below Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree		Diploma, Advanced diploma or Associate degree		Bachelor’s degree (with or without Honours) and Graduate diploma/ Graduate certificate		Master’s degree		Doctoral degree	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	0	(0.0)	2	(0.3)	68	(1.1)	28	(1.1)	2	(0.3)
Estonia	5	(0.5)	2	(0.4)	19	(0.9)	73	(1.2)	1	(0.2)
Japan	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Korea	0	(0.0)	1	(0.3)	64	(1.1)	33	(1.1)	1	(0.2)
Shanghai (China)	0	(0.1)	0	(0.1)	77	(1.1)	22	(1.1)	0	(0.1)
Singapore	1	(0.3)	2	(0.3)	67	(1.8)	28	(1.9)	1	(0.3)
OECD average-27	2	(0.1)	1	(0.1)	38	(0.3)	57	(0.3)	2	(0.1)
Australia (Primary)	0	(0.0)	3	(0.4)	79	(1.3)	18	(1.3)	0	(0.1)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	0	(0.0)	1	(0.5)	11	(1.7)	-10	(1.7)	-2	(0.3)

Notes: The education levels used in this table correspond to Australian applicable terms. Other economies use different terms that are aligned to Australia, following the International Classification of Education 2011 (UIS, 2012). m: data not available for this country for this question. Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQ03.

Teaching experience

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire asked teachers to indicate how many years they had been teaching for. Australian lower secondary teachers had been teaching in total for an average of 15 years (see Table 1.2). The majority, just over half (51%), had been teaching for between six and 20 years, with smaller proportions teaching for more than 20 years (28%) and less than or equal to five years (21%). These proportions were very similar to the teaching experience of Australian primary teachers. On average, Australian lower secondary teachers tended to report less experience than teachers on average across OECD countries as well as teachers from Estonia, Japan, Shanghai (China), and Singapore. However, Australian lower secondary teachers reported more experience than teachers from Korea.

Table 1.2 Teachers' teaching experience
Years of teaching experience¹

	Years of teaching experience				Percentage of teachers, by years of experience as a teacher					
	Average		Standard deviation		≤ 5 years		6–20 years		> 20 years	
	Mean	S.E.	S.D.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	15.2	(0.3)	10.4	(0.1)	21	(0.9)	51	(1.0)	28	(1.0)
Estonia	21.3	(0.4)	14.0	(0.1)	18	(0.9)	33	(1.0)	49	(1.3)
Japan	16.9	(0.3)	11.9	(0.1)	20	(0.7)	46	(1.1)	34	(1.1)
Korea	13.9	(0.3)	10.0	(0.1)	28	(1.2)	47	(1.1)	25	(1.1)
Shanghai (China)	16.2	(0.3)	10.6	(0.1)	21	(1.1)	42	(1.0)	37	(1.1)
Singapore	16.1	(0.3)	8.6	(0.1)	12	(0.8)	61	(0.9)	27	(1.4)
OECD average-27	17.3	(0.1)	10.6	(0.0)	18	(0.2)	45	(0.2)	37	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	14.7	(0.3)	10.6	(0.2)	22	(1.0)	52	(1.1)	27	(1.2)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	–0.5	(0.4)	0.2	(0.2)	1	(1.3)	1	(1.5)	–2	(1.6)

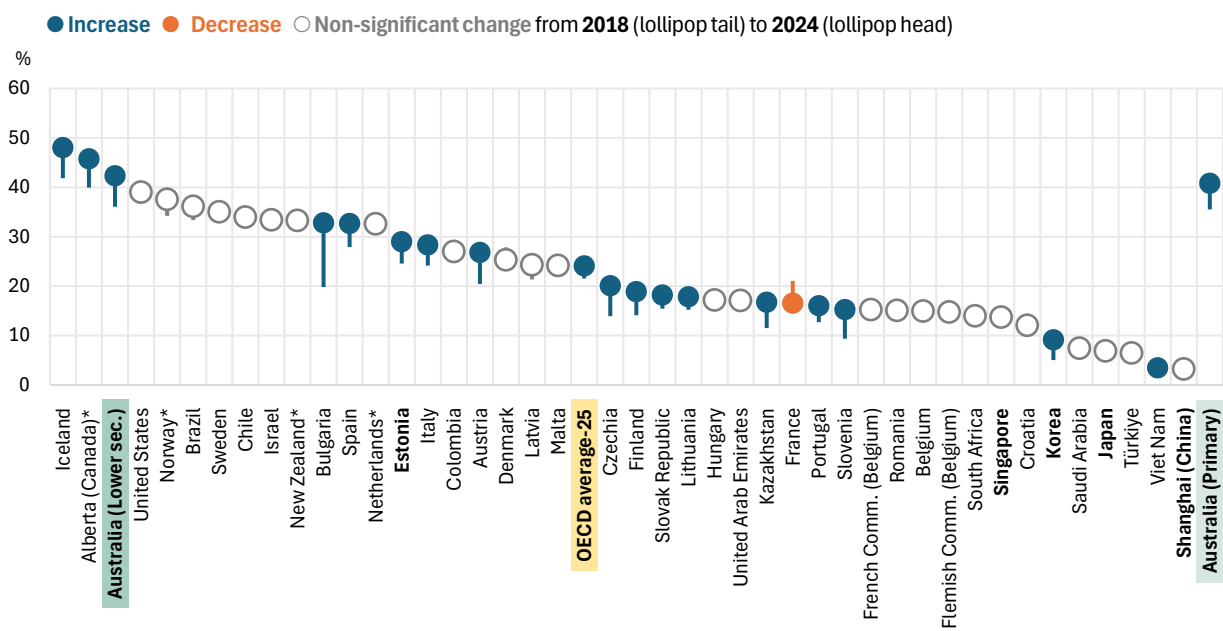
¹ Observations where teachers' years of work experience as a teacher at the current school is higher than as a teacher in total are discarded from the analysis.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table MCOB.UND.TQ13b.

Non-teaching experience

More than two-fifths (42%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported previous work experience (between six and 20 years) in non-education roles (see Figure 1.3). This figure was significantly higher than what was reported for the teaching workforce at this educational level in 2018 (36%). Australian lower secondary teachers ranked third highest among the TALIS countries for having teachers coming from other occupations. This was considerably higher than both the OECD average (24%) and high-performing PISA 2022 countries (Estonia 29%, Singapore 14%, Korea 9%, Japan 7%, and Shanghai (China) 3%). Compared to their lower secondary counterparts, a similar proportion of Australian primary teachers (41%) reported experience in non-education roles.

Figure 1.3 Change in previous non-teaching work experience, from 2018 to 2024
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who have previous work experience (6–20 years) in non-education roles



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

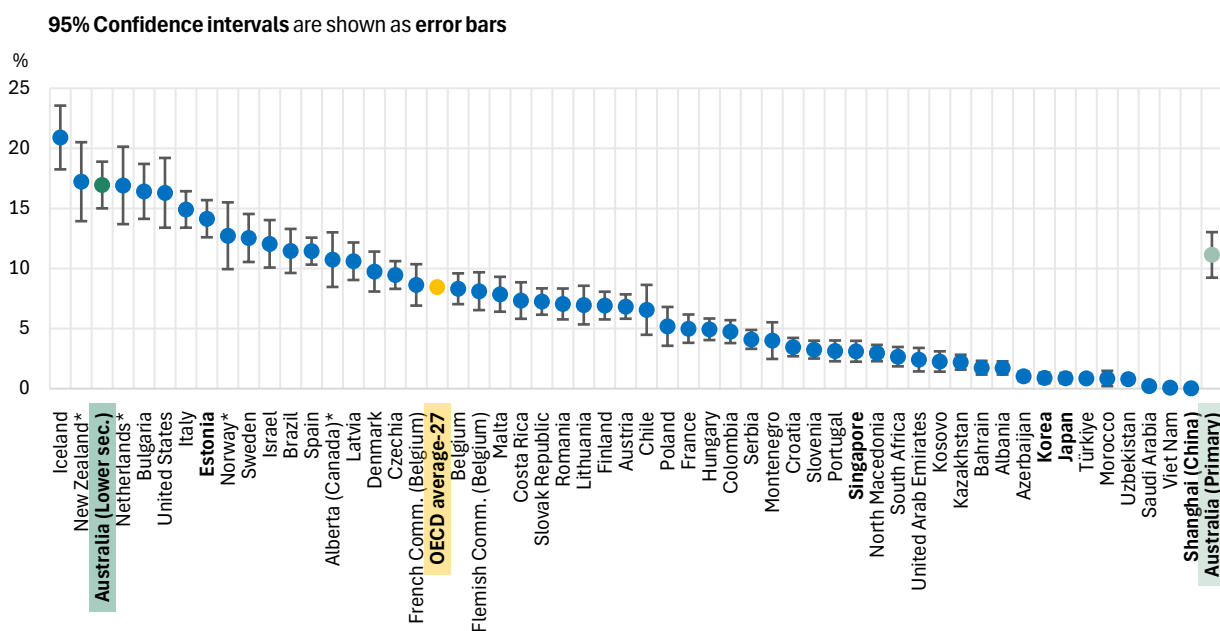
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR2.TQ13cd.

The TALIS international report (OECD, 2025a) defines second-career teachers as those with at least ten years of work experience in non-education roles and for whom teaching was not their first career choice (i.e. who did not consider teaching a top priority as a desired career). Australia had a relatively high proportion of second-career teachers compared to most other TALIS countries (see Figure 1.4). Seventeen per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers and 11 per cent of Australian primary teachers fit this definition of second-career teachers.

There was a higher proportion of second-career Australian teachers at the lower secondary level than the OECD average (8%). While there was a similar proportion of this type of teacher in comparison to Estonia (14%), there were significantly fewer second-career teachers reported for the other high-performing PISA 2022 countries: Singapore (3%), Korea (1%), Japan (1%), and Shanghai (China) (0%).

Figure 1.4 Second-career teachers
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who have at least 10 years of work experience in non-education roles for whom teaching was not a first career choice (second-career teachers¹)



¹ Second-career teachers are teachers who have at least 10 years of work experience in non-education roles and for whom teaching was not a first career choice.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

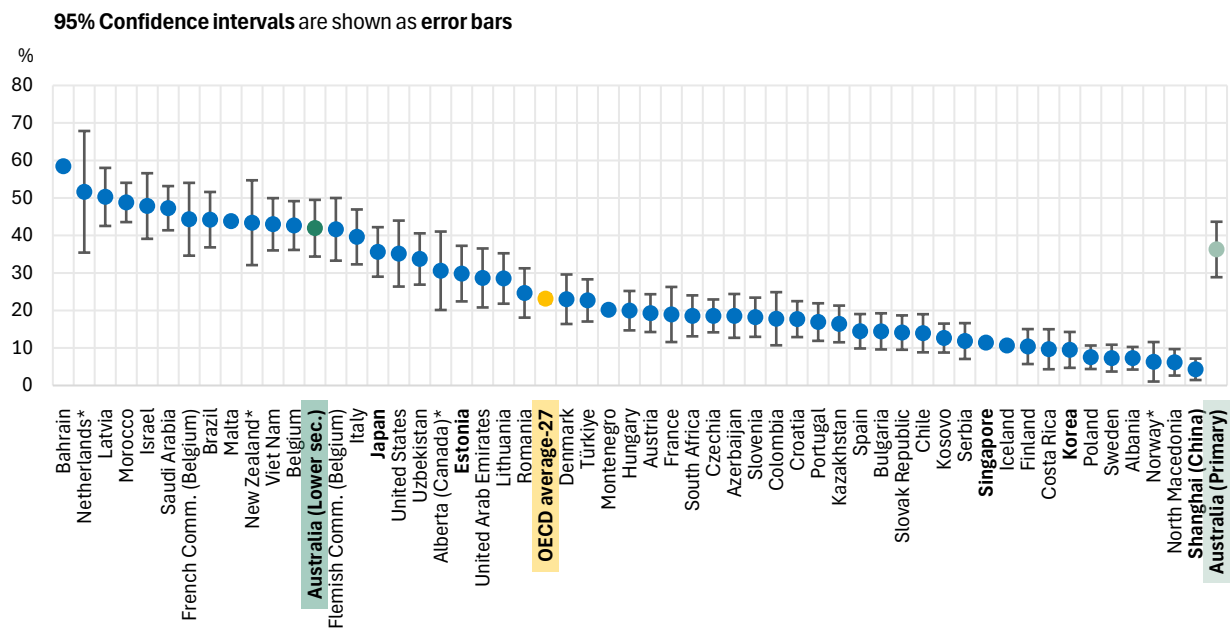
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.SCH.TQ13dTQ08.

1.3 Teacher shortages

Teacher shortages have become an issue in Australia, as well as at the global level. Principals were asked to indicate the extent to which their school’s capacity to provide quality instruction was hindered by a shortage of qualified teachers (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”). The proportions for all TALIS countries for lower secondary level, as well as for Australian primary schools are shown in Figure 1.5. In Australia, 42 per cent of lower secondary teachers taught at schools where the principals reported that a shortage of qualified teachers hindered quality instruction. This figure was significantly higher than the OECD average (23%), but not significantly different from two of the high-performing PISA 2022 countries (Japan, 36%, and Estonia, 30%). However, there was far less concern reported by principals about teacher shortages hindering quality instruction in Singapore (11%), Korea (9%), and Shanghai (China) (4%).

In Australian primary schools, just over one-third (36%) of teachers worked at schools where the principals believed that a shortage of qualified teaches hindered quality instruction. This was not significantly different from the proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers.

Figure 1.5 Perception of shortage of qualified teachers
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers teaching in schools where shortage of qualified teachers hinders quality instruction¹ (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals’ responses and using final teacher weights.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.SCH.PQ40a.

It is important to note that the issue of teacher shortages appears to have become dramatically worse since the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018, based on the metric reported in Figure 1.5 (see Table 1.3). Over two in five Australian lower secondary teachers (42%) worked at schools where the principals indicated a shortage of qualified teachers hindered instruction, which was 28 percentage points higher than in 2018 (14%). There were also large increases in the proportions of lower secondary teachers at schools with reported shortages of vocational teachers (28% in 2024, up from 13% in 2018) and support personnel (16% in 2024, up from 6% in 2018).

The proportion of Australian primary teachers at schools where principals reported that the school's capacity to provide quality instruction was hindered by staff shortages of qualified teachers rose from 11 per cent in 2018 to 36 per cent in 2024; in relation to shortages of vocational teachers, the proportion increased from four per cent in 2018 to 16 per cent in 2024; and in relation to shortages of support personnel, from 13 per cent in 2018 to 23 per cent in 2024. There was only a small, but significant, increase across the OECD average related to teachers at schools with reported shortages of qualified teachers over this time period, but in contrast to Australia, across the OECD countries there were drops in perceived shortages for both vocational teachers and support personnel from 2018 to 2024.

Table 1.3 Change in shortage of personnel, from 2018 to 2024

Percentage of teachers whose school's capacity to provide quality instruction is hindered by the following issues¹ (based on principal reports)

	Shortage of qualified teachers						Shortage of vocational teachers						Shortage of support personnel					
	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	14	(0.1)	42	(3.9)	28	(3.9)	13	(0.1)	28	(3.8)	15	(3.8)	6	(0.0)	16	(2.7)	10	(2.7)
OECD average-24	21	(0.7)	24	(0.6)	2	(0.9)	16	(0.7)	14	(0.5)	-2	(0.8)	37	(0.7)	32	(0.7)	-6	(1.0)
Australia (Primary)	11	(0.1)	36	(3.8)	25	(3.8)	4	(0.0)	16	(2.9)	12	(2.9)	13	(0.1)	23	(3.6)	10	(3.6)

¹ Estimated based on principals' responses and using final teacher weights.

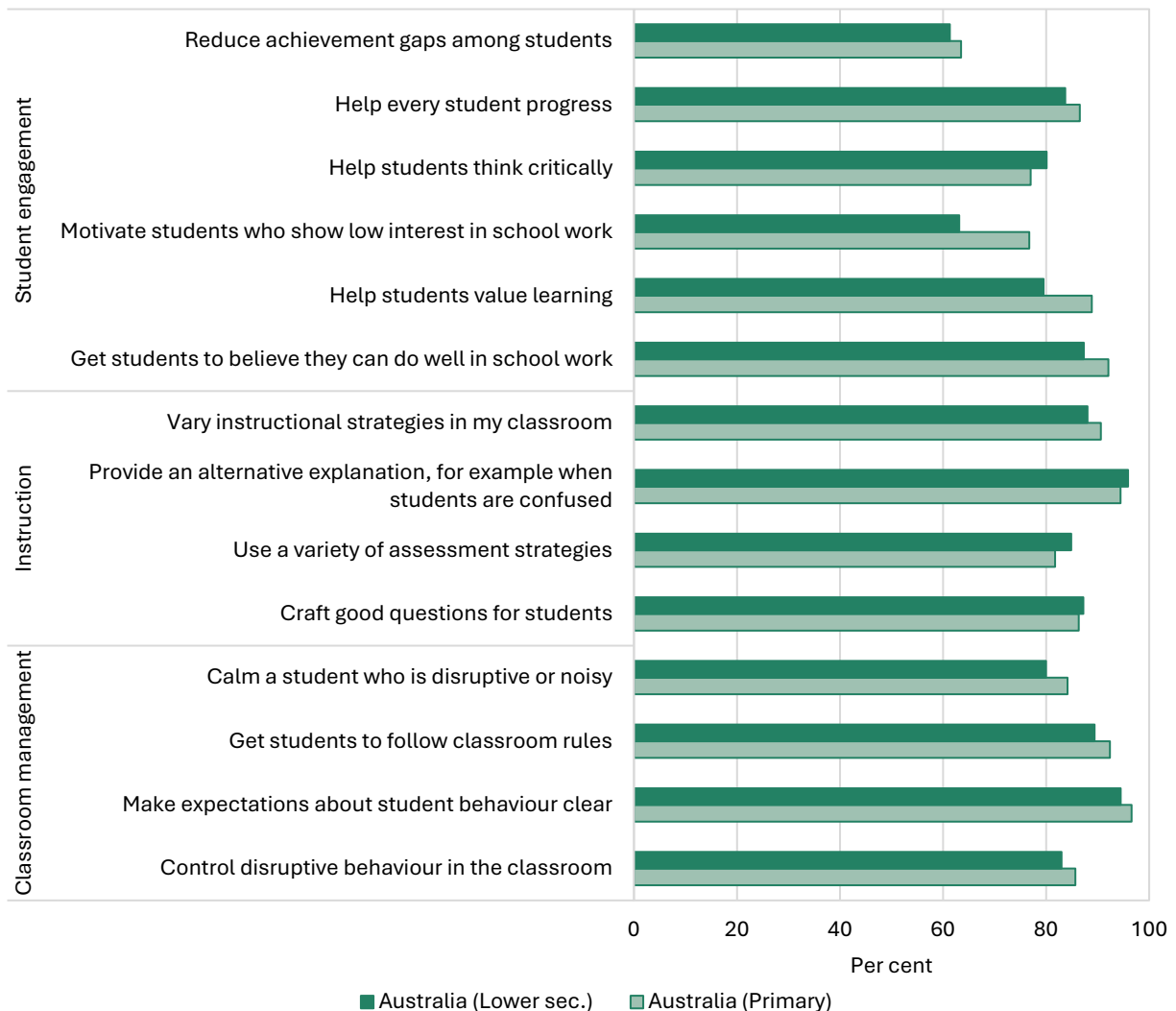
Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR3.PQ40ach.

1.4 Teacher self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy refers to teachers’ beliefs in their ability to teach effectively and to support student engagement and learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). In TALIS 2024, teachers were asked to indicate their self-efficacy, reflecting their beliefs to what extent they can do a range of different activities (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”). The proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who indicated “quite a bit” and “a lot” for the different activities are presented in Figure 1.6. The different activities are divided into three thematic areas: student engagement, instruction, and classroom management.

Figure 1.6 Teachers’ self-efficacy
Percentage of teachers who feel they can do the following “quite a bit” or “a lot”



Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ27a-1no.

Across all items the majorities of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers indicated that they could do each of these activities “quite a bit” or “a lot”. Australian teachers were most likely to indicate that they could get students to believe they can do their school work well (87% at lower secondary, 92% at primary), help every student progress (84% at lower secondary, 87% at primary), help students think critically (80% at lower secondary, 77% at primary), and help students value learning (80% at lower secondary, 89% at primary). Somewhat lower proportions of teachers

thought they could reduce achievement gaps among students (61% at lower secondary, 63% at primary). While a high proportion of primary teachers thought they could motivate students who show low interest in school work (77%), fewer lower secondary teachers felt they could do this (63%).

Almost universally, teachers thought they could provide alternative explanations in cases where students got confused (96% at lower secondary, 94% at primary). Large proportions believed that they could vary instructional strategies in their classroom (88% at lower secondary, 91% at primary), craft good questions for students (87% at lower secondary, 86% at primary), and use a variety of assessment strategies (85% at lower secondary, 82% at primary).

A large proportion of teachers thought they could make expectations about student behaviour clear (94% at lower secondary, 97% at primary) and get students to follow classroom rules (89% at lower secondary, 92% at primary). Somewhat lower proportions believed they could control disruptive behaviour in the classroom (83% at lower secondary, 86% at primary) or calm a student who was disruptive or noisy (80% at lower secondary, 84% at primary).

1.5 Teaching diverse learners

The TALIS 2024 school questionnaire included a series of items about the composition of students in schools. Principals were asked to select the proportion of students who had difficulties understanding the language of instruction, who were non-native language speakers, who had special education needs, who came from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, who belonged to ethnic minorities or Indigenous communities, and who were immigrants or with migrant backgrounds or were refugees. Figure 1.7 presents the proportion of teachers teaching at schools with different compositions. Data are presented for Australia (at both lower secondary and primary levels) as well as the OECD average at lower secondary level.

Just under two in three Australian lower secondary teachers (64%) taught at schools where at least one per cent of students were refugees. This was significantly higher than the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (47%) and Australian primary teachers (48%). Compared to other TALIS countries, both Australian lower secondary teachers (46%) and primary teachers (42%) were more likely to work at schools where principals reported that more than 10 per cent of students were immigrants or had an immigrant background. Likewise, compared to the OECD average, Australian teachers were more likely to teach at schools where principals reported more than 10 per cent of students were from minority (which includes Indigenous students) backgrounds (36% at lower secondary, 38% at primary). About one-third of Australian teachers (29% at lower secondary, 30% at primary) worked at schools where principals reported that more than 30 per cent of students came from socio-economically disadvantaged homes.

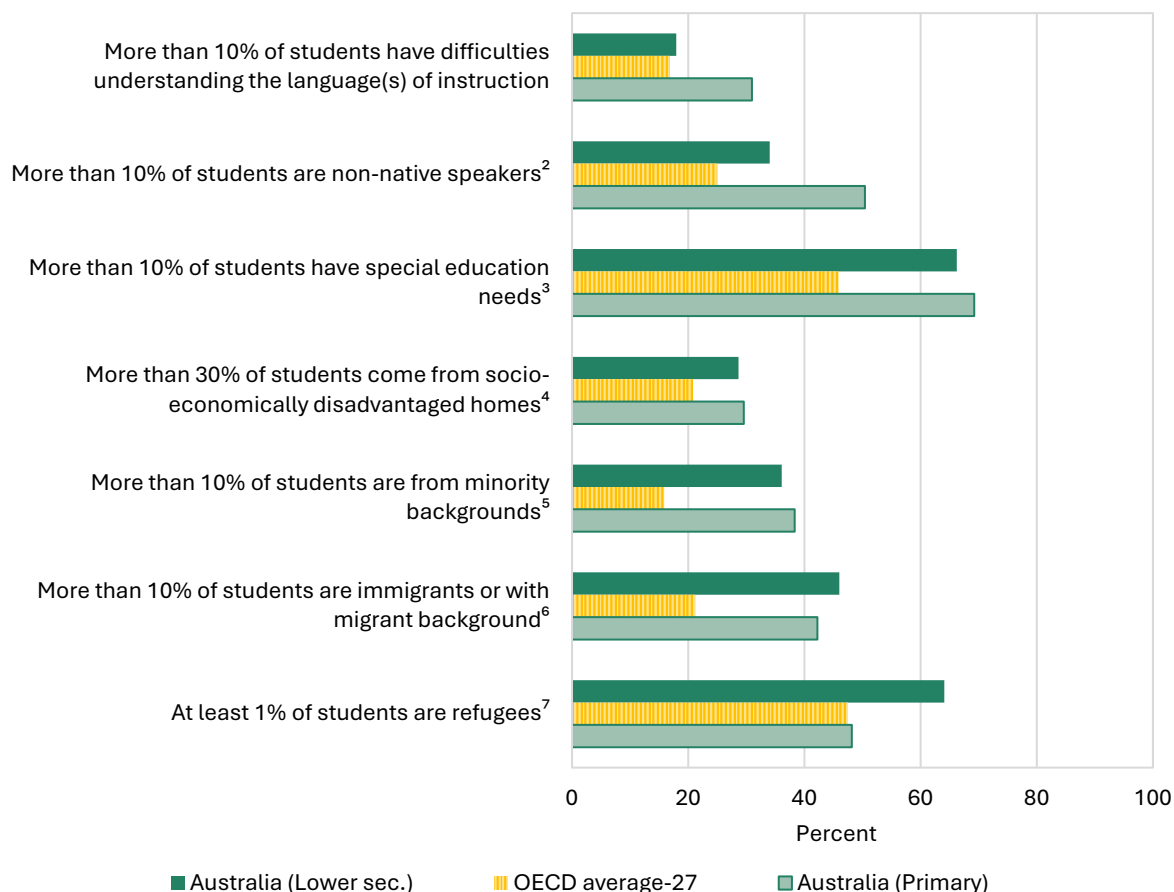
Approximately one-third of lower secondary teachers (34%) and half of primary teachers (50%) taught at schools where more than 10 per cent of students were non-native speakers. The result for lower secondary teachers was above the OECD average. Approximately 18 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers worked at schools where more than 10 per cent of students were reported to have difficulty understanding the language(s) of instruction. This figure was not statistically different from the OECD average. However, just under one-third (31%) of Australian primary teachers taught at schools where this occurred.

Approximately two-thirds of Australian teachers at both types of schools (66% lower secondary, 69% primary) worked at schools where more than 10 per cent of students had special education needs. These proportions were significantly higher than the OECD average at lower secondary level (46%).

Since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018, there was a significant increase in the proportion of schools reporting more than 10 per cent of students had special education needs. This proportion increased from 36 to 66 per cent of lower secondary schools and from 37 to 69 per cent of primary schools. There was no other significant change related to other composition types across this time period.

Figure 1.7 School composition

Percentage of teachers who worked at schools with the following compositions¹ (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals' responses and using final teacher weights.

² Students who are non-native speakers refer to students whose first language is different from the language(s) of instruction or from a dialect of this/these language(s).

³ Students with special needs are those for whom a special learning need has been formally identified because they are mentally, physically or emotionally disadvantaged.

⁴ Socio-economically disadvantaged homes refer to homes lacking the basic necessities or advantages of life, such as adequate housing, nutrition or medical care.

⁵ Minority backgrounds refer to ethnic/national minorities or Indigenous communities.

⁶ Immigrant students refer to students who are immigrants or with a migrant background, as reported by the school principal. An immigrant student is one who was born outside the country. A student with a migrant background has parents who were both born outside the country.

⁷ Refugee students are those who, regardless of legal status, fled to another country seeking refuge from war, political oppression, religious persecution or a natural disaster.

Source: OECD (2024), TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.PQ21.

1.5.1. Teacher self-efficacy when working in multicultural environments

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire included a question on the extent to which teachers can use a range of different teaching practices related to working in multicultural environments (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”). The proportions of teachers who selected “quite a bit” or “a lot” for each of the seven items are presented in Table 1.4 for Australian teachers at lower secondary and primary levels, as well as the OECD average (lower secondary), and high-performing PISA 2022 countries (lower secondary).

Large proportions of Australian teachers indicated they felt confident to: ensure that students with different cultural or ethnic backgrounds work together (70% at lower secondary, 78% at primary), reduce ethnic stereotyping among students (70% at lower secondary, 73% at primary), raise awareness for cultural differences among students (66% at lower secondary, 76% at primary), and ensure that students with and without a migrant background work together (64% at lower secondary, 71% at primary).

Lower proportions (but still a majority) of Australian teachers felt confident to adapt teaching to the cultural diversity of students (58% at lower secondary, 64% at primary), use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds (58% at lower secondary, 60% at primary), and critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes (55% at lower secondary, 51% at primary). Australian primary teachers had significantly higher self-efficacy compared to lower secondary teachers in raising awareness for cultural differences among students, ensuring that students with different cultural or ethnic backgrounds work together, ensuring that students with and without a migrant background work together, and adapting teaching to the cultural diversity of students.

At the lower secondary level, Australian teachers typically responded similarly to these items on self-efficacy to the OECD average, or a few percentage points lower. Australian primary teachers typically had higher self-efficacy for most, but not all, of these practices in comparison to lower secondary Australian teachers.

Table 1.4 Teachers' self-efficacy in multicultural environments
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who feel they can do the following "quite a bit" or "a lot"

	Adapt teaching to the cultural diversity of students		Ensure that students with and without a migrant background work together		Raise awareness for cultural differences among students		Reduce ethnic stereotyping among students		Ensure that students with different cultural or ethnic backgrounds work together		Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes		Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	58	(1.4)	64	(1.6)	66	(1.2)	70	(1.2)	70	(1.5)	55	(1.3)	58	(1.3)
Estonia	45	(1.5)	50	(1.5)	63	(1.2)	74	(1.0)	64	(1.3)	36	(1.1)	53	(1.2)
Japan	27	(1.1)	19	(1.2)	29	(1.1)	25	(1.0)	26	(1.1)	22	(0.9)	22	(1.1)
Korea	54	(1.5)	50	(1.4)	61	(1.2)	64	(1.2)	60	(1.2)	61	(1.4)	60	(1.5)
Shanghai (China)	79	(0.9)	50	(1.0)	72	(1.0)	68	(1.0)	70	(1.0)	68	(1.0)	71	(0.9)
Singapore	67	(1.1)	70	(1.0)	74	(1.0)	74	(1.0)	80	(1.0)	61	(1.3)	74	(1.1)
OECD average-27	63	(0.3)	66	(0.3)	71	(0.2)	73	(0.2)	74	(0.2)	54	(0.3)	64	(0.3)
Australia (Primary)	64	(1.4)	71	(1.5)	76	(1.2)	73	(1.2)	78	(1.2)	51	(1.4)	60	(1.6)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	6	(2.0)	6	(2.1)	10	(1.7)	3	(1.8)	8	(1.9)	-3	(1.9)	3	(2.1)

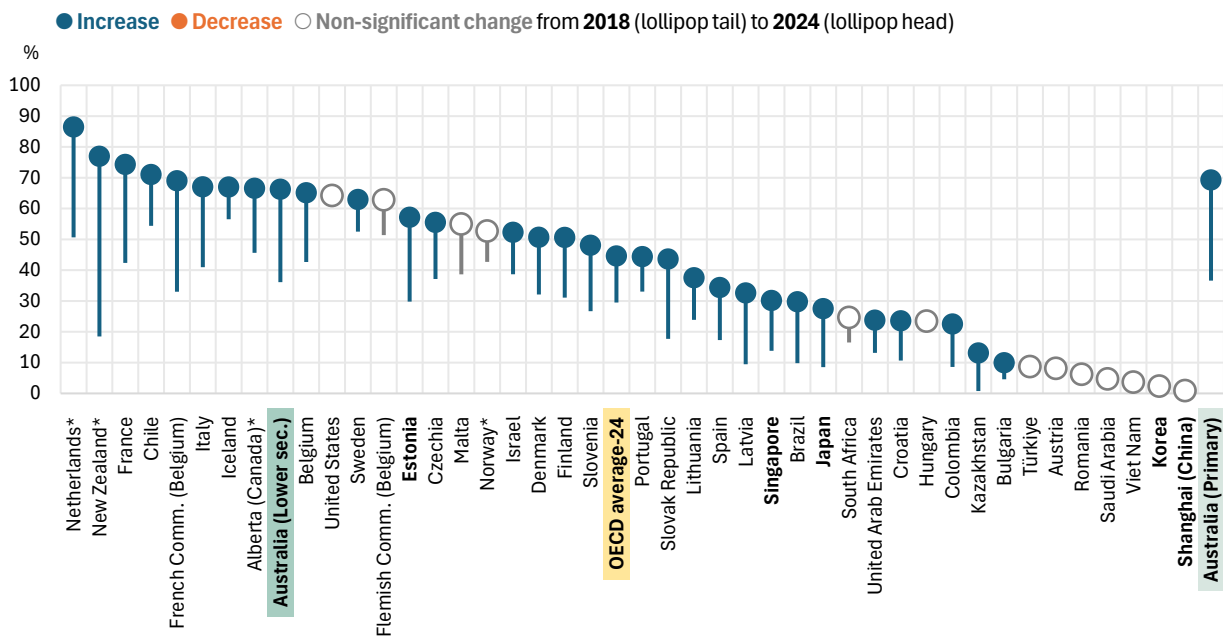
Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ28.

1.5.2. Special education needs

There were large increases in the proportions of Australian teachers who worked in a school that had more than 10 per cent of students with special education needs from 2018 to 2024 (see Figure 1.8). For Australian lower secondary teachers, this proportion increased from 36 per cent in 2018 to 66 per cent in 2024, and for Australian primary teachers this rose from 37 to 69 per cent. Over the same corresponding period, there was an average increase from 30 to 45 per cent of lower secondary teachers from OECD countries. These proportions tended to increase across most countries, suggesting there may have been changes in the criteria for how special education needs are identified. Among the high-performing PISA 2022 countries, Estonia, Singapore, and Japan also had large increases between 2018 to 2024, and there was no change in Korea or Shanghai (China). However, both surveys showed that in Korea and Shanghai (China), the proportions of teachers working at schools with where at least 10 per cent of students have special education needs students were very small.

Figure 1.8 Change in schools' intake of students with special education needs, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers teaching in schools with more than 10% of students who have special education needs¹ (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals' responses and using final teacher weights.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

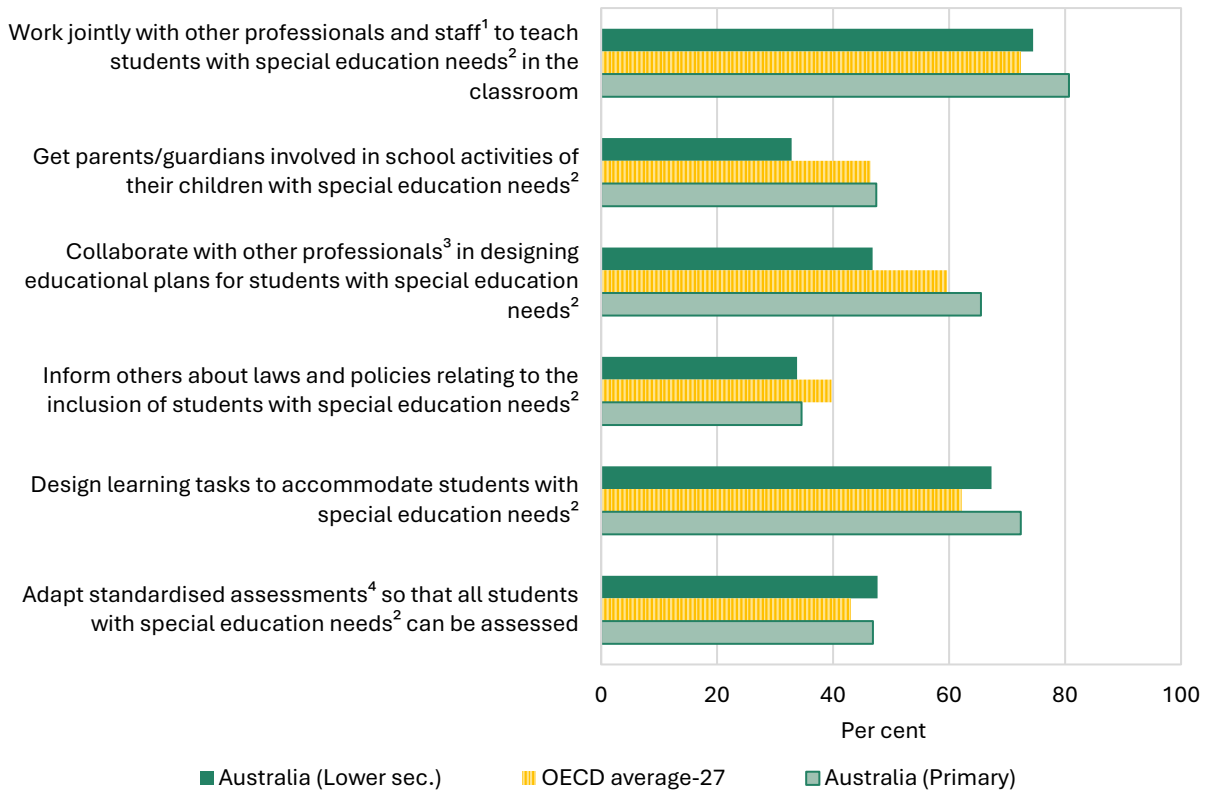
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR3.PQ21.

1.5.3. Teacher self-efficacy when teaching students with special needs

Teachers were asked to rate the extent that they can undertake six different practices related to special education needs students (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”). The proportions of teachers who indicated they could undertake these practices “quite a bit” or “a lot” are presented in Figure 1.9 for Australian teachers at lower secondary and primary levels and the OECD average at lower secondary level.

Figure 1.9 Teachers’ self-efficacy in inclusive practices for special education needs
Percentage of teachers who feel they can do the following “quite a bit” or “a lot”



¹ For example, aides and other teachers.

² Students with special needs are those for whom a special learning need has been formally identified because they are mentally, physically or emotionally disadvantaged.

³ For example, specialist teachers and speech pathologists.

⁴ Standardised assessments may refer to state, province, or region-wide assessments, depending on the context.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, BMUL.NO.TQ31.

Approximately 75 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers and 81 per cent of Australian primary teachers indicated that they could work jointly with other professionals and staff to teach students with special education needs in the classroom. A high proportion also felt confident in their ability to design learning tasks to accommodate students with special education needs (67% at lower secondary level, 72% at primary level). Just under half (47%) of lower secondary teachers were confident in their ability to collaborate with other professionals in designing educational plans for students with special education needs (compared to 65% at primary level). A similar proportion (48%) of lower secondary teachers were confident in adapting standardised assessments so that all students with special education needs could be assessed (47% at primary level). Approximately one-third of lower secondary teachers were confident to inform others about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of students with special education needs (34%), which was similar to the proportion among primary teachers (35%). Additionally, one-third of lower

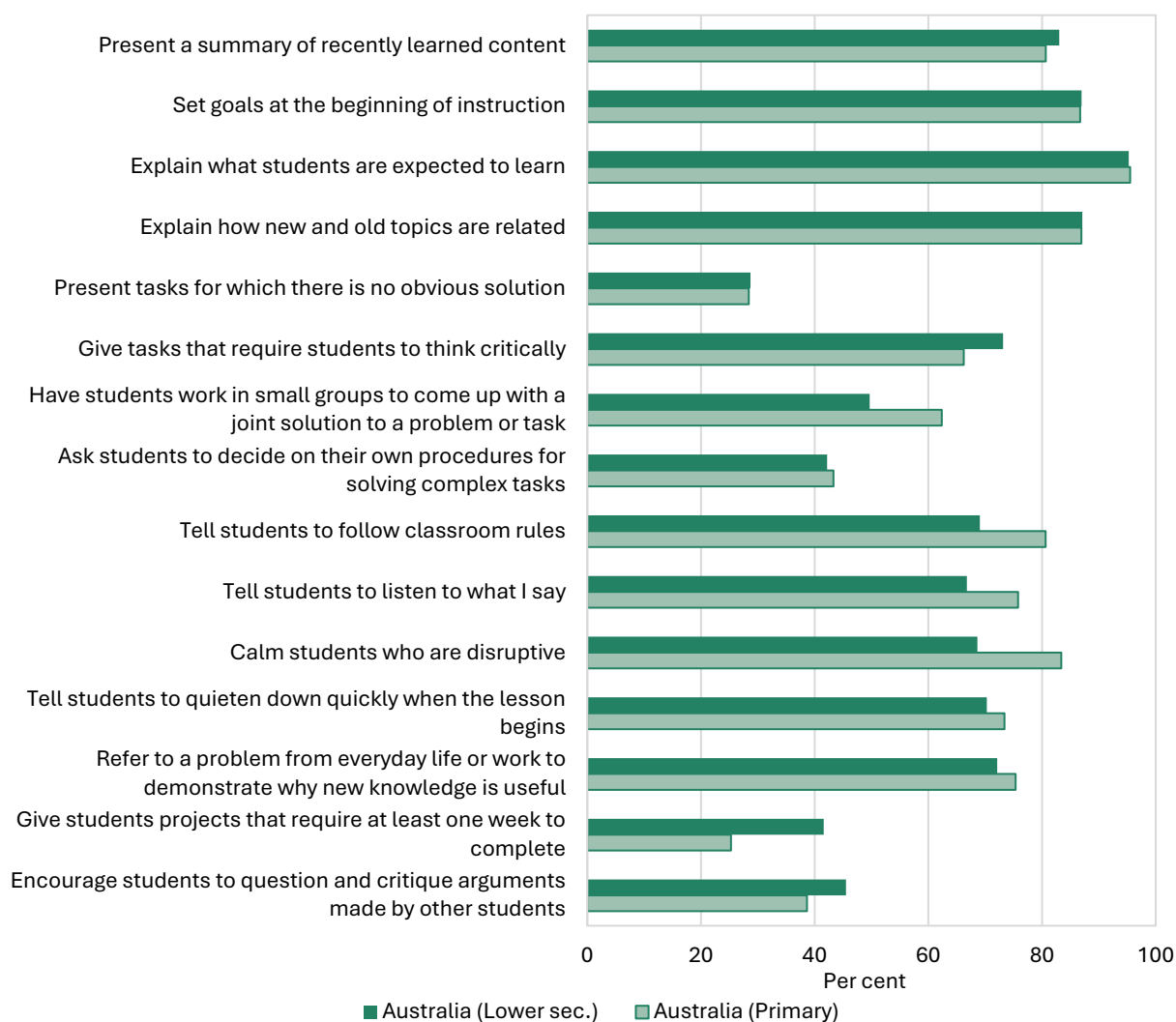
secondary teachers were confident to get parents/guardians involved in the school activities of their children with special education needs (33%). In contrast, 47 per cent of primary teachers were confident regarding this practice.

Australian lower secondary teachers expressed less confidence than the OECD average in collaborating with other professionals in designing educational plans for students with special education needs and getting parents/guardians involved in the school activities of their children with special education needs.

1.6 Teaching practices

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire required teachers to report how often they engaged in a range of classroom practices (“never or almost never”, “occasionally”, “frequently”, or “always or almost always”). The proportion of teachers selecting “frequently” or “always or almost always” for each practice is presented in Figure 1.10 for Australian teachers at lower secondary and primary levels.

Figure 1.10 Teaching practices
Percentage of teachers reporting that they “frequently” or “always” use the following practices in their class¹



¹ Refers to teachers’ practices in a randomly chosen class from their current weekly timetable.

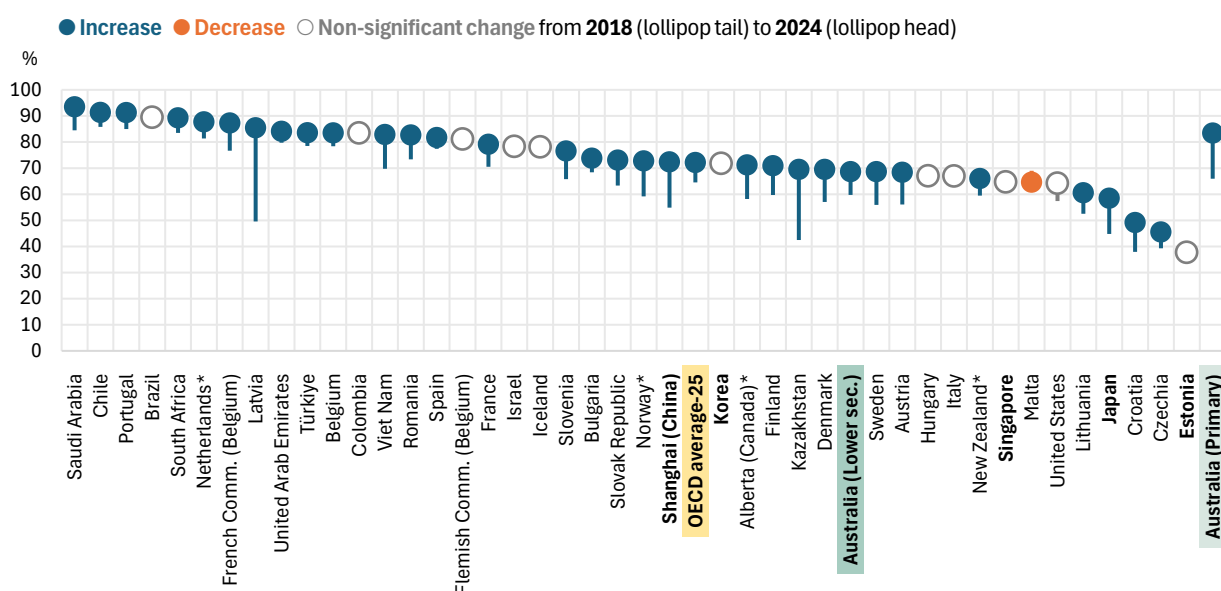
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ51.

The practices most commonly reported by Australian teachers were explaining what students are expected to learn (95% at lower secondary, 96% and primary), explaining how new and old topics are related (87% at both lower secondary and primary), and setting goals at the beginning of instruction (87% at both lower secondary and primary). The practices reported less frequently were presenting tasks for which there were no obvious solutions (29% at lower secondary, 28% at primary), and asking students to decide on their own procedures for solving complex tasks (42% at lower secondary, 43% at primary).

Larger differences between the education levels were found for giving students projects that required at least one week to complete (42% at lower secondary, 25% at primary), calming students who are disruptive (69% at lower secondary, 83% at primary), having students work in small groups to come up with a joint solution to a problem or task (50% at lower secondary, 62% at primary), telling students to follow classroom rules (69% at lower secondary, 81% at primary), and telling students to listen to what the teacher says (67% at lower secondary, 76% at primary).

Figure 1.11 compares responses to the item asking whether teachers “frequently” or “always” calm students who are disruptive for all TALIS lower secondary countries, as well as the OECD average (lower secondary) and Australia’s results for primary teachers. The proportion of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who reported calming disruptive students had increased since the previous cycle. In 2018 60 per cent of lower secondary teachers and 66 per cent of primary teachers calmed disruptive students at least frequently, compared to 69 per cent and 83 per cent, respectively, in 2024. Increases in this practice among lower secondary teachers were also observed in many other TALIS countries and were also reflected in the OECD average. Among the high-performing PISA 2022 countries, Shanghai (China) and Japan both saw increases in this practice over time, whereas no differences were observed for Korea, Singapore, or Estonia.

Figure 1.11 Change in frequency of teachers calming students who are disruptive
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they “frequently” or “always” calm students who are disruptive¹



¹ These data refer to a class randomly selected from teachers’ current weekly timetable during the week preceding the survey.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

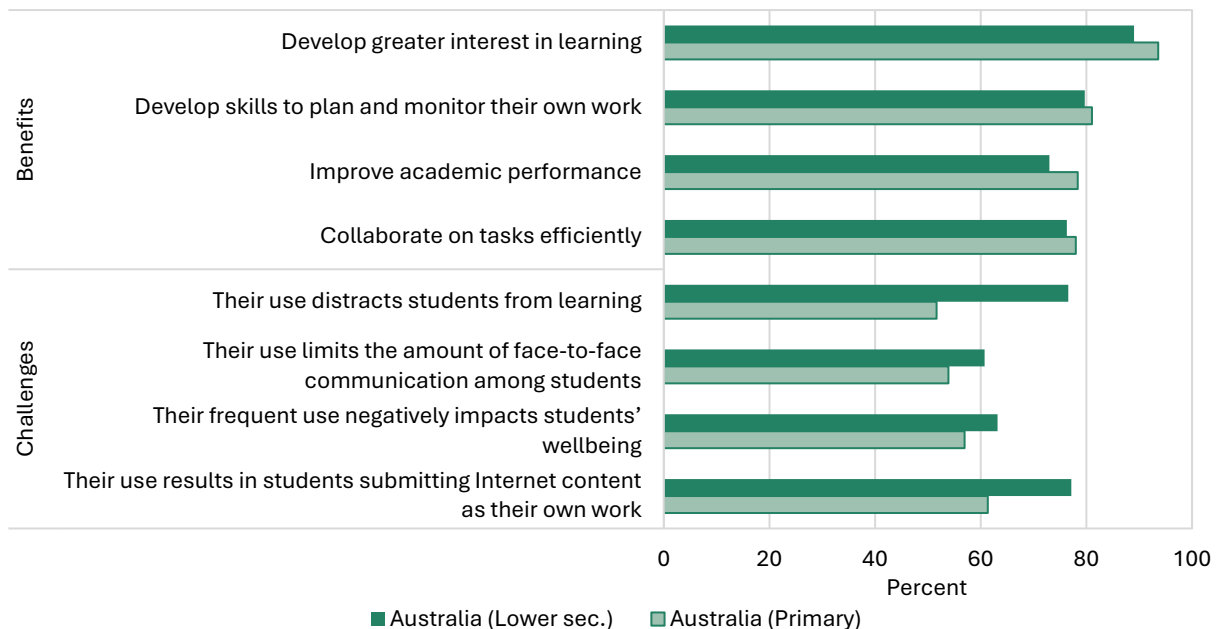
Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ51-I.

1.7 Technology and teaching

1.7.1. Digital resources and tools

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire included a set of questions asking teachers about their views regarding the use of digital resources and tools for student learning. Teachers were asked to indicate their level of agreement (“strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree”, or “strongly agree”) with eight statements, some of which were related to benefits, while others concerned challenges that arise when students use digital resources and tools. The proportions of Australian teachers (at both lower secondary and primary levels) who agreed with each of the statements (“agree” or “strongly agree”) are presented in Figure 1.12.

Figure 1.12 Teachers’ views of the benefits and challenges of students using digital resources and tools
Percentage of teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements about the use of digital resources and tools



Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables BMUL.NO.TQ34abch and BMUL.NO.TQ34defg.

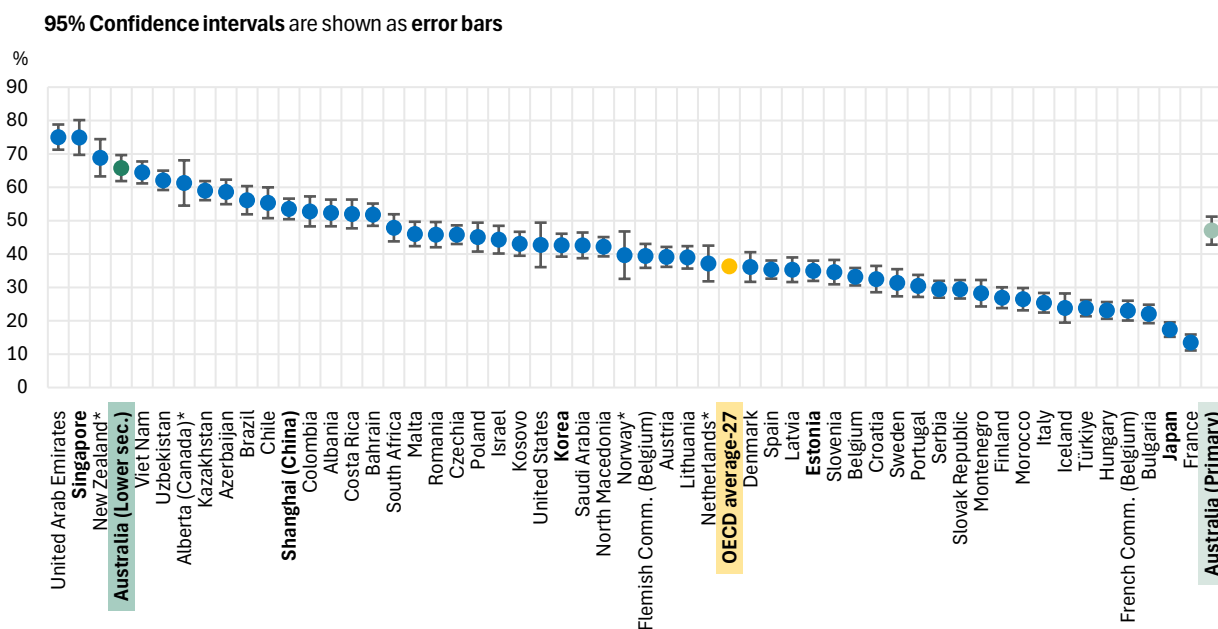
Australian teachers at both lower secondary and primary levels were quite positive about the benefits of students using digital resources and tools. They believed that these helped to develop greater interest in learning (89% at lower secondary, 94% at primary), to develop skills to plan and monitor students’ own work (80% at lower secondary, 81% at primary), and to collaborate on tasks efficiently (76% at lower secondary, 78% at primary). Improvement in academic performance was regarded as a benefit by 73 per cent of lower secondary teachers and 78 per cent of primary teachers.

There was also strong agreement from Australian teachers regarding some challenges that are related to students’ use of these resources. Large proportions of teachers agreed that students’ use of digital resources and tools could result in students submitting internet content as their own work (77% at lower secondary, 61% at primary). More than three-quarters of lower secondary teachers (77%) agreed that their use distracted students from learning, contrasting with only 52% of primary teachers. Majorities of teachers also agreed that these resources and tools limit the amount of face-to-face communication among students (61% at lower secondary, 54% at primary) and that their frequent use negatively impacted students’ wellbeing (63% at lower secondary, 57% at primary).

1.7.2. Artificial intelligence

For the first time in 2024, TALIS introduced a series of questions about teachers' use of artificial intelligence (AI), and their beliefs about its role in education. The proportions of lower secondary teachers who reported using AI within the previous year are presented in Figure 1.13 for lower secondary teachers across TALIS (including comparisons with primary teachers in Australia). Approximately two-thirds (66%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported using AI in the previous year, a figure that was amongst the highest of all TALIS countries. This proportion was considerably higher than both the OECD lower secondary average (36%) and the proportions for Australian primary teachers (47%) and four of the high-performing PISA 2022 countries (Estonia, Japan, Korea, and Shanghai (China)). However, there were more teachers in Singapore who used AI (75%).

Figure 1.13 Teachers' use of artificial intelligence
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they used AI^{1,2} in the last year



¹ Artificial intelligence (AI) is the capacity for computers to perform tasks traditionally thought to involve human intelligence. This can include making predictions, suggesting decisions or generating text.

² Includes the use of AI in teaching or to facilitate student learning in the 12 months prior to the survey.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.NO.TQ36.

Those teachers who indicated that they use AI in their teaching were asked what they use it for in their teaching or to facilitate learning. The proportions of teachers who used AI and selected they do use AI for different tasks are presented in Table 1.5. Data are presented for teachers from Australia (lower secondary and primary), for the high-performing PISA 2022 countries, and for the OECD average (lower secondary).

The most common uses of AI among Australian lower secondary teachers were to efficiently learn about and summarise a topic (71%) and to generate lesson plans or activities (71%). Fewer teachers reported using AI to generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications (42%) or to automatically adjust the difficulty of lesson materials according to

students' learning needs (46%). Less frequent uses included supporting students with special education needs (29%), helping students practise new skills in real-life scenarios (26%), assessing or marking student work (15%), and reviewing data on student participation or performance (9%).

Among Australian primary teachers patterns were similar, with 68% reporting using AI to generate lesson plans or activities and 64% to efficiently learn about and summarise a topic. A higher proportion of primary teachers compared to their lower secondary colleagues reported using AI to generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications (53% vs 42%), but fewer primary teachers used it to efficiently learn and summarise a topic.

Compared to the OECD average, Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to use AI to generate lesson plans, automatically adjust the difficulty of lesson materials according to students' learning needs, and generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications, but less likely to use AI to help students practise new skills in real-life scenarios, support students with special education needs, assess or mark student work, or review data on student participation.

Different patterns of AI use were seen in the high-performing PISA 2022 countries in Table 1.5. For example, Australian teachers were less likely to use AI to assess or mark student work or review data on student participation than each of these countries.

Table 1.5 Teachers' practices regarding AI
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting using AI¹ to do the following tasks

	Efficiently learn about and summarise a topic		Generate lesson plans or activities		Automatically adjust the difficulty of lesson materials according to students' learning needs		Help students practice new skills in real-life scenarios ²		Support students with special education needs		Assess or mark student work		Generate text for student feedback or parent/guardian communications		Review data on student participation or performance	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	71	(2.1)	71	(1.8)	46	(2.7)	26	(1.8)	29	(2.2)	15	(1.5)	42	(1.9)	9	(1.3)
Estonia	71	(2.5)	68	(2.9)	36	(2.8)	48	(2.4)	29	(2.5)	19	(2.3)	30	(2.9)	21	(2.5)
Japan	63	(3.2)	44	(4.1)	40	(4.1)	37	(3.3)	39	(4.0)	41	(3.8)	33	(3.5)	34	(3.3)
Korea	50	(2.7)	58	(2.5)	29	(2.6)	51	(2.9)	9	(1.6)	31	(2.2)	42	(3.0)	37	(2.4)
Shanghai (China)	72	(1.8)	55	(2.1)	48	(2.0)	51	(2.2)	39	(2.0)	45	(2.2)	36	(2.1)	58	(2.1)
Singapore	77	(1.5)	65	(2.0)	40	(2.0)	40	(1.8)	16	(2.1)	34	(1.5)	69	(2.3)	28	(1.8)
OECD average-27	68	(0.6)	64	(0.6)	37	(0.6)	46	(0.6)	35	(0.6)	26	(0.5)	32	(0.5)	25	(0.5)
Australia (Primary)	64	(2.7)	68	(2.5)	39	(2.3)	23	(2.3)	23	(2.2)	14	(1.9)	53	(2.6)	12	(1.9)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	-7.0	(3.4)	-3.2	(3.1)	-6.6	(3.5)	-3.2	(2.9)	-5.8	(3.1)	-1.1	(2.4)	11.1	(3.2)	3.0	(2.3)

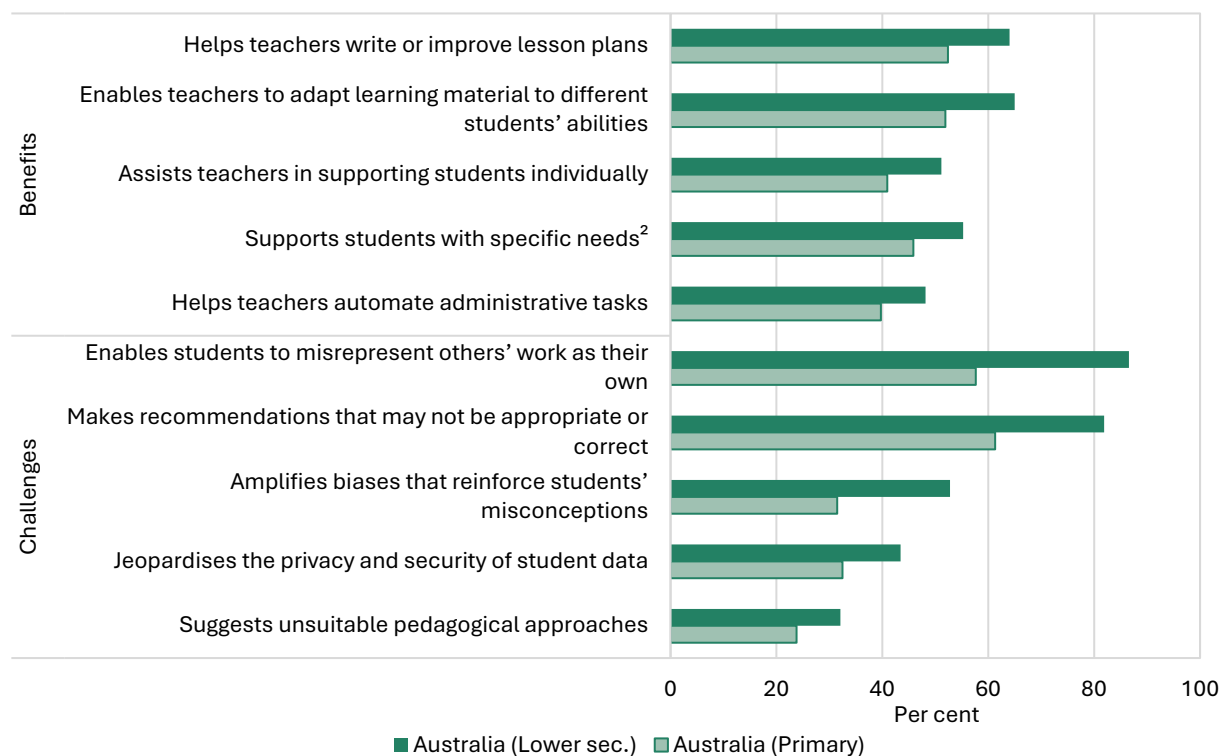
¹ Artificial intelligence (AI) is the capacity for computers to perform tasks traditionally thought to involve human intelligence. This can include making predictions, suggesting decisions or generating text.

² For example, foreign language learning, creative writing, computer coding, problem solving.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ37.

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire included a question asking teachers to indicate their agreement with a series of statements about the benefits and challenges of using AI in education (“strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, or “strongly disagree”). The proportions of Australian teachers (at both lower secondary and primary levels) who selected “strongly agree” or “agree” to each of these statements are presented in Figure 1.14.

Figure 1.14 Teachers’ views of the benefits and challenges regarding AI use in education
Percentage of teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that the use of AI¹ does the following



¹ Artificial intelligence (AI) is the capacity for computers to perform tasks traditionally thought to involve human intelligence. This can include making predictions, suggesting decisions or generating text.

² For example, multilingual learners, students with special education needs.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables BMUL.NO.TQ35abcde and BMUL.NO.TQ35fghij.

The benefits of using AI tools in education that were most commonly reported by Australian teachers were enabling teachers to adapt learning material to different students’ abilities (65% at lower secondary, 52% at primary), helping teachers write or improve lesson plans (64% at lower secondary, 52% at primary), and supporting students with specific needs (55% at lower secondary, 46% at primary). Somewhat lower proportions of teachers indicated that AI assists teachers in supporting students individually (51% at lower secondary, 41% at primary) and helps teachers automate administrative tasks (48% at lower secondary, 40% at primary).

The challenges that were most commonly reported by Australian teachers were that AI tools enable students to misrepresent others’ work as their own (87% at lower secondary, 58% at primary). Large proportions of teachers also believed that AI made recommendations that might not be appropriate or correct (82% at lower secondary, 61% at primary). Other challenges included the risk of amplifying biases that reinforce students’ misconceptions (53% at lower secondary, 31% at primary), jeopardising the privacy and security of student data (43% at lower secondary, 32% at primary), and suggesting unsuitable pedagogical approaches (32% at lower secondary, 24% at primary).

Teachers who reported not using AI in their teaching in the previous 12 months were asked to indicate the reasons why they didn't use it. The responses to the items in this question are presented in Table 1.6 for Australian teachers, the OECD average (lower secondary), and the high-performing PISA 2022 countries.

Table 1.6 Barriers to using AI in teaching
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting the following barriers to using AI¹ to teach or facilitate student learning²

	My school lacks the infrastructure ³ to use AI		I do not have the knowledge and skills to teach using AI		I do not believe we should use AI in teaching		My school does not allow the use of AI in teaching		I feel overwhelmed by integrating new technologies in my teaching	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	25	(3.4)	75	(2.8)	42	(3.4)	12	(2.3)	35	(2.8)
Estonia	25	(1.9)	78	(1.7)	60	(2.2)	7	(1.1)	30	(2.0)
Japan	65	(1.7)	88	(1.1)	26	(1.6)	18	(1.5)	55	(1.7)
Korea	52	(2.5)	76	(2.1)	54	(2.5)	7	(1.1)	49	(2.1)
Shanghai (China)	73	(2.1)	74	(1.9)	23	(1.9)	9	(1.3)	26	(2.0)
Singapore	24	(2.4)	65	(3.0)	26	(2.7)	2	(0.8)	39	(3.4)
OECD average-27	37	(0.5)	75	(0.4)	48	(0.5)	12	(0.3)	33	(0.4)
Australia (Primary)	35	(2.4)	84	(2.2)	42	(2.7)	18	(2.5)	41	(2.5)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	10	(4.2)	9	(3.5)	0	(4.3)	6	(3.4)	7	(3.7)

¹ Artificial intelligence (AI) is the capacity for computers to perform tasks traditionally thought to involve human intelligence. This can include making predictions, suggesting decisions or generating text.

² Of the teachers who reported that they have not used AI in their teaching in the 12 months prior to the survey.

³ In terms of digital tools and resources.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ38.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers who reported not using AI, the most frequently reported barrier was a lack of knowledge and skills to teach using AI (75%), followed by not believing we should be using AI in teaching (42%), and feeling overwhelmed by integrating new technologies in their teaching (35%). Relatively few teachers attributed the lack of use to school level factors such as their school lacking the infrastructure to use AI (25%) or that their school does not allow the use of AI in teaching (12%).

Comparatively the responses from Australian primary teachers were largely similar, however, they were more likely than Australian lower secondary teachers to indicate that their school lacks the infrastructure to use AI (35% compared to 25%) and report that they do not have the knowledge and skills to teach using AI (84% to 75%). Australian lower secondary teachers tended to respond similarly to the average across OECD countries, however, they were less likely to indicate that their school lacks the infrastructure to use AI (25% compared to 37%). There was a different pattern of responses to this question among high-performing PISA 2022 comparison countries in Table 1.6.



2 Thriving in teaching

Highlights

- Most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported that they had often fulfilled their aims for their lessons, including being able to present content in a comprehensible way, engaging students in work that challenged them, and offering students opportunities to practise what they learned.
- Australian teachers reported quite high stress levels compared to the OECD on average. Over one-third of both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers indicated that they were experiencing a lot of stress. At both education levels, teachers in 2024 reported significantly higher stress levels compared to 2018.
- Approximately one in seven Australian teachers reported that their job had a substantial negative impact on their mental health, while one in ten reported a similar effect on their physical health.
- In Australia, female lower secondary teachers expressed higher levels of stress than male teachers. At both education levels younger teachers (aged under 30 years) indicated having higher stress levels than older teachers (aged over 50 years).
- Just under half of Australian teachers at both lower secondary and primary levels had poor levels of wellbeing according to an index developed by the World Health Organization (WHO-5). Female teachers and younger teachers at lower secondary level reported lower levels of wellbeing.
- Australian teachers at both education levels expressed high levels of job satisfaction, even though there was a significant drop in satisfaction since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. The level of satisfaction at lower secondary level is similar to the average of teachers from OECD countries.
- Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to experience higher levels of stress if they worked at schools with a higher intake of socio-economically disadvantaged students.
- There was a strong relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction.
- Australian lower secondary teachers had higher levels of growth mindset than what was reported on average across OECD countries.
- There were strong relationships between increased demands of teaching and lower levels of wellbeing, lower job satisfaction, and some aspects of Australian teachers' fulfilment of their lesson aims among both lower secondary and primary teachers.
- The intensity of some tasks such as marking/correcting of student work and general administrative work contributed to lower levels of Australian teacher wellbeing.

2.1 Introduction

It has been suggested that teachers’ work has become, and is becoming, increasingly complex (OECD, 2019a). Although the core work of teachers may have remained broadly similar over time, their roles have extended beyond classroom processes, to collegial coaching and co-operation, teacher leadership, and engagement in continuous professional development (Maulana et al., 2023). This means that teachers’ perceptions of thriving as professionals may have changed along with changes in the environments in which they work. This chapter provides an overview of teachers’ perceptions of their professional outcomes and how these have evolved in recent years. It investigates which teacher and school characteristics are associated with higher levels of professional thriving. The analysis further examines how teachers’ self-efficacy and beliefs in a growth mindset are linked to variations in their professional outcomes. The chapter concludes by exploring the relationship between the demands placed on teachers and their fulfilment of lesson aims, as well as their wellbeing and job satisfaction.

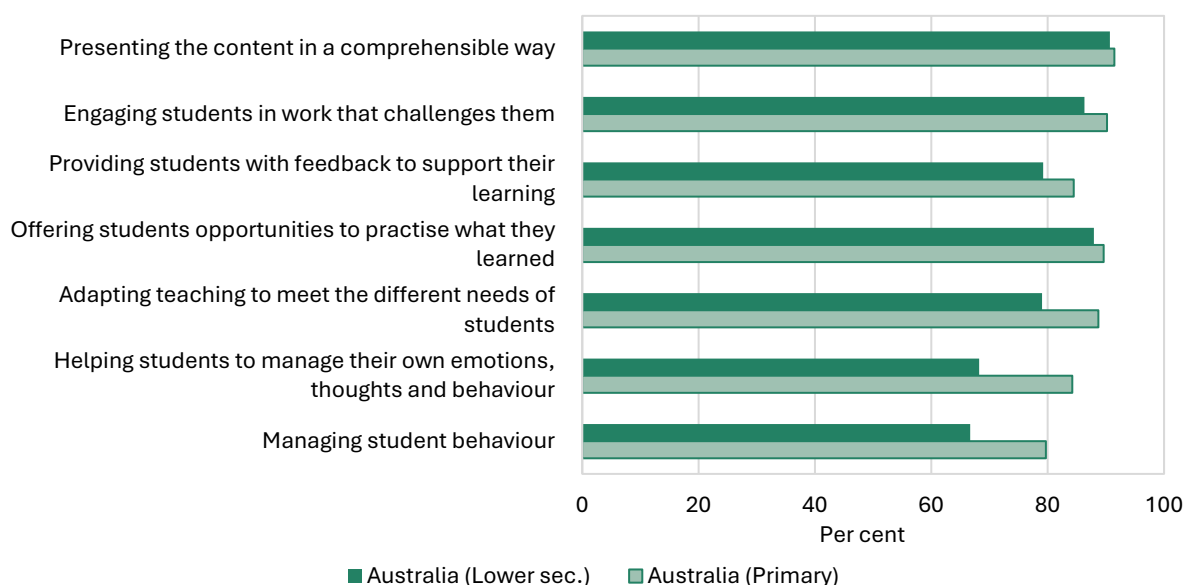
2.2 Teachers’ professional outcomes

The professional outcomes considered throughout this report include teachers’ self-reported fulfilment of lesson aims, wellbeing, job satisfaction, and career intentions. This chapter focuses on the first three aspects. Teachers’ career intentions, which are key to understanding teacher retention and attrition, are addressed in Chapter 7.

2.2.1. Fulfilment of lesson aims

Teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which their lessons had achieved a range of aims (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”). Figure 2.1 shows the proportions of teachers who reported achieving each aim “quite a bit” or “a lot”.

Figure 2.1 Teachers’ fulfilment of their lesson aims
Percentage of teachers reporting that they fulfil the following lesson aims “quite a bit” or “a lot”¹



¹ These data refer to lessons taught over the week preceding the survey to a class randomly selected from teachers’ current weekly timetables.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ58.

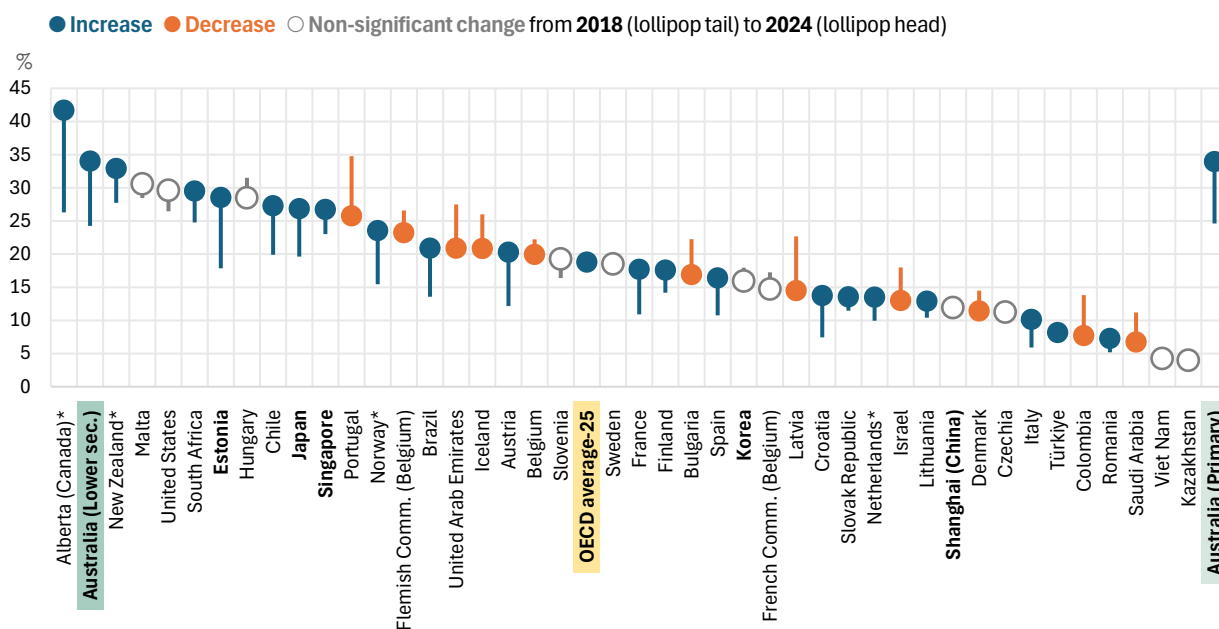
The aims most frequently reported by Australian teachers as being achieved were presenting the content in a comprehensible way (91% at lower secondary, 92% at primary), engaging students in work that challenges them (86% at lower secondary, 90% at primary), and offering students opportunities to practise what they learned (88% at lower secondary, 90% at primary). Providing students with feedback to support their learning (79% at lower secondary, 84% at primary) and adapting teaching to meet the different needs of students (79% at lower secondary, 89% at primary) were also reported by large majorities of teachers.

Lower proportions of Australian teachers indicated that they helped students manage their own emotions, thoughts and behaviour (68% at lower secondary, 84% at primary) or managed student behaviour (67% at lower secondary, 80% at primary). Primary teachers were notably more likely than their lower secondary counterparts to report achieving these aims to a greater extent.

2.2.2. Wellbeing

Teachers were asked to rate the extent (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”) that different aspects of their wellbeing occur in their experience at their school (experiencing stress in their work, their job leaving time for personal life, their job negatively impacting their mental health, and their job negatively impacting their physical health). The proportions of teachers who indicated that they experience stress “a lot” is presented in Figure 2.2 for all TALIS lower secondary countries, as well as for Australian primary students and the OECD average (lower secondary). Comparisons are made against the TALIS 2018 results.

Figure 2.2 Change in teachers’ stress, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary teachers reporting that they experience stress “a lot” in their work with comparisons to primary level



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ76.

Among TALIS countries, Australian teachers indicated the highest stress levels (only the Canadian province of Alberta recorded higher ratings of stress among lower secondary teachers). Just over one-third of Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers (both 34%) reported

experiencing a lot of stress. This was a significant increase for both groups of teachers since the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018 (24% at lower secondary, 25% at primary). Over that period, there was a small but significant increase in stress among lower secondary teachers on average across OECD countries (from 17% in 2018 to 19% in 2024). Proportions of lower secondary teachers indicating a lot of stress also increased in three of the five high-performing PISA 2022 countries (Estonia 29%, Japan 27%, Singapore 27%) but did not change in Korea or Shanghai (China), whose teachers reported considerably lower stress levels (16% and 12% respectively).

About one in 20 Australian teachers indicated their job left them “a lot” of personal time (5% at both education levels). Approximately one out of seven Australian teachers indicated that their job negatively impacted their mental health a lot (15% at both lower secondary and primary) and about one out of ten teachers indicated that it impacted their physical health a lot (11% at both lower secondary and primary). The reported impacts on both mental and physical health increased significantly between 2018 and 2024.

The proportions of teachers who rated themselves as feeling stressed “a lot” is further reported by gender group and age group in Table 2.1. Australian female teachers were more stressed than their male counterparts at the lower secondary level, with a difference of more than seven percentage points. There was no gender difference recorded for primary teachers. The difference for lower secondary teachers was similar to that of the OECD average. When observing teacher stress by age groups, at both education levels, younger teachers (those younger than 30 years old) reported being more stressed than older teachers (greater than or equal to 50 years old). There was a difference of seven percentage points at lower secondary level and nine percentage points at primary level. Differences of a similar size were found between age groups across the average of OECD countries.

Table 2.1 Teachers’ stress according to teacher characteristics
Percentage of teachers reporting that they experience stress “a lot” in their work

	Total		By gender						By age							
			Female		Male		Male – Female		< Age 30 (a)		Age 30–49		≥ Age 50 (b)		Difference (b) – (a)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	34	(1.3)	36	(1.8)	29	(1.7)	-7	(2.4)	36	(2.5)	36	(1.6)	30	(2.0)	-7	(3.1)
OECD average-27	19	(0.2)	21	(0.2)	15	(0.3)	-6	(0.4)	22	(0.6)	21	(0.2)	17	(0.3)	-6	(0.7)
Australia (Primary)	34	(1.2)	34	(1.3)	33	(3.0)	-2	(3.3)	38	(2.3)	35	(1.5)	29	(2.3)	-9	(2.7)

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ76a.

Australian teachers were also asked an additional question about their mental wellbeing (The World Health Organization-Five Wellbeing Index (WHO-5)). The question asked them how they had been feeling over the previous two weeks and asked them if they felt cheerful and in good spirits, calm and relaxed, active and vigorous, feeling fresh and rested, and that their daily life had been filled with things that interested them (“at no time”, “some of the time”, “less than half of the time”, “more than half of the time”, “most of the time”, or “all of the time”). Respondents were given a score out of 100 where 0 represents the worst possible wellbeing, and 100 represents the best

possible wellbeing¹. Topp, Ostergaard, Søndergaard and Bech (2015) suggest that a score below 50 could be considered poor mental health wellbeing and may require assessment for a mental health condition.

Summary statistics for this scale are provided in Table 2.2. The mean scores out of 100 were 51 for Australian lower secondary teachers and 52 for Australian primary teachers. Using the criteria suggested above, 47 per cent of Australian lower secondary and 45 per cent of Australian primary teachers scored below 50 and could be considered as having poor mental health wellbeing. When examining these scores broken down by teacher characteristics, at the lower secondary level, female teachers had lower wellbeing scores than males, and younger teachers also reported lower levels of wellbeing than older teachers. These findings mirrored those reported in Table 2.1. No differences were found between subgroups of teachers at the primary level. The wellbeing results from TALIS mirrored other recent data collections for an Australian population (see Granziera et al., 2025).

¹ Unlike scales that were part of the international administration of TALIS which are derived using item-response theory, this scale is computed using simple addition of the responses to the five items and converting the sum product to a score out of 100.

Table 2.2 Teachers' wellbeing according to the WHO-5 index by teacher characteristics
Mean wellbeing scores of teachers by gender, age, and years of teaching experience

	Total		By gender						By age								By years of teaching experience							
			Female		Male		Male – Female		< Age 30 (a)		Age 30–49		≥ Age 50 (b)		Difference (b) – (a)		≤ 5 years (a)		6–10 years		> 10 years (b)		Difference (b) – (a)	
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	51	(0.8)	50	(0.9)	55	(1.7)	5	(1.9)	50	(1.6)	49	(1.1)	55	(1.4)	5	(1.8)	51	(1.6)	49	(2.0)	52	(1.1)	1	(2.2)
Australia (Primary)	52	(0.8)	53	(0.9)	49	(2.3)	-3	(2.5)	52	(2.0)	50	(1.1)	54	(1.5)	2	(1.9)	52	(1.8)	51	(1.9)	52	(1.1)	0	(2.2)

Notes: Mean scores on the World Health Organization-Five Wellbeing Index (WHO-5) are calculated by totalling the scores on the five questions and then multiplying by four. This provides a score out of 100. Scale source: <https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/WHO-UCN-MSD-MHE-2024.01>. Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: TALIS 2024 Australian National variable.

2.2.3. Job satisfaction

TALIS 2024 included a question for teachers about their satisfaction with the teaching profession. Teachers were asked to give their level of agreement (“strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, or “strongly disagree”) to a series of statements about being a teacher. The proportions of teachers agreeing (“strongly agree” or “agree”) with each statement are presented in Table 2.3.

Approximately three-quarters of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers (both 74%) agreed that the advantages of being a teacher clearly outweigh the disadvantages, although the proportion agreeing with this statement decreased significantly since the previous cycle in 2018 (88% at lower secondary, 87% at primary). The proportion at lower secondary level was of a similar size than the average across OECD countries, although at this level no decline was recorded between 2018 and 2024.

Over 70 per cent of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers indicated that if they could decide again, they would still choose to work as a teacher. Again, this proportion was significantly lower than in 2018 among both groups of teachers (a decrease of 12 percentage points among both lower secondary and primary teachers). This decrease was similar to the OECD average and to the differences in four out of the five comparison countries (there was no significant change over time for Estonia).

The proportions of Australian teachers reporting that they regret deciding to become a teacher doubled since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018, from six per cent of lower secondary and five per cent of primary teachers to 11 per cent at each education level. The 2024 proportions were of a similar size to those recorded on average for lower secondary teachers across OECD countries, where there was a marginal increase over time.

Job satisfaction decreased significantly (by 6 to 7 percentage points), even though most Australian teachers did report being satisfied with their job (84% at lower secondary, 85% at primary). There were also relatively small decreases across the average of OECD countries and in four of the five high-performing PISA 2022 countries (Shanghai (China) being the exception).

Table 2.3 Change in teachers' satisfaction with the teaching profession, from 2018 to 2024

Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements about the teaching profession

	The advantages of being a teacher clearly outweigh the disadvantages						If I could decide again, I would still choose to work as a teacher						I regret that I decided to become a teacher						Overall, I am satisfied with my job					
	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	88	(0.7)	74	(1.1)	-14	(1.3)	83	(0.9)	71	(1.0)	-12	(1.3)	6	(0.5)	11	(0.7)	5	(0.9)	90	(0.6)	84	(0.7)	-6	(0.9)
Estonia	80	(1.0)	77	(0.8)	-3	(1.3)	74	(0.9)	76	(0.8)	2	(1.2)	6	(0.5)	7	(0.5)	1	(0.8)	94	(0.5)	93	(0.5)	-1	(0.7)
Japan	74	(0.9)	72	(0.9)	-2	(1.3)	55	(1.1)	49	(1.1)	-6	(1.5)	8	(0.5)	13	(0.7)	5	(0.9)	82	(0.7)	79	(0.8)	-3	(1.1)
Korea	86	(0.7)	77	(1.1)	-9	(1.3)	67	(1.1)	59	(1.0)	-8	(1.5)	19	(1.0)	21	(0.9)	2	(1.4)	89	(0.8)	85	(0.8)	-4	(1.1)
Shanghai (China)	77	(0.8)	79	(0.7)	2	(1.1)	77	(0.8)	84	(0.7)	7	(1.1)	13	(0.7)	12	(0.6)	-1	(0.9)	90	(0.6)	92	(0.4)	1	(0.7)
Singapore	85	(0.6)	77	(0.7)	-8	(0.9)	82	(0.8)	75	(0.8)	-7	(1.1)	8	(0.5)	11	(0.6)	3	(0.8)	89	(0.6)	87	(0.6)	-2	(0.8)
OECD average-25	75	(0.2)	74	(0.2)	0	(0.3)	75	(0.2)	73	(0.2)	-2	(0.3)	10	(0.1)	11	(0.1)	1	(0.2)	90	(0.1)	89	(0.1)	-1	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	87	(0.8)	74	(1.1)	-13	(1.3)	83	(0.9)	71	(1.2)	-12	(1.5)	5	(0.5)	11	(0.8)	6	(0.9)	91	(0.7)	85	(1.0)	-7	(1.2)

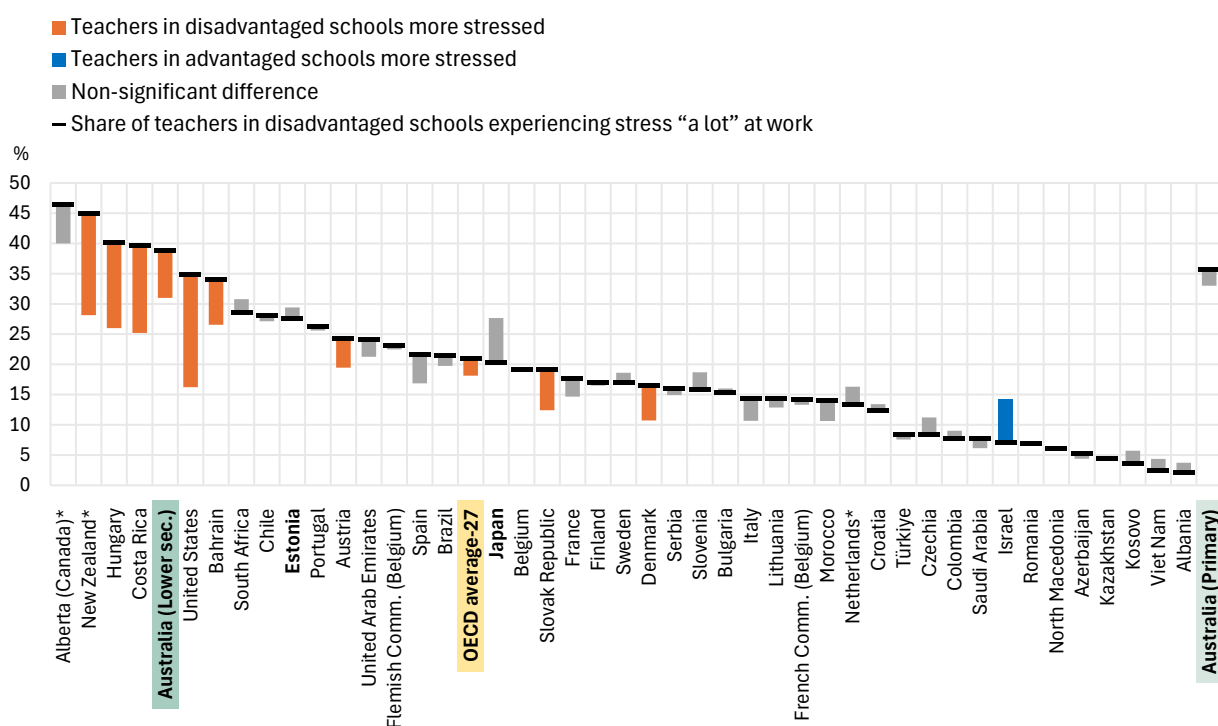
Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR2.TQ78abdj.

2.3 Variation in teachers' stress by teacher school characteristics

In Figure 2.3 teacher stress is explored in relation to school characteristics. Australian lower secondary teachers were amongst a group of countries where, like the OECD average, teachers who worked in a school considered more disadvantaged reported higher stress levels than those teachers working at a school considered more advantaged. However, the difference for Australian lower secondary schools was above the OECD average. No differences were observed for Australian primary teachers, where teacher stress levels were not significantly different across advantaged and disadvantaged schools.

Figure 2.3 Teachers' stress, by proportionate school intake of socio-economically disadvantaged students
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they experience stress "a lot" in their work (based on teacher and principal reports)



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Notes: Advantaged schools refer to those with 10% or fewer students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes. Disadvantaged schools refer to those with more than 30% of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes. Socio-economically disadvantaged homes are those that lack the basic necessities or advantages of life, such as adequate housing, nutrition or medical care. High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.SCH.TQ76a.

2.4 Teachers' personal resources and their professional outcomes

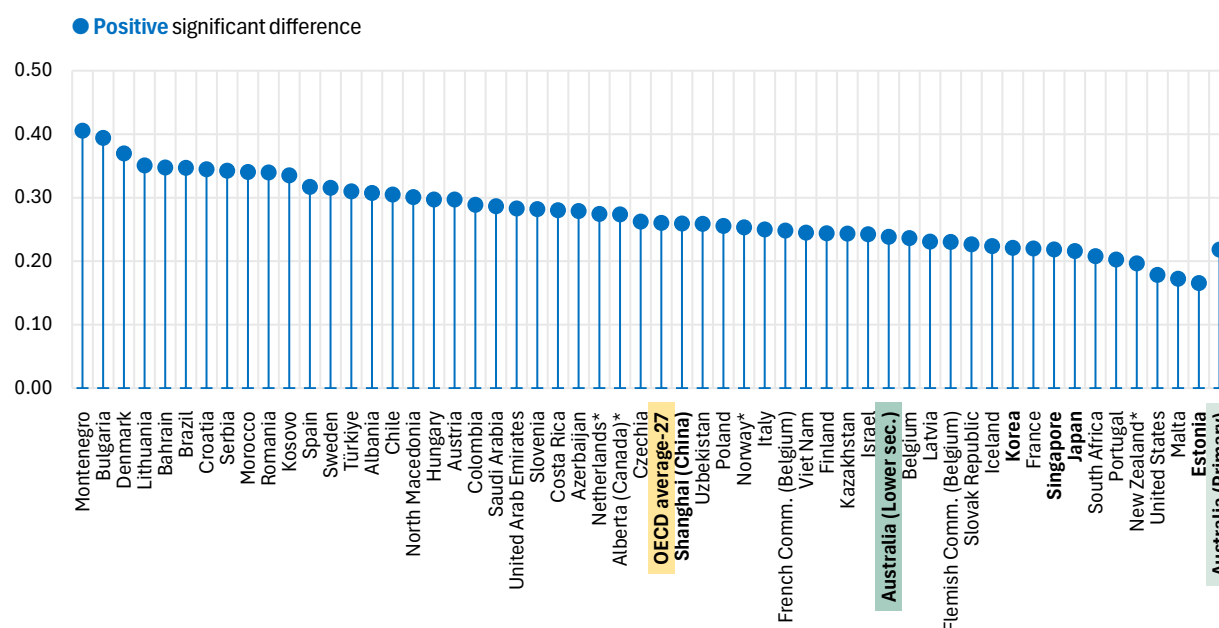
2.4.1. Self-efficacy

Chapter 1 reported information about teacher self-efficacy (in classroom management, instruction, and student engagement). The relationship between self-efficacy and information about job satisfaction is presented in Figure 2.4, using linear regression analyses. The relationships included in the figure are after adjustment for teacher and school characteristics^{2,3}.

Figure 2.4 shows that in Australia, like in all TALIS countries, there was a positive association between job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Those teachers who had higher levels of self-efficacy in their teaching (such as believing that they can navigate aspects of classroom management, instruction, and student engagement well), expressed greater satisfaction in teaching. The relationship was also evident for Australian primary teachers, with a similar relationship strength across education levels.

Figure 2.4 Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy

Change in the scale of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers' job satisfaction¹ associated with an increase in the scale of self-efficacy^{2,3} after accounting for teacher and school characteristics⁴ (based on teacher and principal reports)



See figure notes on following page.

² Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10. For more information on the scales, see Annex B of the TALIS International Report (OECD, 2025a).

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable. Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

¹ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² The scale of teacher self-efficacy overall (T4SELF) was constructed as an average of the three subscales: self-efficacy in student engagement (T4SEENG), self-efficacy in instruction (T4SEINS) and self-efficacy in classroom management (T4SECLS). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable.

⁴ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLS.TQS78.TQS27.

2.4.2. Beliefs about growth mindset

Teachers’ beliefs about whether intelligence can change over time, or if it is fixed, can influence their approach to teaching. An important established principle is that intelligence can change over time and is called a “growth mindset” (Dweck, 2006). TALIS 2024 included a question capturing teachers’ beliefs regarding the nature of intelligence and whether they believe it can change over time (“strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, or “strongly disagree”). Data on the level of disagreement (those who selected “disagree” or “strongly disagree”) with each of the three items in this question are presented in Table 2.4, for Australian teachers (at both education levels) as well as the high-performing PISA 2022 countries and the OECD average at lower secondary level. Rejection of fixed mindsets is interpreted as teachers’ embracing of *growth mindsets*.

Table 2.4 Teachers’ beliefs about growth mindset
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “strongly disagree” or “disagree” with the following statements about intelligence and learning

	Everyone has a certain amount of intelligence and no one can really do much to change it		People’s intelligence is something about them that they can’t change very much		Someone can learn new things, but they can’t really change their basic intelligence	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	90	(0.7)	91	(0.8)	84	(0.9)
Estonia	84	(0.8)	82	(0.8)	65	(1.1)
Japan	81	(0.9)	81	(0.8)	74	(1.0)
Korea	62	(1.2)	70	(1.1)	56	(1.2)
Shanghai (China)	45	(1.0)	53	(1.0)	37	(1.0)
Singapore	80	(1.1)	83	(0.8)	71	(1.4)
OECD average-27	77	(0.2)	78	(0.2)	67	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	89	(1.0)	89	(1.0)	80	(1.2)

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ30.

Most Australian lower secondary teachers expressed disagreement with views of intelligence as fixed and the proportions were higher than those on average across OECD countries. More than 90 per cent disagreed with items that everyone has a certain amount of intelligence, and no one can really do much to change it (90 per cent), and that people’s intelligence is something about them that they can’t change very much (91 per cent). A high but slightly smaller proportion (84 per cent) disagreed with the view that someone can learn new things, but that they cannot really change their basic intelligence. Results for Australian primary teachers were similar to those of Australian lower secondary teachers. Australian lower secondary teachers demonstrated higher levels of growth mindset in comparison to the selected high-performing PISA 2022 countries. In Shanghai (China), more than half of teachers agreed with two of the three statements.

2.5 Demands on teachers and their professional outcomes

Teachers operate in complex environments where various demands can impact how they feel about their work and how they perform their teaching responsibilities. This section explores the relationship between various demands on teachers and professional outcomes. Table 2.5 uses a series of regression analyses to explore the relationship between different demands on teaching that could be sources of stress (categorised conceptually into groups of maintaining discipline, workload, diverse learning needs, accountability, and keeping up with reforms) on three types of teacher outcome variables discussed earlier in this chapter: teachers’ fulfilment of their lesson aims, teacher wellbeing, and teacher job satisfaction. In the table, the regression coefficients are based on models that control for characteristics of the school and teacher⁴.

To aid interpretation of this table, please note the following:

- ❖ The demands of teaching refer to the 13 different tasks required of teachers, which are thematically grouped into five different areas. A separate regression is run for each of these 13 different tasks, showing the relevant regression coefficient (noting there are other variables included in the regression models as described in the footnote).
- ❖ The scale of teachers’ fulfilment of their lesson aims is derived from responses to the items presented earlier in this chapter (e.g. presenting the content in a comprehensible way). Higher values on this scale indicate teachers achieving greater fulfilment of their lesson aims, thus significant positive regression coefficients in the table indicate that the demands of teaching were associated with fewer teachers fulfilling their lesson aims.
- ❖ The scale of job satisfaction is derived from responses to a set of items, some of which were presented earlier in this chapter⁵. Higher values on this scale indicate that teachers

⁴ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable. Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

⁵ Items used to derive this scale include: “the advantages of being a teacher clearly outweigh the disadvantages”, “if I could decide again, I would still choose to work as a teacher”, “I regret that I decided to become a teacher”, “all in all, I am satisfied with my job”, “I would like to change to another school if that were possible”, “I enjoy working at this school”, and “I would recommend this school as a good place to work”.

had greater job satisfaction, thus significant positive regression coefficients in the table indicate that the demands of teaching were associated with greater job satisfaction.

- ❖ The scale of teacher wellbeing is derived from responses to items presented earlier in this chapter. It is important to note that higher values on this scale indicate that the teacher had poorer levels of wellbeing (more stress or strain). In this case the significant positive regression coefficients in the table indicate that the demands of teaching were associated with poorer wellbeing of teachers.
- ❖ For all the coefficients presented in the table, the larger the absolute value of the number, the stronger the relationship between that stressor and the outcome. Only bolded figures represent significant associations.

Table 2.5 Relationship between the demands of teaching and teachers’ fulfilment of their lesson aims, teachers’ wellbeing, and teachers’ job satisfaction
Change in the scale of fulfilment of lesson aims¹, teacher wellbeing² and teacher job satisfaction³ associated with encountering the following as sources of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot” at work^{4,5} after accounting for teacher and school characteristics⁶ (based on teacher reports)

		Relationship between teachers’ fulfilment of their lesson aims and sources of stress				Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and sources of stress				Relationship between teacher wellbeing and sources of stress			
		Australia (Lower sec.)		Australia (Primary)		Australia (Lower sec.)		Australia (Primary)		Australia (Lower sec.)		Australia (Primary)	
		Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Maintaining discipline	Being intimidated or verbally abused by students	-0.38	(0.15)	-0.27	(0.13)	-1.27	(0.13)	-1.25	(0.15)	1.35	(0.14)	1.46	(0.15)
	Maintaining classroom discipline	-0.48	(0.12)	-0.39	(0.10)	-1.07	(0.10)	-1.04	(0.12)	1.05	(0.12)	1.25	(0.10)
Workload	Having too much lesson preparation	-0.14	(0.11)	0.05	(0.12)	-1.12	(0.11)	-1.03	(0.13)	1.42	(0.10)	1.43	(0.13)
	Having too many lessons to teach	-0.38	(0.13)	0.03	(0.12)	-1.19	(0.12)	-0.89	(0.13)	1.39	(0.12)	1.23	(0.10)
	Having too much administrative work	-0.05	(0.11)	0.03	(0.12)	-0.91	(0.12)	-1.10	(0.12)	1.43	(0.09)	1.58	(0.10)
	Having too much marking	-0.25	(0.11)	0.02	(0.12)	-0.95	(0.11)	-0.93	(0.13)	1.16	(0.11)	1.20	(0.11)
Diverse learning needs	Having too much work on diversity and equity issues, concerns, or conflicts	-0.34	(0.14)	-0.22	(0.13)	-0.87	(0.14)	-1.11	(0.14)	1.00	(0.15)	1.41	(0.13)
	Modifying lessons for students with special education needs	-0.20	(0.13)	-0.01	(0.14)	-0.79	(0.13)	-1.10	(0.12)	0.96	(0.11)	1.35	(0.11)
Accountability	Addressing parent or guardian concerns	-0.24	(0.12)	-0.04	(0.12)	-0.57	(0.13)	-1.00	(0.12)	1.01	(0.10)	1.55	(0.10)
	Being held responsible for students’ social and emotional wellbeing	-0.34	(0.12)	-0.20	(0.10)	-0.94	(0.12)	-1.13	(0.12)	1.26	(0.11)	1.60	(0.11)
	Being held responsible for student achievement	-0.15	(0.13)	0.06	(0.12)	-1.02	(0.10)	-0.89	(0.11)	1.32	(0.11)	1.30	(0.12)
Keeping up with reforms	Keeping up with changing requirements	-0.15	(0.12)	-0.14	(0.12)	-0.84	(0.12)	-0.89	(0.12)	1.05	(0.11)	1.33	(0.10)
	Keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school	-0.23	(0.11)	-0.19	(0.13)	-0.88	(0.10)	-1.27	(0.12)	1.16	(0.11)	1.54	(0.10)

See table notes on following page.

¹ The scale of fulfilment of lesson aims (complexity of teaching) (T4FULFIL) refers to a class randomly selected from teachers' current weekly timetables during the week preceding the survey. The scale was constructed using teacher responses ("not at all", "to some extent", "quite a bit", or "a lot") about the extent to which the following aims were fulfilled in the past week (TT4G58): "presenting the content in a comprehensible way", "engaging students in work that challenges them", "providing students with feedback to support their learning", "offering students opportunities to practise what they learned", and "adapting teaching to meet the different needs of students". Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

² Higher values on the workplace wellbeing and stress scale reflect lower levels of wellbeing. The scale of workplace wellbeing and stress (T4WELS) was constructed using teacher responses ("not at all", "to some extent", "quite a bit", or "a lot") about the extent to which the following situations occur (TT4G76): "I experience stress in my work", "my job leaves me time for my personal life", "my job negatively impacts my mental health", and "my job negatively impacts my physical health". Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

³ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

⁴ Binary variable: the reference category refers to "not at all" and "to some extent".

⁵ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable.

⁶ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level), and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables OLSMUL.TQS58.TQ77, OLSMUL.TQS76.TQ77, and OLSMUL.TQS78.TQ77.

For Australian teachers, the relationship between sources of stress and fulfilment of lesson aims varied by type of demand and school level. Dealing with intimidation or verbal abuse from students and maintaining classroom order was significantly and negatively related to fulfilment of lesson aims for both lower secondary and primary teachers. Workload factors were significant predictors only for lower secondary teachers, where having too many lessons to teach and too much marking were linked to reported lower fulfilment. Among diverse learning needs, only having too much work on diversity and equity issues was significantly associated with a lack of fulfilment, and this was only recorded for lower secondary teachers. Responsibility for students' social and emotional wellbeing was significantly related to a lack of fulfilment for both populations of teachers, however, addressing parent or guardian concerns was only negatively associated with a reported lack of fulfilment among lower secondary teachers. At the lower secondary level, teachers' reports on having to keep up with curriculum or programme changes in their school were negatively associated with a reported fulfilment of their lesson aims.

There were more straightforward and consistent relationships between teacher demands and the two remaining scales (teacher wellbeing and teacher job satisfaction). All teacher demands that were potential sources of stress were significantly associated with teacher wellbeing. More demands in these areas were associated with higher wellbeing scores (which corresponds to poor levels of wellbeing). This was especially the case among lower secondary teachers. Here, several sources of stress related to workload (such as too much administrative work, too much lesson preparation, and too many lessons to teach) had strong associations with poorer wellbeing. Among primary teachers, being held responsible for students' social and emotional wellbeing, having too much administrative work, addressing parent or guardian concerns, and keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in their school had particularly high associations with reports of poor wellbeing.

By contrast, the relationships between each aspect of teacher demands and wellbeing were significant and positive, indicating that greater stress in any area was associated with poorer wellbeing. Similarly, all relationships with job satisfaction were significant and negative, showing

that stress in any domain reduced satisfaction, with discipline issues, workload, and accountability demands being particularly detrimental.

There was also a consistent relationship between sources of stress and teacher job satisfaction: the presence of stress was negatively related to satisfaction. This pattern was observed among both lower secondary and primary teachers. There were stronger relationships between job satisfaction and intimidation of teachers or verbal abuse by students, having too many lessons to teach (lower secondary), and having to keep up with curriculum or programme changes at school (primary).

The amount of time that teachers spent on different tasks (task intensity) and their wellbeing is explored in Table 2.6 using regression. Positive relationships (highlighted in bold) indicate that longer times spent on a particular task were associated with poorer wellbeing. At both education levels, higher intensity of marking/correcting of student work and general administrative work was associated with poorer wellbeing outcomes. At the lower secondary level, higher intensity of teaching was also associated with poorer levels of teacher wellbeing, whereas at the primary level higher levels of communication and co-operation with parents or guardians, individual planning or preparation of lessons either at or out of school, or engaging in extracurricular activities, were all associated with lower levels of teacher wellbeing. Like in the previous table, the regression coefficients came from a model that controlled for school and teacher characteristics.

Table 2.6 Relationship between teachers’ wellbeing and task intensity

Change in the scale of workplace wellbeing and stress¹ associated with the hours full-time teachers report having spent on the following activities during the most recent complete calendar week^{2,3} after accounting for teacher and school characteristics⁴ (based on teacher and principal reports)

	Australia (Lower sec.)		Australia (Primary)	
	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Teaching	0.18	(0.07)	0.09	(0.06)
Individual planning or preparation of lessons either at or out of school	0.11	(0.07)	0.33	(0.06)
Teamwork and dialogue with colleagues within this school	0.01	(0.10)	0.09	(0.07)
Marking/correcting of student work	0.25	(0.08)	0.35	(0.12)
Counselling students	0.04	(0.07)	0.11	(0.07)
Participation in school management	0.07	(0.07)	0.04	(0.06)
General administrative work	0.17	(0.07)	0.31	(0.10)
Professional learning activities	-0.07	(0.07)	0.18	(0.15)
Communication and co-operation with parents or guardians	-0.02	(0.07)	0.44	(0.14)
Engaging in extracurricular activities	-0.02	(0.06)	0.26	(0.11)

¹ Higher values on the workplace wellbeing and stress scale reflect lower levels of wellbeing. The scale of workplace well-being and stress (T4WELS) was constructed using teacher responses (“not at all”, “to some extent”, “quite a bit”, or “a lot”) about the extent to which the following situations occur (TT4G76): “I experience stress in my work”, “my job leaves me time for my personal life”, “my job negatively impacts my mental health”, and “my job negatively impacts my physical health”. Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

² Standardised at the international level.

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable.

⁴ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level), and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLSMUL.TQS76.TQ15_TQ16_FT.



3 The demands of teaching

Key findings

- Administrative workload remains a burden for Australian teachers and those in other OECD countries. Two-thirds of Australian lower secondary teachers, and just under two-thirds of Australian primary teachers, reported having too much administrative work as the most frequent source of work-related stress. In comparison, half of lower secondary teachers across OECD countries reported administrative work as a source of stress. Time spent on administrative work for Australian lower secondary teachers did not change between 2018 and 2024 but increased for Australian primary teachers. The OECD average for lower secondary teachers increased by a small amount over the same period.
- Maintaining classroom discipline was a source of stress for two-fifths of Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers. This was similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. Maintaining classroom discipline was more frequently cited as a source of stress for early career teachers than experienced teachers.
- Australian lower secondary school principals reported higher levels of bullying in their schools than the OECD average and that of Australian primary teachers. More than one-third (37%) of Australian lower secondary teachers worked in schools where reports of student bullying or intimidation on school grounds was a regular issue (considerably higher than the rates of Australian primary teachers and the OECD average). Nearly half (44%) of these teachers also worked in schools with higher proportions of reported online bullying or intimidation, and around one in five (18%) worked in schools with regular intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff on school grounds (also both at considerably higher rates than of Australian primary teachers and the OECD average).
- Australian lower secondary teachers reported more frequently that their classrooms reflected ethnic and linguistic diversity than the OECD average. Teachers also reported a greater frequency of classrooms where more than 10 per cent of students belonged to ethnic/national minorities (including Indigenous students), and where more than 30 per cent of students were immigrants or had a migrant background. Younger teachers were more likely to teach these classes.
- Australian lower secondary teachers reported that formal appraisal processes more frequently involved the principal, assigned mentors, and external bodies than the OECD average. These processes less frequently involved teachers outside the school management team.
- Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported that there were too many change initiatives at their school, and that they would like to have a period of stability.

3.1 Introduction

When teaching lessons, teachers maintain classroom discipline, respond to a range of learning needs and, over time, need to adapt to changing student populations. They are held accountable for student learning, keep up with changes in the profession, and carry out administrative tasks. Teachers may experience stress when what is expected of them outweighs the support, time, skills, or coping mechanisms available to them. Work-related stress is often conceptualised as an imbalance between job demands and the resources available to meet those demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Although classroom teaching may have remained broadly similar over time, there appears to have been increased complexity associated with high workload, managing disruptive student behaviour, more complex relationships with students and colleagues, and increases in accountability and compliance (OECD, 2019). Teachers' work has extended beyond classroom processes to include collegial coaching and co-operation, teacher leadership, and engagement in continuous professional learning (Maulana et al., 2023). Several factors appear to be associated with teachers' responses to these professional demands. These include their confidence, or self-efficacy, in teaching and managing their classrooms, and their experience. Other factors are the volume and types of demands and the resources available to them (OECD, 2025a).

This chapter examines how often teachers reported different demands as sources of stress. It compares data from the TALIS cycle in 2018 to examine whether there have been changes in the perception of these demands as sources of stress. It also compares responses from Australian teachers with those of teachers in other countries and the association of sources of stress with other teacher characteristics. The chapter begins by examining workload demands and then looks at classroom discipline, experiences with teaching students with diverse learning needs, teacher accountability, and implementing educational change.

3.2 Workload

Teachers are often formally required to work a certain number of hours per year, as set out in collective agreements or other contractual arrangements (OECD, 2025a). However, formal time allocations do not capture the full range of activities that teachers undertake. They might perform administrative tasks, supervise school activities, and engage in other duties during and outside school hours.

3.2.1. Total working hours

TALIS collects data on reported total weekly workload and disaggregated estimates of hours spent on specific tasks. It does not constrain teachers’ responses, so the sum of disaggregated time spent on individual tasks can exceed the reported total workload. These analyses present the amount of time reported overall, time spent on specified tasks, as well as the distribution of working time across specified activities, with proportions of the total for all specified tasks computed.

The total weekly working hours reported by Australian full-time lower secondary teachers did not change significantly between 2018 (46.9 hours) and 2024 (46.5 hours) (Table 3.1). The OECD average of total working hours for full-time lower secondary teachers increased by a small but significant amount between 2018 (40.4 hours) and 2024 (40.8 hours). In both TALIS cycles (2018 and 2024), the total weekly working hours for Australian full-time lower secondary teachers was significantly greater than the OECD average (by 6.5 hours in 2018 and 5.6 hours in 2024).

Table 3.1 Change in teachers’ weekly working hours, from 2018 to 2024
Average number of working hours full-time¹ lower secondary and Australian primary teachers work per week²

	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	46.9	(0.4)	46.5	(0.4)	-0.4	(0.5)
Estonia	40.6	(0.3)	43.0	(0.4)	2.5	(0.5)
Japan	59.1	(0.4)	55.1	(0.4)	-3.9	(0.5)
Korea	34.2	(0.4)	43.1	(0.3)	9.0	(0.5)
Shanghai (China)	45.5	(0.4)	46.9	(0.4)	1.4	(0.5)
Singapore	46.3	(0.3)	47.3	(0.5)	1.0	(0.6)
OECD average-25	40.4	(0.1)	40.8	(0.1)	0.4	(0.1)
Australia (Primary)	48.1	(0.4)	46.3	(0.5)	-1.7	(0.6)

¹ Teachers who reported working more than 90% of full-time hours at their school.

² A “complete” calendar week is one that was not shortened by breaks, public holidays, sick leave, etc. It also includes tasks that took place during weekends, evenings or other out-of-class hours.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table CMUL.TR2.TQ14-16_FT.

In TALIS 2024, Australian full-time lower secondary teachers recorded significantly more working hours than their counterparts in Estonia and Korea, but significantly fewer working hours than their counterparts in Japan. The total weekly working hours reported by Australian full-time primary teachers decreased between 2018 (48.1 hours) and 2024 (46.3 hours), but this difference is not significant. The working hours reported by Australian full-time primary teachers were not significantly different from those reported by Australian full-time lower secondary teachers in TALIS 2024 but those hours were greater for Australian full-time primary teachers in TALIS 2018.

3.2.2. Working hours on specified tasks

In both TALIS cycles (2018 and 2024), teachers reported on the number of hours spent on various tasks: teaching, individual planning or preparation of lessons either at or out of school, marking/correcting of student work, general administrative work, counselling students, participation in school management, communication and co-operation with parents or guardians, and engaging in extracurricular activities (see Table 3.2). Teaching was the single most time-consuming task for teachers in all TALIS education systems. However, in most education systems, teaching did not account for the majority of teachers' total workload⁶. On average across OECD countries time spent teaching accounted for approximately half of full-time lower secondary teachers' self-reported total working time.

These data indicate that Australian full-time lower secondary teachers in TALIS 2024 spent on average 20 hours each week on teaching, eight hours on planning or preparation of lessons, six hours on marking/correcting of student work, five hours on general administrative work, three hours on counselling students, three hours on participation in school management, two hours on extracurricular activities, and two hours on communication and co-operation with parents or guardians. Australian full-time primary teachers reported spending 25 hours on teaching, three hours on marking/correcting student work, and one hour engaging in extracurricular activities. In comparison, OECD full-time lower secondary teachers in 2024 on average spent more time teaching and less time on general administrative work, but the overall distribution was similar.

For Australian full-time lower secondary teachers and full-time primary teachers, there was no significant change between 2018 and 2024 in the time spent on teaching, even though there was a small increase in the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. Australian full-time lower secondary teachers reported a small but significant increase in the time spent on planning or preparation of lessons (by 0.8 hours), marking/correcting student work (by 0.7 hours), counselling students (by 0.4 hours), and communicating and co-operating with parents or guardians (by 0.4 hours). On average across OECD countries there were corresponding significant increases between 2018 and 2024 reported by full-time lower secondary teachers on these tasks.

In addition, for Australian primary teachers, between 2018 and 2024 there was a small but significant increase in the time reported on general administrative work (by 0.6 hours), counselling students (by 0.4 hours) and communicating and co-operation with parents or guardians (by 0.2 hours).

⁶ Please note that the sum of hours spent on different tasks may not be equal to the number of total working hours, because teachers were asked about these elements separately.

Table 3.2 Change in distribution of teachers' time across activities, from 2018 to 2024
Average number of hours full-time¹ lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reported having spent on the following activities during the most recent complete calendar week²

		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
		Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Teaching	Australia (Lower sec.)	20.6	(0.2)	20.1	(0.2)	-0.5	(0.3)
	OECD average-25	22.0	(0.0)	22.3	(0.1)	0.3	(0.1)
	Australia (Primary)	25.7	(0.2)	25.1	(0.3)	-0.6	(0.4)
Individual planning or preparation of lessons either at or out of school	Australia (Lower sec.)	7.6	(0.1)	8.4	(0.2)	0.8	(0.2)
	OECD average-25	6.8	(0.0)	7.4	(0.0)	0.6	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	8.1	(0.1)	8.5	(0.2)	0.4	(0.3)
Marking/correcting of student work	Australia (Lower sec.)	5.0	(0.1)	5.7	(0.2)	0.7	(0.2)
	OECD average-25	4.4	(0.0)	4.6	(0.0)	0.2	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	3.6	(0.1)	3.3	(0.1)	-0.2	(0.2)
General administrative work³	Australia (Lower sec.)	4.4	(0.1)	4.7	(0.2)	0.3	(0.2)
	OECD average-25	2.8	(0.0)	3.0	(0.0)	0.2	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	3.7	(0.1)	4.3	(0.2)	0.6	(0.2)
Counselling students⁴	Australia (Lower sec.)	2.6	(0.1)	3.0	(0.1)	0.4	(0.1)
	OECD average-25	2.2	(0.0)	2.5	(0.0)	0.3	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	2.5	(0.1)	2.9	(0.1)	0.4	(0.2)
Participation in school management	Australia (Lower sec.)	2.7	(0.2)	2.6	(0.1)	-0.1	(0.2)
	OECD average-25	1.5	(0.0)	1.6	(0.0)	0.1	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	2.3	(0.1)	2.3	(0.1)	0.1	(0.2)
Communication and co-operation with parents or guardians	Australia (Lower sec.)	1.4	(0.1)	1.8	(0.1)	0.4	(0.1)
	OECD average-25	1.5	(0.0)	1.7	(0.0)	0.2	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	1.5	(0.0)	1.7	(0.1)	0.2	(0.1)
Engaging in extracurricular activities⁵	Australia (Lower sec.)	2.0	(0.1)	2.2	(0.1)	0.2	(0.2)
	OECD average-25	1.8	(0.0)	1.7	(0.0)	-0.2	(0.0)
	Australia (Primary)	1.2	(0.1)	1.0	(0.1)	-0.2	(0.1)

¹ Teachers who report working more than 90% of full-time hours at the school.

² A “complete” calendar week is one that was not shortened by breaks, public holidays, sick leave, etc. It also includes tasks that took place during weekends, evenings or other out-of-class hours.

³ Including communication, paperwork and other clerical duties.

⁴ Including student supervision, mentoring, virtual counselling, career guidance and behaviour guidance.

⁵ For example, sports and cultural activities after school.

Notes: The sum of hours spent on different tasks may not be equal to the number of working hours, because teachers were asked about these elements separately. Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table CMUL.TR2.TQ14-16_FT.

3.2.3. Work demands as sources of stress

In both TALIS cycles (2018 and 2024) the extent to which various workplace demands are seen as sources of stress were examined. Teachers' workload demands are shaped by the broader nature of teachers' workloads and encompass a wide range of activities. This is reflected in the proportions of teachers who report a series of workplace demands as sources of stress either "quite a lot" or "a lot" (Table 3.3). This section reviews the frequency with which each of these are reported as sources of workplace stress.

For Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers, the most frequently reported source of stress was "having too much administrative work to do". More than two-thirds (69%) of Australian lower secondary teachers and just under two-thirds (64%) of primary teachers reported this as a source of stress either "quite a lot" or "a lot". On average, this was also the most commonly reported source of stress among lower secondary teachers in the OECD countries, with approximately half (52%) of the participating teachers identifying it as a stressor.

Administrative tasks account for a comparatively small proportion of total working time (see Table 3.2) but high proportions of teachers report them as sources of stress (Table 3.3). It is possible that teachers might see these tasks as interfering with their core professional activities.

In Estonia and Shanghai (China) administrative workload was less frequently reported as a source of stress. Administrative work included non-pedagogical duties, such as school management, paperwork, and other clerical responsibilities necessary for school operations, but not directly related to instruction, such as completing attendance records, managing timekeeping systems, processing forms, and handling other bureaucratic requirements.

Marking student work and lesson preparation are central supports for pedagogy but can also be sources of stress when there are insufficient resources or time to carry them out effectively. "Having too much marking" was the second-most-frequently nominated source of stress for Australian lower secondary teachers, with half reporting this as a source of stress "quite a bit" or "a lot". This was less frequently identified as a source of stress by OECD lower secondary teachers, and much less frequently as a source of stress by Australian primary teachers. "Too much lesson preparation" could be interpreted as teachers having too many lessons to prepare, given their working time or resources; it was reported as a source of stress by 38 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers, 35 per cent of lower secondary teachers across OECD countries, and half (51%) of Australian primary teachers. "Having too many lessons to teach" was reported as a frequent source of stress by approximately one-third (34%) of Australian lower secondary teachers, and in OECD countries on average (31%). The frequency was a little higher among Australian primary teachers, with four in ten (41%) teachers seeing this as a source of stress.

Table 3.3 Teachers' sources of stress

Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting the following sources of stress "quite a lot" or "a lot"

	Australia (Lower sec.)		Estonia		Japan		Korea		Shanghai (China)		Singapore		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Having too much administrative work to do ¹	69	(1.5)	39	(1.4)	63	(1.1)	50	(1.2)	29	(1.1)	53	(1.2)	52	(0.3)	64	(1.4)
Having too much marking	50	(1.8)	36	(1.1)	37	(1.1)	31	(1.3)	35	(1.0)	49	(1.3)	40	(0.3)	38	(1.6)
Keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school	46	(1.7)	33	(1.4)	31	(1.4)	28	(1.3)	33	(1.1)	44	(0.9)	34	(0.3)	55	(1.6)
Maintaining classroom discipline	43	(1.6)	35	(1.5)	35	(1.2)	49	(1.2)	29	(0.9)	38	(1.2)	45	(0.3)	51	(1.6)
Having extra duties due to absent teachers	43	(1.8)	28	(1.5)	40	(1.4)	15	(1.0)	14	(0.8)	30	(1.2)	30	(0.3)	30	(1.7)
Being held responsible for student achievement	42	(1.4)	52	(1.2)	39	(1.0)	35	(1.2)	48	(1.1)	45	(0.9)	45	(0.3)	45	(1.5)
Being held responsible for students' social and emotional wellbeing	41	(1.5)	46	(1.4)	27	(1.1)	26	(0.9)	37	(1.0)	40	(0.9)	40	(0.3)	52	(1.6)
Modifying lessons for students with special education needs	38	(1.5)	44	(1.4)	35	(1.2)	14	(0.9)	14	(0.7)	19	(1.0)	37	(0.3)	46	(1.5)
Having too much lesson preparation	38	(1.5)	36	(1.4)	33	(1.0)	18	(1.0)	27	(1.0)	38	(1.2)	35	(0.2)	51	(1.8)
Keeping up with changing requirements from local, municipal/regional, state or national/federal authorities	36	(1.6)	33	(1.3)	43	(1.2)	43	(1.3)	38	(1.1)	42	(1.3)	39	(0.3)	45	(1.6)
Addressing parent or guardian concerns	35	(1.4)	32	(1.2)	56	(1.2)	57	(1.2)	33	(1.0)	36	(1.1)	42	(0.3)	48	(1.7)
Having too many lessons to teach	34	(1.6)	30	(1.3)	33	(1.1)	30	(1.2)	31	(1.0)	37	(1.0)	31	(0.3)	41	(1.7)
Keeping up with professional learning	25	(1.3)	19	(1.1)	18	(1.0)	24	(1.1)	29	(1.0)	30	(1.0)	25	(0.2)	33	(1.5)
Having too much work on diversity and equity issues, concerns or conflicts	23	(1.1)	19	(1.0)	42	(1.3)	34	(1.2)	25	(1.0)	23	(0.9)	27	(0.2)	25	(1.3)
Being intimidated or verbally abused by students	22	(1.4)	12	(0.9)	17	(1.0)	31	(1.1)	7	(0.5)	12	(0.8)	18	(0.2)	21	(1.5)
Having to adapt my work due to unexpected disruptions ²	17	(1.0)	14	(0.9)	26	(1.1)	31	(1.1)	16	(0.8)	16	(0.7)	20	(0.2)	20	(1.4)

¹ For example, filling out forms.

² For example, natural disasters, public health emergencies/pandemics, humanitarian crises.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TEXP.TQ77.

In TALIS 2024, just under half (46%) of Australian lower secondary teachers nominated “keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school” as a source of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot”. This was greater than the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (37%) but similar to the percentage of lower secondary teachers in Singapore (44%). It was notable that more than half (55%) of Australian primary teachers reported “keeping up with change” as a frequent source of stress. Schools and education systems need to introduce reforms as their contexts change over time and as new perspectives evolve. However, it does appear that successful reform is often associated with recognising the role of teachers in supporting reform (Datnow, 2020). The relatively high levels of stress associated with change reported by Australian lower secondary and primary teachers might be associated with the frequency of change, not allowing time for reforms to become established or not providing sufficient support for implementation.

“Maintaining classroom discipline” was also nominated as a source of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot” by Australian lower secondary teachers (43%) and by lower secondary teachers across OECD countries (45%) on average. Just over half (51%) of Australian primary teachers nominated “maintaining classroom discipline” as a frequent source of stress. Elsewhere in this chapter, it is noted that Australian primary teachers reported classroom discipline issues arising more frequently than Australian lower secondary teachers. It was also noted that higher self-efficacy in classroom management was associated with lower proportions of teachers who reported maintaining discipline as a source of stress.

A little more than two-fifths (43%) of Australian lower secondary teachers indicated “having extra duties due to absent teachers” as a frequent source of stress. This was somewhat higher than the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (30%) and higher than for Australian primary teachers (30%). This could be associated with differences in actual absences or to differences in managing replacements. The need to “adapt my work due to unexpected disruptions” was not a frequent source of stress for Australian lower secondary teachers (17%), the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (20%), or Australian primary teachers (20%).

In TALIS 2024, just under half (46%) of Australian lower secondary teachers indicated that “keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school” was a source of stress. This figure was similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (39%) but lower than the figure for Australian primary teachers (55%). One-third (36%) of Australian lower secondary teachers indicated that “keeping up with changing requirements from local, regional, state or national/federal authorities” was a source of stress.

Aspects of accountability such as “being held responsible for student achievement” and “being held responsible for students’ social and emotional wellbeing” were reported as sources of stress for two-fifths of Australian lower secondary teachers (42% and 41% respectively); these were similar to the OECD averages for lower secondary teachers (45% and 40% respectively) and higher than for Australian primary teachers (45% and 52% respectively).

Providing quality learning opportunities for all students, including those with diverse needs, abilities, and expectations has become more widely recognised as an important aspect of school education. Teachers face a wide range of demands arising from the need to support students with differing profiles, learning needs, and linguistic backgrounds. “Modifying lessons for students with special education needs” was a frequent source of stress for just under two-fifths (38%) of Australian lower secondary teachers; this was similar to the OECD average (37%) but lower than for Australian primary teachers (46%). Just under one-quarter (23%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported that “having too much work on diversity and equity issues, concerns or conflicts” was a frequent source of stress. This was not significantly different from the figure for Australian primary teachers (25%) and was below the OECD average (27%).

A heavy teaching load remains a source of stress for teachers in some systems. Over two in five (41%) Australian primary teachers and over one-third (34%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported that “having too many lessons to teach” was a frequent source of stress; similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (31%) (Table 3.3). The difference between Australian lower secondary and primary teachers could be due to differences in the operations of primary and secondary schools in Australia.

One-quarter (25%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported that “keeping up with professional learning” was a source of stress, which was the same as the OECD average (25%), but below that for Australian primary teachers (33%).

A less frequently reported source of stress for Australian teachers was “being intimidated or verbally abused by students”. Around one-fifth of both Australian lower secondary teachers (22%) and primary teachers (21%) reported this a source of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot; the former was above” the OECD average (18%).

3.2.4. Variations in workplace stressors by experience

TALIS 2024 compared the proportions of teachers reporting the frequency (“quite a bit” or “a lot”) of various stressors by years of experience, where years of experience was classified as five or fewer years of teaching (early career), six to ten years of teaching, and more than ten years of teaching (experienced). This section focuses on the stressors which varied with age for Australian lower secondary and primary teachers.

The stressor most strongly associated with teaching experience was “maintaining classroom discipline”, which was most frequently reported by early career teachers. Just over half (55%) of early career Australian lower secondary teachers reported this as a stressor compared to 38% of experienced Australian lower secondary teachers. This was a difference of 17 percentage points, in line with primary teachers and above the OECD average for lower secondary teachers (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Teachers’ sources of stress, by years of teaching experience
Difference in percentage of teachers reporting the following aspects of work as sources of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot”, by years of teaching experience

		Total		≤ 5 years (a)		6–10 years		> 10 years (b)		Difference (b) – (a)	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Maintaining classroom discipline	Australia (Lower sec.)	43	(1.6)	55	(2.9)	45	(2.7)	38	(2.2)	-17	(3.4)
	OECD average-27	45	(0.3)	55	(0.7)	50	(0.7)	41	(0.3)	-15	(0.7)
	Australia (Primary)	51	(1.6)	62	(3.1)	59	(2.8)	45	(2.2)	-17	(3.7)
Being intimidated or verbally abused by students	Australia (Lower sec.)	22	(1.4)	27	(2.5)	23	(2.7)	20	(1.8)	-7	(2.8)
	OECD average-27	18	(0.2)	19	(0.5)	19	(0.5)	16	(0.3)	-2	(0.6)
	Australia (Primary)	21	(1.5)	24	(3.1)	21	(2.6)	19	(2.2)	-4	(3.5)
Keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school	Australia (Lower sec.)	46	(1.7)	37	(2.7)	54	(3.6)	45	(2.2)	8	(3.4)
	OECD average-27	34	(0.3)	29	(0.6)	33	(0.6)	35	(0.3)	6	(0.7)
	Australia (Primary)	55	(1.6)	50	(2.7)	55	(2.9)	56	(2.2)	6	(3.7)
Having extra duties due to absent teachers	Australia (Lower sec.)	43	(1.8)	42	(2.8)	46	(3.7)	42	(1.9)	0	(3.0)
	OECD average-27	30	(0.3)	27	(0.6)	32	(0.6)	31	(0.3)	4	(0.6)
	Australia (Primary)	30	(1.7)	21	(2.9)	36	(3.5)	31	(2.0)	9	(3.6)

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TEXP.TQ77.

There was also a significant association between teaching experience and reporting intimidation or verbal abuse as a frequent source of stress for Australian lower secondary teachers (Table 3.4). This was reported as a stressor by 27 per cent of early career teachers and 20 per cent of experienced teachers, which is a difference of 7 percentage points; this difference was higher than both the OECD average and the difference for Australian primary teachers.

However, experienced lower secondary teachers in Australia and across OECD countries were on average significantly more likely than early career teachers to report “keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school” as a frequent source of stress (Table 3.4). This possibly reflects the wider curriculum responsibilities that form part of the work of more experienced teachers. This may also explain why experienced Australian primary teachers were more likely to report both this and covering extra duties for absent colleagues as frequent sources of stress.

3.3 Classroom discipline

TALIS 2024 investigated the frequency with which teachers’ teaching was disrupted or interrupted by excessive noise and disorder, waiting for students to become quiet, delays to starting work, or student interruptions during lessons “quite a lot” or “a lot” (Table 3.5).

3.3.1. Variations in aspects of classroom discipline

Each discipline issue, aside from “many students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins”, was reported as happening “quite a bit” or “a lot” by smaller proportions of Australian lower secondary teachers than primary teachers and the OECD average. However, each of the four discipline issues was reported by smaller proportions of teachers in four of the comparison countries (i.e. all except Singapore). The most commonly reported issue in all cases aside from Japan was “there is much disruptive noise and disorder” (22% of Australian lower secondary teachers, 28% of Australian primary teachers).

Table 3.5 Classroom discipline issues
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that the following situations happen “quite a bit” or “a lot”¹

	There is much disruptive noise and disorder		I have to wait a long time for students to quiet down		Many students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins		I lose quite a lot of time because students interrupt the lesson	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	22	(1.2)	18	(1.2)	15	(1.1)	20	(1.1)
Estonia	11	(0.9)	7	(0.7)	9	(0.7)	9	(0.8)
Japan	4	(0.5)	5	(0.6)	4	(0.5)	2	(0.4)
Korea	16	(1.2)	11	(0.8)	9	(0.8)	11	(0.9)
Shanghai (China)	5	(0.4)	4	(0.4)	4	(0.4)	4	(0.4)
Singapore	20	(1.0)	16	(1.1)	12	(0.8)	13	(0.9)
OECD average-27	21	(0.2)	15	(0.2)	16	(0.2)	18	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	28	(1.3)	21	(1.2)	15	(1.0)	27	(1.3)

¹ Data refer to a randomly chosen class that teachers teach from their weekly timetable.
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQS27C.TQ54.

At lower secondary level, the proportion of Australian teachers who reported having “to wait a long time for students to quiet down” was above the OECD average by about three percentage points. However, there did not appear to be significant differences between Australian lower secondary teachers and the OECD average in relation to other issues.

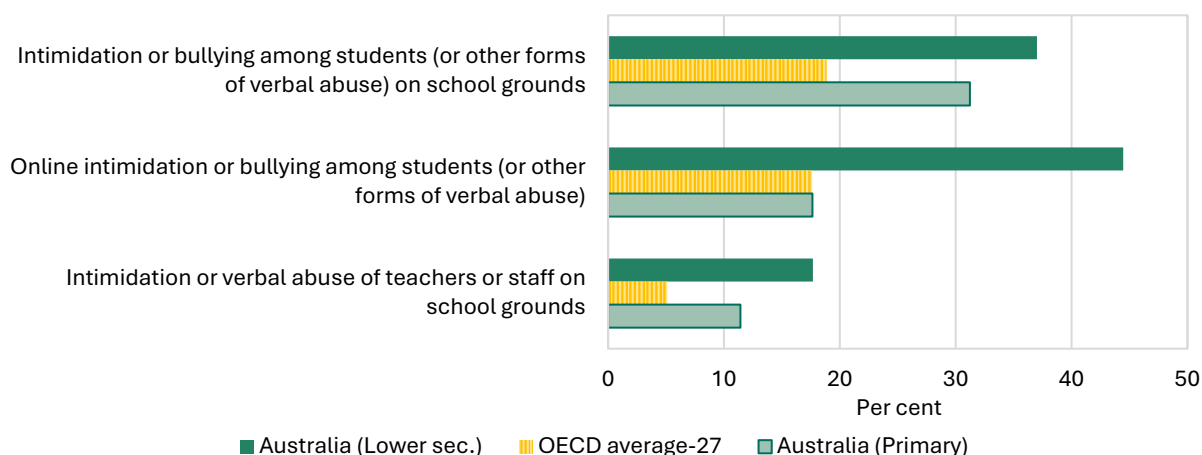
Australian lower secondary teachers did not appear to differ significantly from those in Singapore in the frequency with which they reported these issues, or from teachers in Shanghai (China) on having “to wait a long time for students to quiet down” or that “many students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins”. Australian lower secondary teachers reported all four classroom discipline issues more frequently than their counterparts in Estonia, Japan, and Korea.

Australian primary teachers reported more frequently than Australian lower secondary teachers having “much disruptive noise and disorder”, having “to wait a long time for students to quiet down”, and losing “quite a lot of time because students interrupt the lesson”. However, there was no significant difference between the proportions of Australian primary teachers and their Australian lower secondary counterparts who reported that “many students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins”. These indications of how frequently these issues were reported by teachers do not necessarily correspond to them being seen as sources of stress. Some events that may be reported infrequently may be quite stressful.

3.3.2. Bullying in schools

Poor behaviour not only undermines classroom order and peer relationships but can also escalate into more serious incidents affecting the safety of both students and staff (OECD, 2025a). According to the principals surveyed in TALIS 2024, on average across the OECD, 19 per cent of lower secondary teachers worked in schools where student bullying or intimidation on school grounds was a regular issue (occurring weekly or daily) (Figure 3.1). In Australia, 37 per cent of lower secondary teachers and 31 per cent of primary teachers worked in schools where student bullying or intimidation on school grounds was a regular issue. Nearly half of Australian lower secondary teachers (44%) also worked in schools where principals reported online bullying or intimidation was a regular issue (in comparison to an average of 18% across the OECD countries and 18% of Australian primary teachers). Around one in five (18%) worked in schools where intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers or staff on school grounds was a regular issue (in comparison to an average of 5% across the OECD countries and 11% of Australian primary teachers).

Figure 3.1 School safety
Percentage of teachers working in schools where principals indicated the following occurs among students “weekly” or “daily”¹ (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals’ responses and using final teacher weights.

Note: Because numbers of principals are much smaller than numbers of teachers, standard errors are relatively large (from 2 to 4) for Australian samples.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.PQ41.

Table 3.6 Teachers' perceptions of classroom discipline issues, by self-efficacy in classroom management
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that the following situations happen "quite a bit" or "a lot"¹, by self-efficacy in classroom management²

	There is much disruptive noise and disorder						I have to wait a long time for students to quiet down						Many students don't start working for a long time after the lesson begins						I lose quite a lot of time because students interrupt the lesson					
	Low (Bottom quarter ³)		High (Top quarter ³)		High - Low (Top - Bottom Q)		Low (Bottom quarter ³)		High (Top quarter ³)		High - Low (Top - Bottom Q)		Low (Bottom quarter ³)		High (Top quarter ³)		High - Low (Top - Bottom Q)		Low (Bottom quarter ³)		High (Top quarter ³)		High - Low (Top - Bottom Q)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	40	(2.6)	11	(1.6)	-29	(2.8)	31	(3.3)	9	(1.7)	-23	(3.4)	27	(2.7)	8	(2.0)	-19	(3.2)	34	(2.7)	10	(1.8)	-24	(2.9)
Estonia	12	(1.7)	11	(1.5)	0	(2.1)	8	(1.2)	8	(1.4)	0	(1.9)	11	(1.5)	9	(1.4)	-2	(1.9)	11	(1.6)	10	(1.4)	-1	(2.0)
Japan	7	(1.3)	3	(0.7)	-4	(1.5)	8	(1.5)	3	(0.8)	-5	(1.7)	6	(1.0)	3	(0.8)	-3	(1.3)	4	(1.0)	2	(0.5)	-3	(1.1)
Korea	23	(2.2)	12	(1.9)	-11	(3.0)	17	(2.0)	8	(1.6)	-10	(2.6)	14	(1.8)	8	(1.6)	-6	(2.4)	17	(2.1)	9	(1.7)	-8	(2.7)
Shanghai (China)	5	(0.8)	4	(0.7)	-1	(1.1)	4	(0.8)	3	(0.6)	-2	(1.0)	5	(0.8)	3	(0.6)	-2	(1.0)	5	(1.0)	3	(0.6)	-2	(1.2)
Singapore	22	(1.9)	19	(1.8)	-3	(2.4)	19	(2.0)	12	(1.5)	-7	(2.3)	15	(1.6)	10	(1.4)	-5	(2.2)	17	(2.0)	9	(1.5)	-8	(2.5)
OECD average-27	32	(0.5)	14	(0.4)	-18	(0.6)	26	(0.5)	9	(0.3)	-16	(0.6)	26	(0.5)	10	(0.3)	-16	(0.5)	29	(0.5)	11	(0.3)	-19	(0.6)
Australia (Primary)	41	(2.8)	18	(2.3)	-23	(3.5)	32	(2.6)	13	(2.3)	-19	(3.6)	20	(2.2)	12	(2.0)	-9	(3.2)	39	(3.1)	19	(2.6)	-20	(4.1)

¹ Data refer to a randomly chosen class that teachers teach from their weekly timetable.

² The scale of self-efficacy in classroom management (T4SECLS) was constructed using teacher responses ("not at all", "to some extent", "quite a bit", or "a lot") about the extent to which the following can occur (TT4G27): "control disruptive behaviour in the classroom", "make my expectations about student behaviour clear", "get students to follow classroom rules", and "calm a student who is disruptive or noisy". Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2.0 and the value of 10 corresponding to the mid-point of the scale.

³ Quartiles calculated within each country/economy.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQS27C.TQ54.

3.3.3. Classroom discipline and self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy refers to a teacher's belief in their ability to perform specific teaching-related tasks effectively. It reflects their perceived competence in various professional practice domains such as instruction and classroom management. These beliefs can be interpreted as teachers' confidence in their ability to manage their classrooms, deliver lessons, and deal with the challenges of teaching.

In Australia, at both lower secondary and primary levels, there was a negative association between self-efficacy in classroom management and the frequency with which classroom discipline issues were reported (see Table 3.6). Teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy in classroom management consistently reported less frequent classroom discipline issues than teachers with lower levels of self-efficacy. In particular, between 27 per cent ("many students don't start working for a long time after the lesson begins") and 40 per cent ("there is much disruptive noise and disorder") of lower secondary teachers with the lowest levels of self-efficacy (i.e. in the bottom quarter of all teachers) reported specified classroom discipline issues happening frequently. In comparison, between eight per cent ("many students don't start working for a long time after the lesson begins") and 11 per cent ("there is much disruptive noise and disorder") of lower secondary teachers with the highest levels of self-efficacy reported the specified classroom discipline issues as happening frequently. Similar patterns were evident in the OECD averages, and the responses of Australian primary teachers.

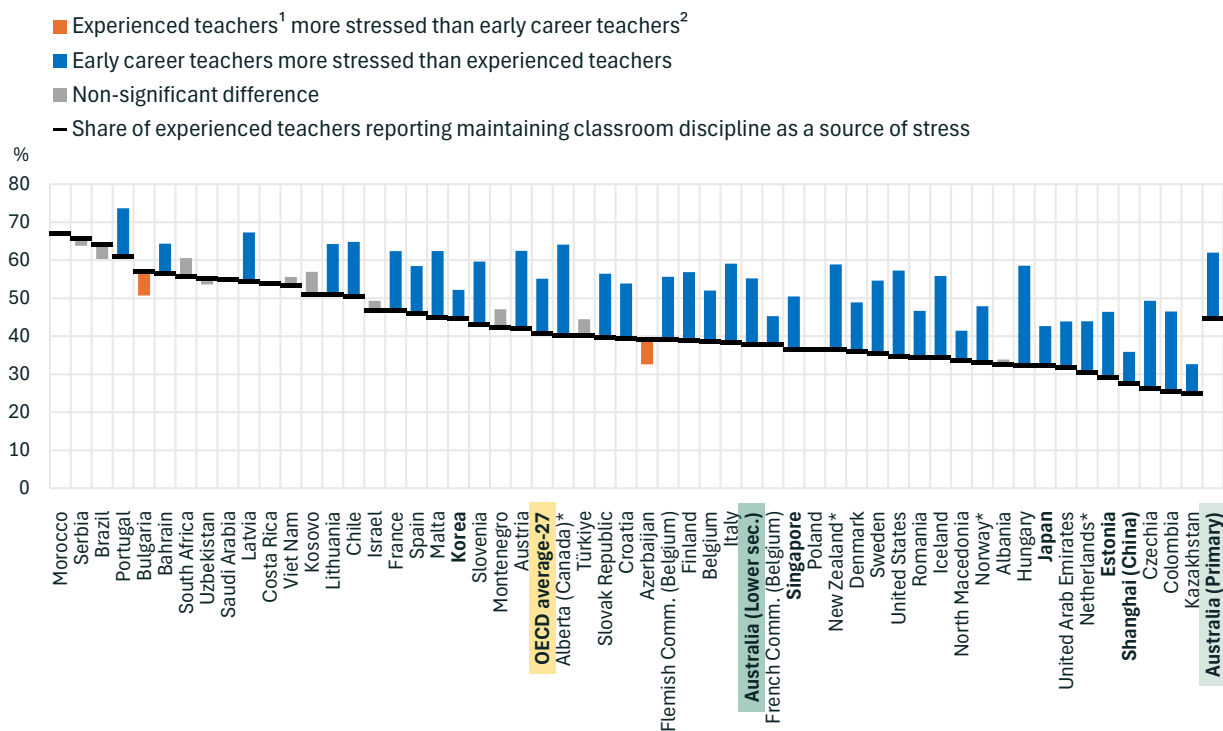
Among Australian primary teachers with the lowest levels of self-efficacy in classroom management, 20 per cent reported that "many students don't start working for a long time after the lesson begins" and 41 per cent that "there is much disruptive noise and disorder". In comparison, for Australian primary teachers with the highest levels of self-efficacy in classroom management the corresponding figures for these issues were 12 per cent and 18 per cent, respectively.

Across most education systems, teachers with high self-efficacy in classroom management reported fewer interruptions caused from "having to wait for students to quiet down", "having much disruptive noise and disorder", and "having many students who do not start working for a long time after the lesson begins". Even though these differences are based on cross-sectional data, and so there needs to be caution when attributing causation, they do prompt further investigation of means to enhance teacher self-efficacy in classroom management. It was noted in Chapter 2 that teachers reporting higher self-efficacy are also more likely to report greater job satisfaction and wellbeing, and lower stress.

3.3.4. Classroom discipline and experience

The extent to which classroom discipline was reported as a source of stress may also be related to teacher experience. Figure 3.2 compares reported stress arising from classroom discipline “quite a bit” or “a lot” for early career teachers (those with five or fewer years of experience) with experienced teachers (those with more than ten years of experience). There was a significant difference between early career and experienced teachers in the frequency with which classroom discipline issues were reported as a source of stress for both Australian lower secondary teachers (55% compared to 38%) and the OECD average (54% compared to 41%). For Australian primary teachers, the difference was even larger (62% compared to 45%).

Figure 3.2 Maintaining classroom discipline as a source of stress, by teacher experience
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that maintaining classroom discipline is a source of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot”



¹ Experienced teachers refer to those with more than ten years of teaching experience.

² Early career teachers refer to those with up to five years of teaching experience.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

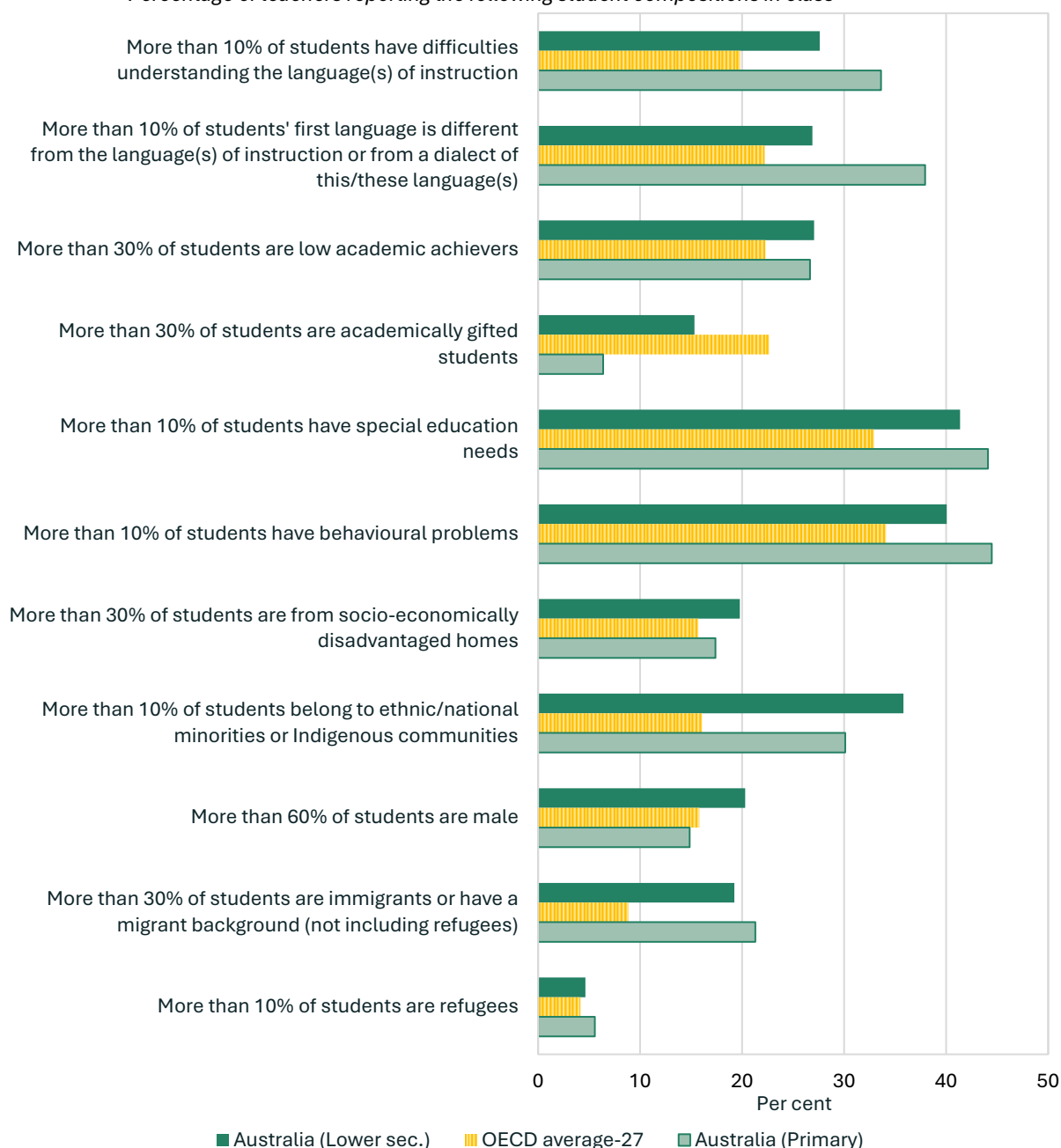
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TEXP.TQ77.

3.4 Adapting teaching to diverse learning needs

In TALIS 2024 ‘diversity’ refers to the recognition of and appreciation of differences in the backgrounds of individuals (OECD, 2025b). These background characteristics may include socio-economic status, migration status, ethnicity, Indigenous status, geographical location, and special education needs. ‘Inclusive education’ refers to providing quality learning opportunities for all students (Smale-Jacobse et al., 2019; Woessmann, 2016). Teachers face a wide range of demands arising from the need to support students with different academic capacities, learning needs, and linguistic backgrounds, which can have a significant impact on how teachers experience and manage their daily work. Figure 3.3 investigates these issues as reported by teachers for a randomly selected target class.

Figure 3.3 Class composition

Percentage of teachers reporting the following student compositions in class¹



¹ Refers to a randomly chosen class that teachers teach from their weekly timetable.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ47.

Figure 3.3 shows that there were compositional differences between the classrooms of Australian lower secondary teachers and of OECD countries on average. These include higher proportions of Australian lower secondary classrooms where “more than 10% of students belong to ethnic/national minorities or Indigenous communities”, and where “more than 30% of students are immigrants or have a migrant background (not including refugees).” High proportions of Australian primary school classes were also reported by teachers as having these characteristics. In addition, Australian primary teachers reported a higher frequency than Australian lower secondary teachers that “more than 10% of students’ first language is different from the language(s) of instruction or from a dialect of this/these language(s)”, and that “more than 10% of students have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction”.

Compared to the OECD average, Australian lower secondary teachers reported more frequently that “more than 10% of students have behavioural problems” (by six percentage points) or “more than 10% of students have special education needs” (by eight percentage points). Australian primary teachers reported a similar frequency (44% in each case) to their Australian lower secondary counterparts.

The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported that their classes had “more than 30% of students who were low academic achievers” was above the OECD average (by five percentage points). A similar proportion of Australian primary teachers (27%) also reported this. Fewer Australian lower secondary teachers, compared to the OECD average, reported that “more than 30% of students are academically gifted students” (by eight percentage points). An even smaller percentage of Australian primary teachers reported this characteristic of their classes (6%).

Diversity in classrooms was more often reported by younger teachers (aged below 30) than older teachers (aged 50 or older), including “more than 10% of students in class have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction”, “more than 10% of students have behavioural problems”, and “more than 30% of students are low academic achievers” (Table 3.7). The association between teacher age and the class intake of more than ten per cent of students with difficulties understanding the language of instruction was evident in some but certainly not all of the countries participating in TALIS 2024 (Figure 3.4).

Table 3.7 Classroom composition characteristics, by teachers' age categories
 Percentage of teachers reporting the following characteristics about their class¹ composition by age category

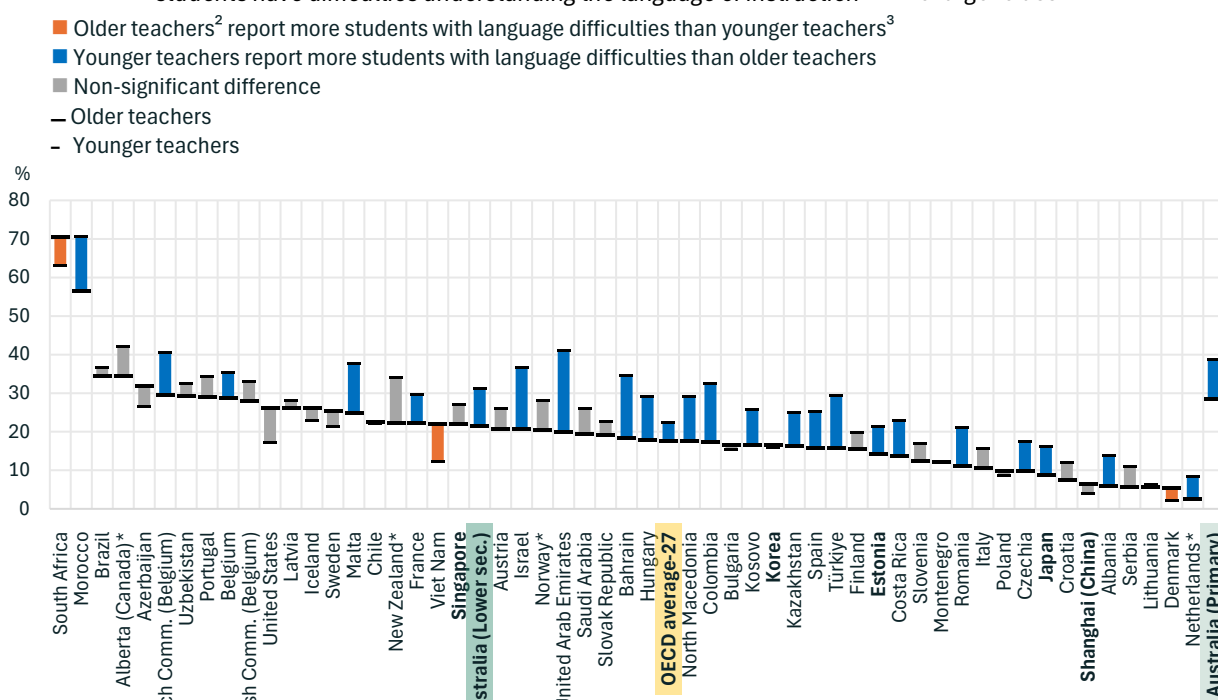
		< Age 30 (a)		Age 30–49		≥ Age 50 (b)		Difference (b) – (a)	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
More than 10% of students in class have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction	Australia (Lower sec.)	31	(3.1)	30	(1.9)	21	(2.1)	-10	(3.6)
	OECD average-27	23	(0.8)	20	(0.3)	18	(0.4)	-5	(0.8)
	Australia (Primary)	39	(3.7)	34	(2.3)	29	(2.6)	-10	(4.4)
More than 10% of students have behavioural problems	Australia (Lower sec.)	47	(2.9)	41	(2.2)	33	(2.3)	-14	(3.5)
	OECD average-27	42	(0.9)	36	(0.4)	30	(0.4)	-11	(1.0)
	Australia (Primary)	49	(3.5)	46	(1.9)	36	(2.7)	-13	(4.8)
More than 30% of students are low academic achievers	Australia (Lower sec.)	30	(3.2)	29	(2.3)	22	(2.0)	-9	(3.7)
	OECD average-27	25	(0.8)	23	(0.3)	19	(0.4)	-6	(0.8)
	Australia (Primary)	33	(3.6)	28	(2.0)	19	(2.6)	-14	(4.4)

¹ These data refer to a class randomly selected from teachers' current weekly timetable during the week preceding the survey.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables BIN.TCH.TQ47a, BIN.TCH.TQ47f, and BIN.TCH.TQ47c.

Figure 3.4 Class intake of students with difficulties understanding the language of instruction, by teacher age
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that more than 10% of students have difficulties understanding the language of instruction¹ in the target class



¹ These data refer to lessons taught to a class randomly selected from teachers' current weekly timetables during the week preceding the survey.

² Older teachers refer to those aged 50 and above.

³ Younger teachers refer to those under age 30.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

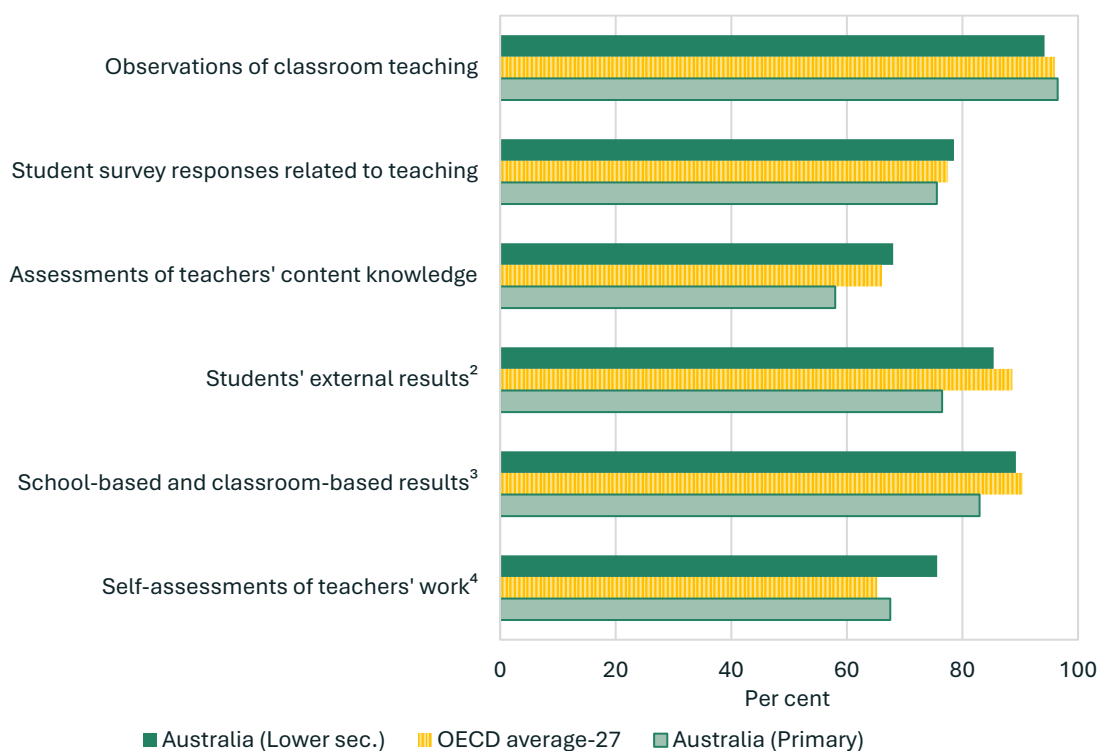
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ47a.

3.5 Teacher accountability

Teacher appraisal, the act of evaluating teacher performance, helps teachers to improve their practice and determines their effectiveness (OECD, 2025a). It is widely recognised that evaluations of teacher performance can be a workplace demand and a source of stress. As noted in a previous section of this chapter, “being held responsible for student achievement” was a source of stress “quite a bit” or “a lot” for 42 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers, 45 per cent of OECD lower secondary teachers on average, and 45 per cent of Australian primary teachers (Figure 3.5). The corresponding proportions for “being held responsible for students’ social and emotional wellbeing” were 41 per cent for Australia lower secondary teachers, 40 per cent for OECD lower secondary teachers on average and 52 per cent for Australian primary teachers.

Figure 3.5 Methods for providing formal teacher appraisal
Percentage of teachers working in schools where principals indicated the following methods for providing formal teacher appraisal¹ (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals’ responses and using final teacher weights.

² For example, national test scores.

³ For example, performance results, project results, test scores.

⁴ For example, presentation of a portfolio assessment, analysis of teaching using video.

Note: Because numbers of principals are much smaller than numbers of teachers, standard errors are relatively large (from 2 to 4) for Australian samples.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table MCOB.UND.PQ36.

3.5.1. Methods for providing formal appraisal

According to the principals surveyed in TALIS 2024, on average across the OECD, more than nine out of ten lower secondary teachers (95%) worked in schools where teachers are formally appraised at least once each year (OECD, 2025a). In Australia, 93 per cent of lower secondary teachers and 94 per cent of primary teachers reported working in schools where teachers are formally appraised at least once each year. Because numbers of principals are small, few differences involving Australia or other individual countries are statistically significant.

“Classroom observation” appeared to be the most widespread formal appraisal method (Figure 3.5), and this has been the case since 2018 (OECD, 2025a). The least reported appraisal method was “assessments of teachers’ content knowledge”, with approximately two-thirds (66%) of teachers being in schools using this method. Although this difference is not statistically significant, 76 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers worked in schools where principals reported the use of self-assessment methods as part of the appraisal process, as compared to the OECD average of 65 per cent.

Most Australian and OECD lower secondary schools used “school and classroom-based results” and “external student results” in appraising teachers (Table 3.7). For Australian primary teachers, the figures were similar but a little lower. There was a marked decline in the use of external results for appraisal since TALIS 2018 across the OECD on average by five percentage points, for Australian lower secondary teachers by six percentage points, and for Australian primary teachers by 14 percentage points.

3.5.2. Sources for formal teacher appraisal

TALIS 2024 documented the proportions of teachers working in schools where teachers are formally appraised at least once a year by different people, and indicated that the people most commonly involved in formal appraisals of teachers are members of the school management team other than the principal (reported by 87% of lower secondary teachers and 90% of primary teachers, which were well above the OECD average). Principals were also usually reported as involved in appraisals by Australian primary teachers (reported by 85% of teachers), and across the OECD (88%) but less often by Australian lower secondary teachers (68%). Assigned mentors and teachers who are not part of the school management team were more often reported by Australian lower secondary teachers as being involved in appraisals (75% and 65% respectively) than the OECD average (61% and 45% respectively) (Table 3.8).

Table 3.8 Teacher appraisals conducted at least once per year, by source
Percentage of teachers formally appraised at least once a year by the following sources¹ (based on principal reports)

	Australia (Lower sec.)		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Principal	68	(3.6)	88	(0.4)	85	(3.2)
Other members of the school management team	87	(2.6)	66	(0.6)	90	(2.2)
Assigned mentors	75	(3.8)	61	(0.6)	73	(3.3)
Teachers (who are not part of the school management team)	65	(4.6)	45	(0.7)	55	(4.1)
External individuals or bodies ²	36	(3.7)	55	(0.6)	30	(4.2)

¹ Estimated based on principals’ responses and using final teacher weights.

² For example, inspectors, municipality representatives, districts/jurisdictions office personnel, or other persons from outside the school.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table MCOB.UND.PQ35.

3.6 Implementing educational change

Schools and education systems frequently introduce changes in response to “social, technological, environmental and economic changes” (OECD, 2025a) and in response to new perspectives on teaching and learning processes. There is a large body of research that has investigated change processes in education (Aldridge & McLure, 2023). This literature indicates the importance of a supportive school climate and the need for planning, preparation, and building capacity. It also suggests that schools and teachers may be required to implement new initiatives too frequently.

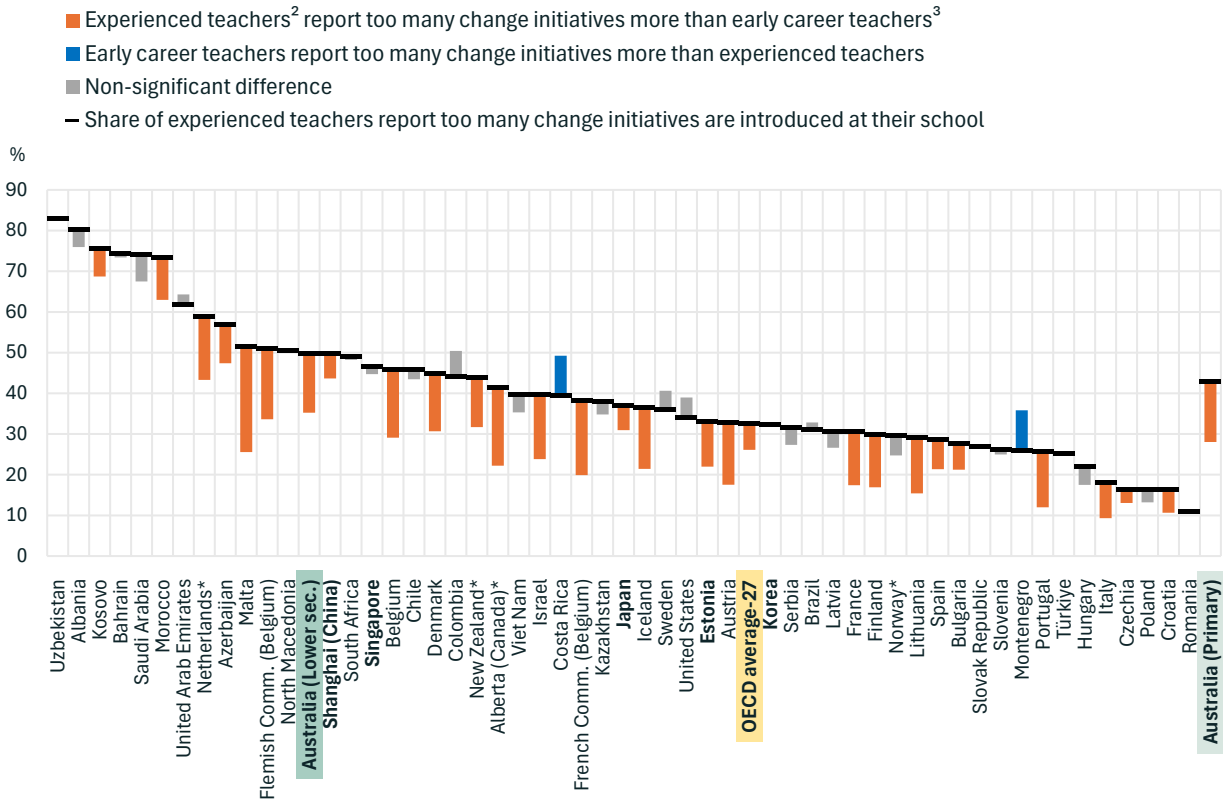
3.6.1. Changes in schools

In TALIS 2024, 46 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers indicated that “too many change initiatives are introduced at this school” and 59 per cent indicated that they “would like to see a period of stability before we change anything else in this school”. These values were higher than the corresponding averages across OECD lower secondary teachers (31% and 44% respectively, but similar to those for Australian primary teachers (38% and 56% respectively).

Figure 3.6 compares the proportions of early career (five or fewer years of teaching) and experienced (more than ten years of teaching) teachers who agreed or strongly agreed that “too many changes are introduced in their schools”.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers, 50 per cent of experienced teachers agreed or strongly agreed that “too many changes are introduced in their schools” compared to 35 per cent of early career teachers. This gap was more pronounced than the OECD average, where 32 per cent of experienced teachers and 26 per cent of early career teachers expressed the same concern. This pattern was similar among Australian primary teachers (43% and 27%, respectively). These data suggest that early career teachers may be less likely to feel overwhelmed by new initiatives or may have experienced fewer cycles of change.

Figure 3.6 Teachers' change fatigue, by years of teaching experience
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who "agree" or "strongly agree" that too many change initiatives are introduced at their school¹



¹ Regardless of whether these changes were initiated by the school or externally.
² Experienced teachers refer to those with more than ten years of teaching experience.
³ Early career teachers refer to those with up to five years of teaching experience.
 * Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.
 Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ72a.



4 Developing teacher expertise

Key findings

- Three-quarters of Australian lower secondary teachers and two-thirds of Australian primary teachers reported that their initial teacher education quality was high.
- Australian lower secondary teachers felt less prepared from their initial teacher education than counterparts from OECD countries on subject content, subject-specific and general pedagogy, and classroom practice in the subjects they teach.
- Smaller proportions of teachers felt prepared to teach in a multicultural or multilingual setting, to support students' social and emotional development, and to use digital resources in teaching, than felt well prepared for other aspects of teaching.
- In both Australia and on average across the OECD, the share of recent graduates reporting a high sense of preparedness for classroom practice in their teaching subject declined a little since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018.
- Approximately one-third of Australian early career teachers participated in a mentoring program with an assigned mentor. This represented an increase since TALIS 2018, especially among primary teachers. In Australia, and a majority of education systems, being mentored and mentoring other teachers were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.
- About half of Australian teachers who had started at their school over the past five years reported that they had participated in a formal induction program.
- Compared to the OECD average, Australian lower secondary teachers reported undertaking professional learning (i.e. professional development) activities more frequently that involve engagement with teacher networks, reflections on lesson observations, self-initiated learning activities, and courses/seminars /workshops.
- Most professional learning by Australian teachers involved knowledge of the curriculum, subject area knowledge, assessment practices, and subject-related pedagogies. The greatest growth in professional learning participation was on classroom management for student behaviour. Australian teachers also reported that feedback they received in the previous 12 months led to a positive change in how they managed student behaviour in the classroom.
- Just over half of Australian teachers reported that the professional learning activities they participated in during the 12 months preceding the survey had a positive impact on their teaching. Frequently reported areas in which Australian lower secondary teachers cited a need for professional development included their content areas and classroom management for student behaviour. One in four teachers reported a need for professional training in the use of artificial intelligence (AI).
- Time was the most frequently mentioned barrier to professional learning. Three-quarters of Australian lower secondary teachers and three-fifths of Australian primary teachers indicated that conflicts with work schedules and other commitments were impediments to professional learning activities.

4.1 Introduction

The report *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (OECD, 2005) provided a foundation for TALIS and emphasised policy issues concerned with attracting good teachers to the profession and developing teachers' expertise. These have been enduring topics in TALIS over four cycles from 2008 to 2024. Over successive TALIS cycles there has been increased emphasis on the associations of these factors with teachers' affective responses to teaching, such as their wellbeing and sense that the aims of their lessons are being accomplished. Moreover, along with institutional-level issues of leadership and climate, these teacher-level issues may suggest potential explanations about how teachers come into and leave the profession.

This chapter examines how teachers are provided with learning opportunities to develop expertise at three different stages of their career:

- ❖ before they become teachers (initial teacher education);
- ❖ as they start their teaching career (induction and mentoring); and
- ❖ throughout their professional life as teachers (continuous professional learning).

The chapter then explores what teachers think about these opportunities, and how participation in training and professional development activities is related to important professional outcomes such as wellbeing, job satisfaction, and the fulfilment of lesson aims.

4.2 Initial teacher education

Initial teacher education typically includes subject matter content, subject-related pedagogy, general pedagogy, and teaching practice. Short programmes may be provided for specific groups of aspiring teachers (e.g. those with relevant professional experience outside of teaching or those with previous teaching experience). For those with a completed relevant subject-matter qualification, training in educational principles, pedagogy, or practice may be required. The rules governing the qualifications required for teaching vary among countries and over time and teachers currently teaching may have followed different paths.

This section describes the pathways that teachers in participating education systems have followed to acquire their initial teacher education qualification, and it reports on teachers' views about the quality of their initial training.

4.2.1. How teachers are trained

In TALIS 2024, on average across the OECD the majority of lower secondary teachers in most education systems completed a regular teacher education or training programme as their first teacher qualification (Table 4.1). This was specified in the international questionnaire as “post-secondary education leading to a teaching credential, typically at a university with a focus on subject-matter, pedagogy and practice either concurrently or consecutively”. A fast-track, shorter or specialised teacher education program referred to those “that are not regular teacher education or training program in terms of duration and/or content designed for specific groups (e.g. second-career candidates, candidates with some teaching experience, or candidates with high levels of subject knowledge)”. These courses have become more prevalent in recent years, especially for second-career teachers (OECD, 2025a).

Table 4.1 Teachers’ types of first teaching qualifications
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who completed the following types of education as their first teaching qualification

	A regular teacher education or training programme ¹		A fast-track/shorter or specialised teacher education or training programme ²		Subject-specific education or training only		Another formal qualification not listed		No formal qualification related to the subject taught or to any type of pedagogical education	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	48	(1.0)	47	(1.0)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.4)	0	(0.0)
Estonia	72	(1.1)	8	(0.5)	9	(0.6)	5	(0.4)	6	(0.5)
Japan	98	(0.2)	0	(0.1)	2	(0.2)	0	(0.1)	0	(0.0)
Korea	98	(0.2)	1	(0.1)	1	(0.2)	0	(0.1)	0	(0.1)
Shanghai (China)	90	(0.5)	8	(0.4)	2	(0.2)	0	(0.1)	0	(0.1)
Singapore	74	(1.0)	16	(0.8)	7	(0.7)	2	(0.3)	1	(0.1)
OECD average-27	77	(0.2)	10	(0.1)	8	(0.1)	3	(0.1)	2	(0.1)
Australia (Primary)	76	(1.0)	19	(0.9)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.4)	0	(0.1)

¹ A “regular initial teacher education or training programme” requires future teachers to complete post-secondary education leading to a teaching credential, typically at a university with a focus on subject matter, pedagogy and practice either concurrently or consecutively. The Australian adaptation of the questionnaire stated “a bachelor of education degree”.

² A “fast-track/shorter or specialised initial teacher education or training programme” refers to pathways into a teaching job that are not “regular teacher education or training programmes” in terms of duration and/or content designed for specific groups (e.g. second-career candidates, candidates with some teaching experience, or candidates with high levels of subject knowledge). The Australian adaptation of the questionnaire used the wording “an undergraduate degree in another field followed by a teacher course (e.g. add-on teacher degree, Master of Teaching, Teach for Australia)”.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TQUAL.TQ04.

Approximately half (48%) of Australian lower secondary teachers indicated that they had completed a regular bachelor of education program, and just under half (47%) had completed “an undergraduate degree in another field followed by a teacher course”. The distribution appeared to be significantly different to the OECD averages, where approximately three-quarters (77%) of lower secondary teachers had completed a regular ITE program, and one in ten (10%) had completed a shorter or specialised program. It was also significantly different to Australian primary teachers, of whom three-quarters (76%) had completed a regular ITE teacher education program and one in five (19%) had completed “an undergraduate degree in another field followed by a teacher course”.

Sixty-two per cent of second-career teachers had undertaken postgraduate teacher education programs, which is a much higher rate than first-career teachers (43%), reflecting the prevalence of postgraduate ITE courses in Australia. This was higher than the OECD averages, which were 25 per cent and nine per cent respectively. For Australian primary teachers, the figures were 43 per cent and 16 per cent, respectively.

4.2.2. Teachers' views of their initial teacher education

TALIS 2024 asked teachers to rate their initial teacher education. Around three-quarters of Australian lower secondary teachers (75%) reported that they agreed or strongly agreed that the quality of their initial education was high overall (Table 4.2). However, recently qualified teachers (i.e. qualified in the five years before participating in TALIS 2024) were less likely to “agree” or “strongly agree” with this statement (70%). The OECD averages for lower secondary teachers (77%) were slightly higher than the Australian results overall and for experienced teachers, but five percentage points higher for recently qualified teachers (75%). More than two-thirds (69%) of Australian primary teachers expressed agreement that the quality of their initial education was high, with the figure being a little higher for recently qualified teachers (73%) than experienced teachers (68%).

Table 4.2 Teachers' ratings of quality of first teaching qualification, by year of completion
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who agree with “overall, its quality was high” regarding first teaching qualification

	Total		≤ 5 years prior to the TALIS 2024 survey		> 5 years prior to the TALIS 2024 survey		Difference	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	75	(1.2)	70	(2.7)	76	(1.3)	6.2	(3.0)
Estonia	91	(0.7)	91	(2.1)	92	(0.8)	1.0	(2.3)
Japan	57	(1.4)	64	(2.6)	55	(1.5)	-9.1	(2.6)
Korea	78	(1.0)	83	(2.4)	77	(1.2)	-6.8	(2.6)
Shanghai (China)	92	(0.5)	92	(1.3)	93	(0.6)	0.2	(1.5)
Singapore	92	(0.8)	88	(2.6)	92	(0.8)	4.4	(2.7)
OECD average-27	77	(0.2)	75	(0.6)	77	(0.2)	2.4	(0.6)
Australia (Primary)	69	(1.3)	73	(2.4)	68	(1.4)	-5.2	(2.6)

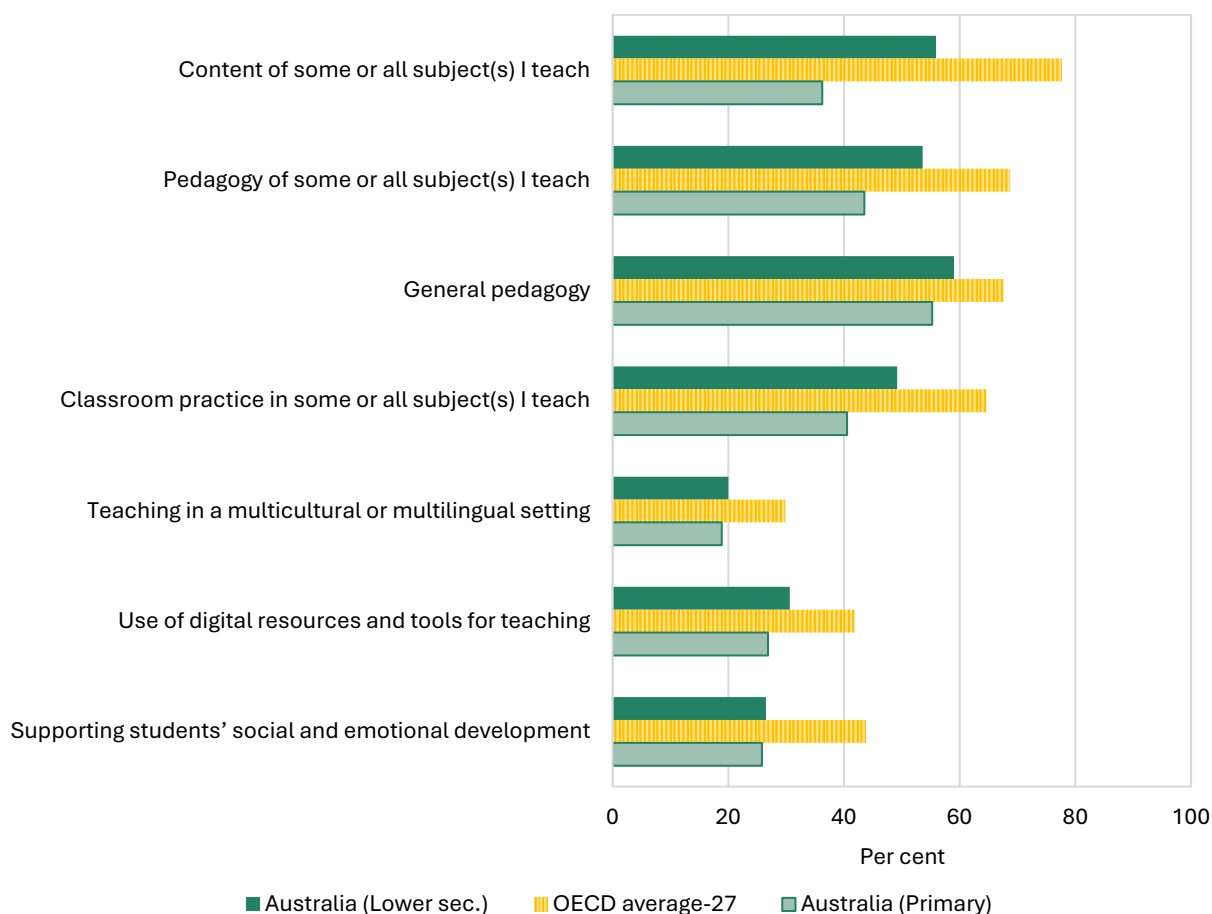
Note: Statistically significant differences are shown in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TQAL.TQ06.

Overall ratings of the quality of their first teaching qualification for Australian lower secondary teachers were higher than those of their counterparts in Japan, and lower than those in Estonia, Shanghai (China) and Singapore.

TALIS 2024 also asked teachers whether their initial teacher education had prepared them for different aspects of teaching “quite a bit” or “a lot” (Figure 4.1). Australian lower secondary teachers reported lower levels of preparedness than the OECD average on each of these aspects of teaching: subject content (22 percentage points lower), supporting students’ social and emotional development (17 percentage points lower), subject-specific pedagogy (15 percentage points lower), classroom practice in teaching subjects (15 percentage points lower), using digital resources and tools for teaching (11 percentage points lower), teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting (10 percentage points lower), and general pedagogy (9 percentage points lower).

Figure 4.1 Teachers’ preparedness for teaching
Percentage of teachers who felt prepared “quite a bit” or “a lot” for the following aspects of teaching



Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TQUAL.TQ07.

Australian primary teachers reported lower levels of preparedness than lower secondary teachers on aspects concerned with subject specialisation: subject content (20 percentage points lower), subject-specific pedagogy (10 percentage points lower), and classroom practice in teaching subjects (9 percentage points lower). However, their preparedness was similar to that of their lower secondary counterparts on other aspects of teaching.

Since TALIS 2018, there was a decline in the extent of preparedness for teaching subjects and classroom practice in teaching subjects for both the OECD average (71% to 61% respectively for TALIS 2018 and 2024) and for Australian lower secondary teachers (65% to 51% respectively) (OECD, 2025a).

4.3 Induction and mentoring

Even though intending teachers practise teaching during their teacher education programs, receiving support when starting a teaching position can be an important part of developing pedagogical expertise (Maulana, Helms-Lorenz, & van de Grift, 2015), and retaining teachers in the profession (Helms-Lorenz, van de Grift, & Maulana, 2016). This support often takes the form of induction, coaching, or mentoring that integrates them into a new working environment with new colleagues and students. Induction and mentoring activities can succeed because they facilitate knowledge transfer from highly skilled teachers (Papay et al., 2020). There is evidence that programs with small numbers of teachers have larger benefits on instruction and achievement than large-scale programs (Kraft, Blazer, & Hogan, 2018). An OECD report on effective teacher policies identified that high-performing countries have classroom practice as part of pre-service teacher education or an induction period. It noted that early career “teachers benefit from intensive induction or mentoring programmes to support beginning teacher(s)” (OECD, 2018, p. 45).

Induction programmes can be formal (e.g. regular supervision by a principal, reduced teaching load, formal mentoring arrangements with an experienced teacher) or informal (e.g. unstructured or unplanned activities comprising general introductions to a school and the work, informal peer work with other new teachers, a welcome handbook). TALIS considers that induction activities are intended not only to support new teachers’ introduction into the teaching profession but also to support experienced teachers who are new to a school.

TALIS asks teachers whether they took part in induction activities during their first employment as a teacher, and at their current school. Teachers are defined to have recently arrived at their current school if they report having five years or fewer of teaching experience at that school in TALIS 2024. TALIS 2024 found that 93 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers who had recently arrived at their current school reported participating in induction, which was significantly higher than in TALIS 2018 (79%), similar to that for Australian primary teachers (90%), and higher than the OECD average of 72 per cent (Table 4.3). The OECD average was over 30 percentage points higher than it was in 2018 (41%).

Similarly, 72 per cent of recently arrived Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in a formal induction programme and 84 per cent reported participating in informal induction activities, which were above the OECD averages (44% and 31% respectively). The corresponding participation rates for Australian primary teachers were 59 per cent (formal induction) and 79 per cent (informal induction). In general, informal induction activities were more common than formal programs. The rates of participation in induction for Australian lower secondary teachers were higher than those for Estonia, Japan, and Korea and nearly as high as those for Shanghai (China) and Singapore.

Table 4.3 Change in participation in induction activities for teachers recently arrived at their school, from 2018 to 2024
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers recently arrived at their current school¹ who took part in the following types of induction activities

	Any type of induction						Formal induction programme						Informal induction activities					
	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	79	(1.3)	93	(0.8)	14	(1.5)	61	(1.6)	72	(1.5)	11	(2.2)	66	(1.6)	84	(1.3)	17	(2.0)
Estonia	41	(2.4)	64	(2.1)	23	(3.2)	18	(1.8)	35	(2.1)	17	(2.8)	34	(2.0)	55	(2.2)	21	(3.0)
Japan	19	(1.1)	71	(1.1)	52	(1.5)	14	(0.8)	64	(1.2)	50	(1.5)	8	(0.7)	27	(1.3)	18	(1.5)
Korea	26	(1.2)	74	(1.2)	48	(1.7)	14	(0.9)	52	(1.6)	38	(1.8)	20	(1.0)	54	(1.4)	34	(1.7)
Shanghai (China)	63	(1.9)	98	(0.4)	35	(2.0)	43	(2.2)	96	(0.6)	52	(2.2)	29	(1.8)	54	(1.9)	25	(2.6)
Singapore	90	(0.8)	97	(0.7)	7	(1.1)	82	(1.0)	82	(1.9)	0	(2.1)	66	(1.3)	77	(1.7)	11	(2.2)
OECD average-25	41	(0.4)	72	(0.4)	31	(0.5)	25	(0.3)	44	(0.4)	19	(0.5)	30	(0.4)	57	(0.4)	27	(0.5)
Australia (Primary)	70	(1.3)	90	(1.3)	20	(1.8)	47	(1.3)	59	(2.0)	12	(2.4)	58	(1.6)	79	(1.6)	21	(2.3)

¹ Teachers recently arrived at their current school refer to those with five years or less of teaching experience at their current school.

Note: Significant differences shown in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ17_NOV.

Formal instructional mentoring typically involves beginning teachers being paired with an instructional mentor for the first few years of their career (OECD, 2025b). As shown in Table 4.4, approximately two-fifths of early career Australian lower secondary teachers (five or fewer years of experience) had an assigned mentor in 2024 (41%), which was not significantly above that in 2018 (37%). The OECD averages for 2024 and 2018 were somewhat lower (25 % in 2024, 19% in 2018) but the change in the OECD averages is statistically significant. In TALIS 2024, mentoring was highly prevalent in Shanghai (China) (79%), similar to the Australian level in both Singapore (42%) and Japan (41%), and less prevalent in Estonia (23%) and Korea (12%). Mentoring rates for early career Australian primary teachers were similar to those for Australian early career lower secondary teachers.

Table 4.4 Change in pairing with instructional mentors for early career teachers, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of early career¹ lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who had an assigned mentor after commencing teaching

	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	37	(1.8)	41	(2.9)	4	(3.4)
Estonia	17	(2.2)	23	(2.3)	5	(3.2)
Japan	40	(2.2)	41	(2.2)	1	(3.1)
Korea	16	(1.8)	12	(1.7)	-4	(2.5)
Shanghai (China)	67	(2.2)	79	(1.8)	12	(2.9)
Singapore	54	(1.7)	42	(3.7)	-12	(4.1)
OECD average-25	19	(0.4)	25	(0.5)	6	(0.7)
Australia (Primary)	36	(2.1)	44	(3.5)	8	(4.1)

¹ Early career teachers refer to those with up to five years or less of teaching experience.

Note: Significant differences shown in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR2.TQ19_NOV.

4.4 Continuous professional learning

Continuous professional learning is designed to support the professional development of teachers throughout their careers. It is defined as “formal and informal activities that aim to update, develop and broaden the skills, knowledge, expertise and other relevant characteristics of in-service teachers” (Boeskens, Nusche & Yurita, 2020, p. 14). It can include updating content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and general pedagogical knowledge (OECD, 2025b; OECD, 2025c; Shulman, 1987), and can encompass competencies related to curricula, students and their characteristics, and the educational context in which they are working (Guerriero, 2017).

4.4.1. Organisation and structure

Nearly all Australian lower secondary teachers (99%) and Australian primary teachers (99%) participated in at least one professional learning activity in the 12 months prior to participating in TALIS 2024. On average, similarly high levels of participation in professional learning were evident across the OECD countries. Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers participated in five professional learning modes. These participation levels did not differ

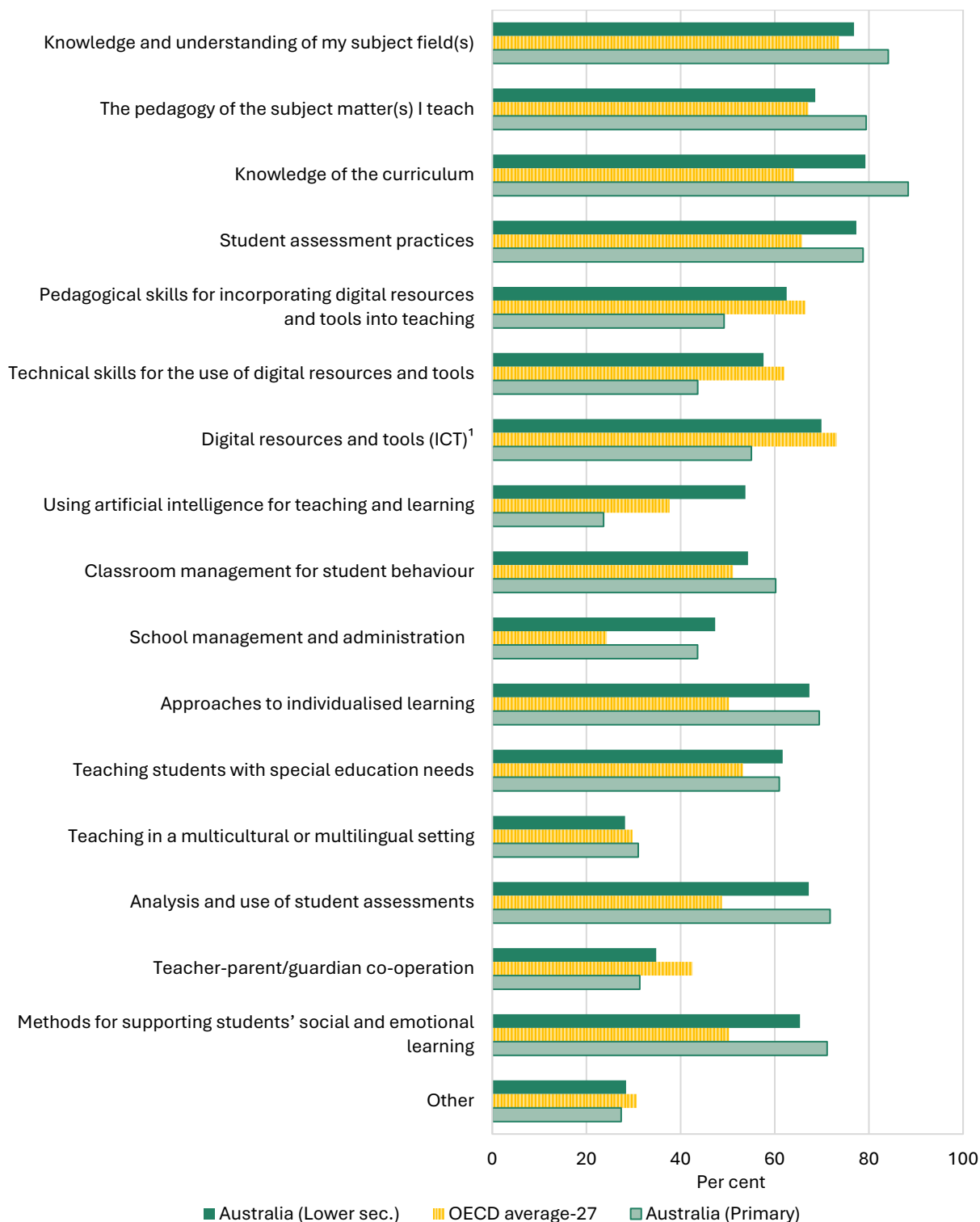
significantly with years of teaching experience in Australia. The corresponding OECD average for lower secondary teachers was four professional learning modes.

The professional learning modes of Australian lower secondary teachers included courses/seminars/workshops (95%), education conferences (57%), formal qualifications (12%), school visits (17%), visits to other organisation (25%), reflections on lesson observations (64%), formal coaching (34%), engagement with teacher networks (74%), self-initiated learning (82%), and other activities (26%) (Figure 4.2). The OECD averages for participation in these learning modes were courses/seminars/workshops (84%), education conferences (49%), formal qualifications (19%), school visits (24%), visits to other organisation (20%), reflections on lesson observations (49%), formal coaching (28%), engagement with teacher networks (51%), self-initiated learning (69%), and other activities (27%).

Compared to the OECD average, professional learning by Australian lower secondary teachers more frequently involved engagement with teacher networks (by 24 percentage points), reflections on lesson observations (by 16 percentage points), self-initiated learning activities (by 13 percentage points), and courses/seminars/workshops (by 10 percentage points) (Figure 4.2). All other differences were less than 10 percentage points.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers, early career teachers were less likely than experienced teachers to have participated in education conferences (by seven percentage points), visits to other organisations (by 11 percentage points), engagement with teacher networks (by eight percentage points), and self-initiated learning activities (by six percentage points). Early career teachers were more likely to have participated in formal qualification programs (by 8 percentage points) and reflections on lesson observations (by 11 percentage points). It would be valuable to investigate the reasons behind these differences.

Figure 4.2 Content of professional learning activities for teachers
Percentage of teachers reporting that the following topics were included in their professional learning activities in the 12 months prior to the survey



¹ For TALIS 2024, refer to either “Pedagogical skills for incorporating digital resources and tools into teaching” or “Technical skills for the use of digital resources and tools”. For TALIS 2018, refer to “ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching”.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TEXP.TQ21.

4.4.2. Content

Professional learning activities undertaken by Australian lower secondary teachers frequently included content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (Figure 4.2). Over three-quarters (77%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participation in activities concerned with “knowledge and understanding of my subject field(s)” and two-thirds (69%) reported participation in activities concerned with “the pedagogy of the subject matter I teach”. These participation levels were similar to the OECD averages (74% and 67% respectively). Among Australian primary teachers, participation in “knowledge and understanding of my subject field(s)” and “the pedagogy of the subject matter I teach” were above those for Australian lower secondary teachers (84% and 79%, respectively).

The topic that had the highest participation level for Australian lower secondary teachers (79%) and Australian primary teachers (88%) was “knowledge of the curriculum”. Participation in activities concerning knowledge of the curriculum was higher for Australian secondary teachers than the OECD average (64%).

Over three-quarters (77%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning concerned with “student assessment practices”, which was above the OECD average (65%) but similar to that reported by Australian primary teachers (79%). Participation in professional development on “analysis and use of student assessments” was reported by 67% of Australian lower secondary teachers, which again was above the OECD average (49%) and below that reported by Australian primary teachers (72%).

Professional learning also involved digital technologies. A large proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers (70%) reported participating in activities concerned with “digital resources and tools (ICT)”, which was below the OECD average (73%), but above that of Australian primary teachers (55%). Fewer than two-thirds (63%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in activities involving “pedagogical skills for incorporating digital resources and tools into teaching”, which was a little below the OECD average (67%), but above that reported by Australian primary teachers (49%). Professional learning in “technical skills for the use of digital resources and tools” was reported by just under three-fifths (58%) of Australian lower secondary teachers, which was below the OECD average (62%), but higher than that reported by Australian primary teachers (44%). The emergent topic of “using artificial intelligence for teaching and learning” was the focus of professional learning activities for over half of Australian lower secondary teachers (54%), which was above the OECD average (38%). One-quarter (24%) of Australian primary teachers reported participation in professional learning on this topic.

Other aspects of general pedagogy were also included in professional learning activities. “Approaches to individualised learning” was a topic in which two-thirds (67%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning, which was greater than the OECD average (50%), but similar to that reported by Australian primary teachers (69%). Three-fifths (62%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning about “teaching students with special education needs”, compared to the OECD average of one-half (53%). The corresponding participation rate for Australian primary teachers (61%) was similar to that of the lower secondary counterparts. Over one-quarter (28%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning on “teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting”, which was similar to the OECD average (30%) and the figure for Australian primary teachers (31%).

Two-thirds (65%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning on “methods for supporting students’ social and emotional learning”, which was above the OECD average (50%), and lower than the figure for Australian primary teachers (71%). Approximately half (54%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning regarding “classroom management for student behaviour”, which was similar to the OECD average (51%), but less than for Australian primary teachers (60%).

Fewer than half (47%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning on “school management and administration”, which was higher than the OECD average (24%), and similar to Australian primary teachers (44%). Approximately one-third (35%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported participating in professional learning regarding “teacher-parent/guardian co-operation”, which was below the OECD average (43%), and slightly higher than for Australian primary teachers (31%).

There were changes in the content of professional learning undertaken by Australian teachers since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. A higher proportion of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported participating in professional learning involving classroom management of student behaviour than in 2018, but lower proportions reported participation in professional learning involving subject knowledge and pedagogy concerned with the subjects taught as well as knowledge of the curriculum (Table 4.5). For Australian primary teachers, there were increases in professional learning involving classroom management of student behaviour and teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting, but declines in professional learning involving digital resources, student assessment practices, and subject knowledge.

Table 4.5 Change in the content of professional learning activities for teachers, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of teachers reporting that the following topics were included in their professional learning activities in the 12 months prior to the survey

	Australia (Lower sec.)						Australia (Primary)					
	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Knowledge and understanding of my subject field(s)	82	(0.8)	77	(0.9)	-5	(1.2)	88	(0.8)	84	(1.0)	-3	(1.2)
The pedagogy of the subject matter(s) I teach	74	(0.9)	69	(1.1)	-6	(1.4)	82	(0.8)	79	(1.0)	-2	(1.2)
Knowledge of the curriculum	83	(0.7)	79	(0.9)	-3	(1.1)	88	(0.7)	88	(0.7)	0	(1.0)
Student assessment practices	77	(0.9)	77	(1.0)	1	(1.4)	84	(0.8)	79	(1.2)	-5	(1.4)
Digital resources and tools (ICT) ¹	67	(1.0)	70	(1.6)	3	(1.9)	63	(1.0)	55	(1.7)	-8	(1.9)
Classroom management for student behaviour	44	(1.0)	54	(1.5)	10	(1.8)	55	(1.0)	60	(1.8)	5	(2.1)
Teaching students with special education needs	58	(1.0)	62	(1.3)	4	(1.6)	59	(1.1)	61	(1.4)	2	(1.8)
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting	23	(0.9)	28	(1.7)	5	(1.9)	23	(0.8)	31	(1.7)	8	(1.9)

¹ For TALIS 2024, refer to either “pedagogical skills for incorporating digital resources and tools into teaching” or “technical skills for the use of digital resources and tools”. For TALIS 2018, refer to “ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching”.

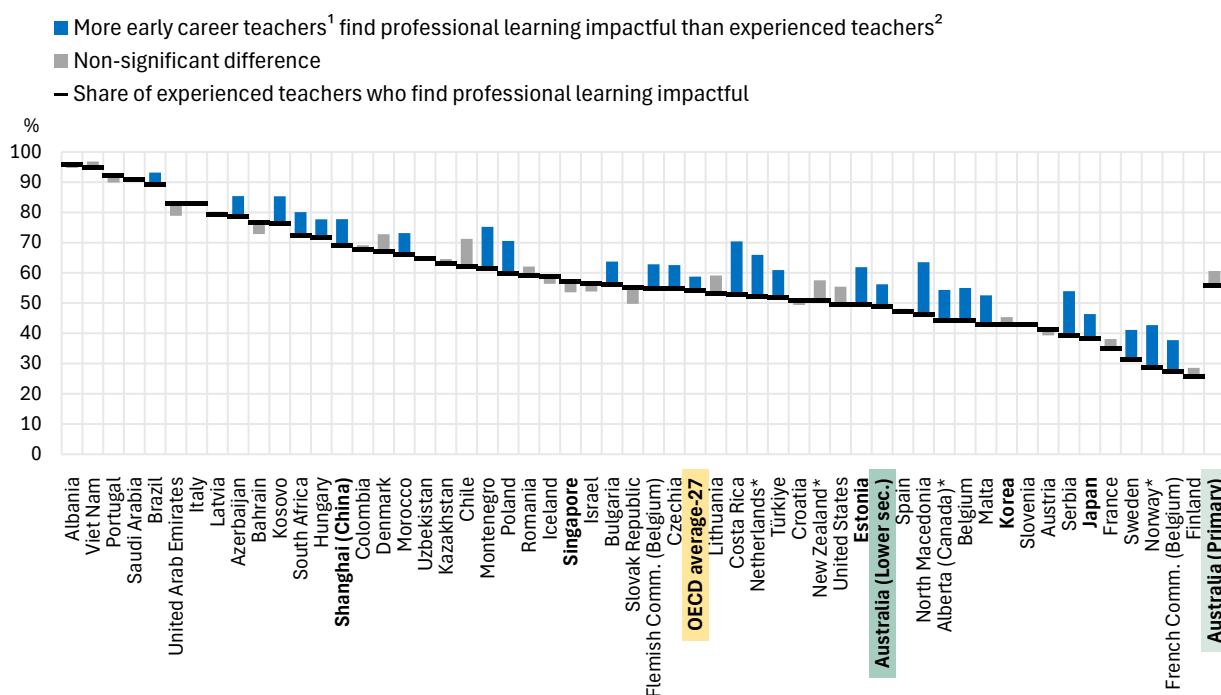
Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ21.

4.4.3. Impact of professional learning and outstanding professional learning needs

In TALIS 2024, teachers were able to record their views on the impact that their professional learning activities had on their teaching and their ongoing professional learning needs. Half of Australian lower secondary teachers (49%) reported that their professional learning had impacted on their teaching “quite a bit” or “a lot”; and this was more commonly reported by early career teachers (56%) than experienced teachers (49%) (Figure 4.3). There was a similar difference in the OECD averages for early career (59%) and experienced (54%) teachers. Among Australian primary teachers, the difference between early career (61%) and experienced teachers (56%) was not statistically significant. The OECD reports that among Australian lower secondary teachers, a greater proportion of female teachers than male teachers indicated that professional learning positively impacted on their teaching (OECD, 2025a).

Figure 4.3 Teachers who find professional learning impactful
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that the professional learning activities they participated in during the previous 12 months had a positive impact on their teaching “quite a bit” or “a lot”



¹ Early career teachers refer to those with up to five years of teaching experience.

² Experienced teachers refer to those with more than ten years of teaching experience.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ22.

Skills for using AI for teaching and learning was the most commonly reported high need for professional learning for Australian lower secondary teachers (26%), lower than the OECD average (29%) but higher than for Australian primary teachers (23%) (Table 4.6). For Australian lower secondary teachers, the next most frequently reported areas of professional learning need in 2024 were “teaching students with special education needs” (11%) and “classroom management of student behaviour” (8%), which were also below the OECD averages of 23 and 20 per cent, respectively. “Classroom management of student behaviour” was also the next most frequently reported area of professional learning need by Australian primary teachers (12%). “Digital

resources and tools (ICT)” was cited as a professional learning need by just over one in ten (12%) Australian lower secondary teachers and a similar proportion of Australian primary teachers (18%). These figures were much lower than the OECD average for Australian lower secondary teachers (23%).

Table 4.6 Change in professional learning needs of teachers, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of teachers reporting changes in high levels of professional learning needs¹

	Australia (Lower sec.)						OECD average-27						Australia (Primary)					
	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)		TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Knowledge and understanding of my subject field(s)	4	(0.5)	4	(0.5)	1	(0.7)	10	(0.1)	12	(0.2)	2	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	4	(0.5)	2	(0.6)
The pedagogy of the subject matter(s) I teach	3	(0.4)	3	(0.5)	0	(0.6)	11	(0.1)	13	(0.2)	1	(0.2)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.5)	1	(0.6)
Knowledge of the curriculum	5	(0.6)	6	(0.7)	0	(0.9)	8	(0.1)	11	(0.2)	3	(0.2)	3	(0.4)	6	(0.6)	3	(0.7)
Student assessment practices	6	(0.5)	5	(0.6)	-1	(0.8)	13	(0.2)	15	(0.2)	2	(0.2)	6	(0.5)	7	(0.9)	2	(1.0)
Digital resources and tools (ICT) ²	11	(0.8)	12	(0.9)	1	(1.2)	19	(0.2)	23	(0.2)	4	(0.3)	18	(0.8)	18	(0.9)	0	(1.3)
Classroom management for student behaviour	5	(0.4)	8	(0.6)	2	(0.8)	16	(0.2)	20	(0.2)	4	(0.3)	6	(0.5)	12	(1.0)	6	(1.1)
Teaching students with special education needs	12	(0.7)	11	(0.8)	0	(1.0)	23	(0.2)	23	(0.2)	0	(0.3)	11	(0.6)	16	(1.1)	4	(1.2)
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting	7	(0.5)	7	(0.6)	0	(0.8)	15	(0.2)	17	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	7	(0.6)	9	(0.9)	2	(1.1)
Skills for using artificial intelligence for teaching and learning ³	a	a	26	(1.1)	a	a	a	a	29	(0.2)	a	a	a	a	23	(1.1)	a	a

¹ Binary variable: the reference category refers to “moderate level of need”, “low level of need”, and “no need at the present”.

² For TALIS 2024, refer to either “pedagogical skills for incorporating digital resources and tools into teaching” or “technical skills for the use of digital resources and tools”. For TALIS 2018, refer to “ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching”.

³ Data sourced from BMUL.TEXP.TQ24.

Notes: Statistically significant differences are indicated in **bold**. a: new question for TALIS 2024.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Tables BMUL.TR2.TQ24 and BMUL.TEXP.TQ24.

4.4.4. Barriers to participation

Three-quarters of Australian lower secondary teachers agreed or strongly agreed that “professional learning conflicts with my work schedule” and that they “do not have time due to other commitments or responsibilities” were barriers to their participation in professional learning (76% and 74% respectively) (Figure 4.4). This was significantly higher than TALIS 2018, when 32 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers agreed or strongly agreed that “professional learning conflicts with my work schedule”, and 60 per cent cited that they “do not have time due to other commitments or responsibilities”.

Similar patterns were evident for Australian primary teachers. Three-fifths (60%) agreed or strongly agreed that “professional learning conflicts with my work schedule” were a barrier to participation in professional learning, and a similar proportion (63%) agreed or strongly agreed that “I do not have time due to other commitments or responsibilities” was a barrier to professional learning (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 Barriers to teacher participation in professional learning
Percentage of teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that the following present barriers to their participation in professional learning



Source: OECD, 2024 TALIS Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ25.

The costs and perceived benefits of professional learning were also cited as barriers to participation by Australian teachers. Forty-eight per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers and 56 per cent of Australian primary teachers reported that they “agree” or “strongly agree” that “professional learning is too expensive” and presents a barrier to participation. Furthermore, 50 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers and 45 per cent of Australian primary teachers reported that “there are no incentives for participating in professional learning”. On average the OECD countries’ agreement with these as impediments to participation was just a little lower than the Australian figures.

Since TALIS 2018, a perceived lack of incentive as a barrier to professional learning increased for Australian lower secondary teachers (by 15 percentage points) and for Australian primary teachers (by 11 percentage points).

Accessibility to professional learning because of distance, lack of employer support, and lack of relevant professional learning were less frequently reported as barriers by Australian lower secondary teachers (less than 25%) and Australian primary teachers (less than 22%). A perceived lack of prerequisites and inadequate digital resources were seen as barriers by 10 per cent or fewer Australian lower secondary and primary teachers.

4.5 How learning opportunities impact teachers and teaching

TALIS 2024 measured self-reported professional outcomes, such as teachers' wellbeing and work-related stress, job satisfaction, and the degree to which they report being able to achieve their lesson aims. These are measured in TALIS using scales that combine information from teachers' answers to three sets of questions concerned with teachers' wellbeing and work-related stress, job satisfaction and the degree to which they report being able to achieve their lesson aims (see Chapter 2). The resulting scales are standardised to have a standard deviation of two across all education systems participating in TALIS, and where the value 10 corresponds to the mid-point of the scale. This section looks at how participating in learning opportunities at different stages of teachers' careers is related to these outcomes.

4.5.1. Wellbeing and job satisfaction

For both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers, neither workplace wellbeing nor stress had a significant relationship with whether initial teacher education was a fast-track program or subject-specific, even after accounting for teacher and school characteristics (OECD, 2025a).

Based on the results of a regression analysis, Australian lower secondary teachers who had recently been mentored had a significantly higher level of job satisfaction than other teachers, after accounting for a range of teacher and school characteristics (Table 4.7). This association was also significant for Australian primary teachers, the OECD on average, and four of the five comparison countries (all except Estonia).

Mentoring others was also positively associated with job satisfaction for Australian lower secondary teachers, as well as the OECD on average, and four of the five comparison countries (in all except Korea). Interestingly, the association of job satisfaction with being a mentor was not significant among Australian primary teachers.

Table 4.7 Regression analyses of relationship between teacher job satisfaction and mentoring
Change in the scale of job satisfaction¹ associated with² mentoring, after accounting for teacher and school characteristics³, for lower secondary and Australian primary teachers

	Being mentored		Mentoring one or more other teachers	
	Dif.	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	0.53	(0.17)	0.35	(0.14)
Estonia	0.31	(0.17)	0.27	(0.13)
Japan	0.74	(0.10)	0.66	(0.11)
Korea	0.75	(0.25)	0.43	(0.23)
Shanghai (China)	0.50	(0.10)	0.28	(0.09)
Singapore	0.39	(0.12)	0.33	(0.12)
OECD average-27	0.46	(0.04)	0.26	(0.03)
Australia (Primary)	0.63	(0.17)	0.13	(0.15)

¹ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable.

³ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, and school intake of students with special education needs.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLSMUL.TQS78.TQ19a_TQ19b.

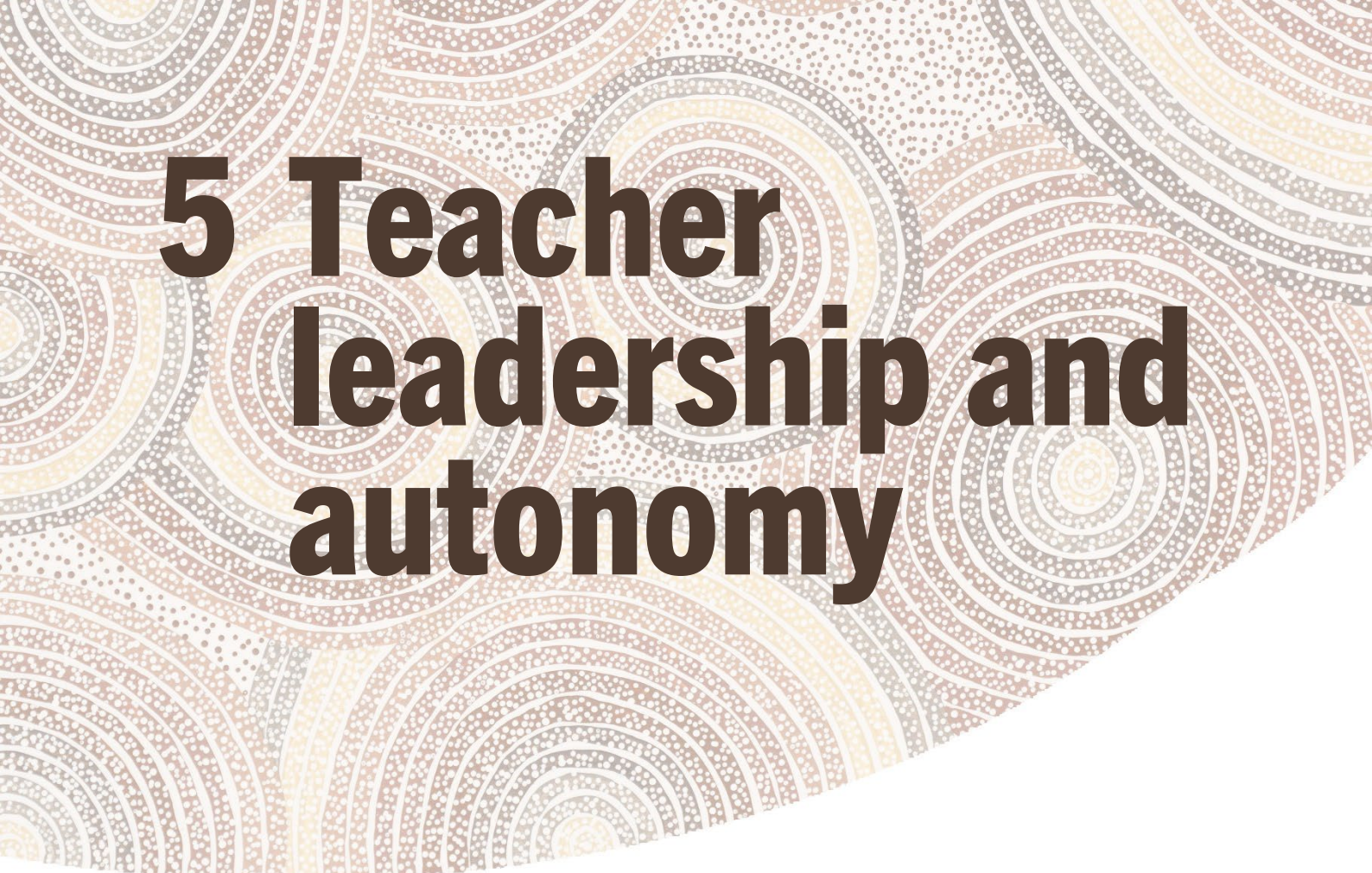
The OECD also reported positive associations among Australian lower secondary teachers between teacher job satisfaction and participation in a formal induction program before accounting for teacher and school characteristics, and after accounting for teacher characteristics, but not after accounting for teacher and school characteristics (OECD, 2025a). No association was evident for participation in an informal induction program or for “any type of induction”. Among Australian primary teachers, there were positive associations of job satisfaction with both formal and informal mentoring (before and after accounting for teacher and school characteristics). This pattern was also evident in the OECD average results for the regression analyses.

4.5.2. Fulfilment of lesson aims

The OECD reports that on average across the OECD participants in TALIS, teachers who report that the quality of their initial teaching education was high are more likely to report that, in their lessons, they can achieve a range of objectives that characterise quality teaching (e.g. presenting content in a comprehensible way, offering opportunities to practice, adapting teaching to meet different students’ needs, and managing student behaviour) (OECD, 2025a). Among Australian lower secondary teachers, there was not a statistically significant relationship between perceived quality of initial teacher education and fulfillment of lesson aims in a class that the teacher randomly selected from those that they run. The scale of fulfilment of lesson aims was constructed using teacher responses about the extent to which the following aims were fulfilled in the past week: “presenting the content in a comprehensible way”, “engaging students in work that challenges them”, “providing students with feedback to support their learning”, “offering students

opportunities to practise what they learned”, and “adapting teaching to meet the different needs of students”. However, there were significant relationships between quality of initial teacher education and fulfilment of lesson aims among Australian primary teachers and the OECD on average, both before and after controlling for teacher and school characteristics.

Among early career Australian lower secondary and primary teachers, fulfilment of lesson aims was not significantly associated with being mentored (OECD, 2025a). However, across OECD countries on average there were significant associations between fulfilment of lesson aims and being mentored.



5 Teacher leadership and autonomy

Highlights

- Australian lower secondary teachers and primary teachers reported higher levels of decision-making involvement on instruction and curriculum than on school policies. However, most Australian teachers at both education levels reported having opportunities for teacher leadership at their schools.
- The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers reporting being part of a school management team was lower than the OECD average. Australian primary teachers were more likely to report being part of a school management team compared to lower secondary teachers.
- Australian lower secondary teachers with higher levels of instructional self-efficacy were more likely to “agree” or “strongly agree” that staff were provided with leadership roles in promoting professional learning communities, while no significant difference was reported among Australian primary teachers.
- The proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who viewed that their profession had an influence on educational policy had declined from 2018 to 2024.
- Most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported having instructional autonomy for different aspects of teaching and expressed confidence in their ability to manage classrooms.
- Opportunities for teachers to influence school decisions and instructional autonomy were positively associated with higher job satisfaction. Furthermore, having instructional autonomy had positive effects on teacher adaptations to student needs among Australian lower secondary teachers but not among primary teachers.

5.1 Introduction

While education systems strive to provide a consistent delivery of high-quality education to all students and across all schools, teachers tend to be in the best position to decide how to adapt learning to learners' specific needs through teaching goal setting, the right choice of pedagogical methods, and aligning learning with the curriculum and expectations within the framework of schools and educational authorities (Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2015). Educational decision-making has for a long time been mainly focussed on school-level governance. However, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of teacher autonomy and leadership, especially regarding pedagogical and classroom management, which has also been highlighted as related to school effectiveness and teacher satisfaction (OECD, 2018). Efforts to localise school management mainly at the institutional level have been criticised as often taking too much time away from teaching and interfering with the capacity of schools and educators to improve learning (Eacott et al., 2023), while providing more autonomy to teachers has been highlighted as a way of helping to retain teachers and reducing the administrative burden (Patil, 2023).

This chapter presents data from TALIS 2024 on teachers' involvement in planning and teaching, decision-making on curriculum, instruction, and school policies. It also presents data on teachers' perceptions of their opportunities for teacher leadership and their capacity to influence decisions, as well as their reported representation on the school management team, their self-efficacy in classroom management, and their instruction. Further, it explores the relationships between self-efficacy and reported opportunities for leadership roles, between participation in school decisions and teacher job satisfaction, between instructional autonomy and adaptation of teaching to student needs, and between instructional autonomy and teacher job satisfaction.

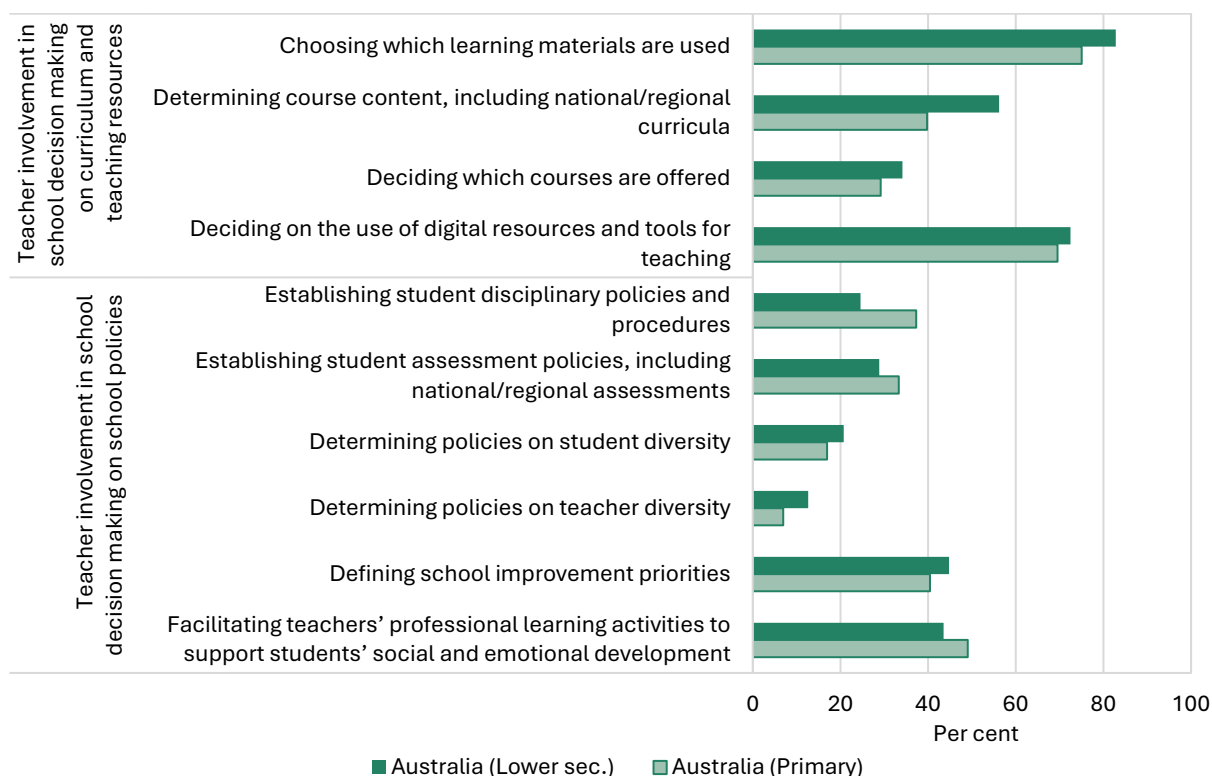
5.2 Teacher leadership

5.2.1. Participation in school governance

A crucial aspect of teachers’ involvement in decision-making is the extent to which they can influence decisions concerning the way their school functions (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Distributed leadership means that, instead of centralising decision-making under formal school leader(s), leadership roles and responsibilities are shared with teachers within the school (Muijs & Harris, 2006). This approach promotes agency beliefs among the teacher body through recognition of the professional expertise of educators (Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2015; OECD, 2020).

Previous TALIS surveys have highlighted that teachers have more autonomy in decision-making in areas or tasks that are closely related to instruction (OECD, 2020). TALIS 2024 asked teachers about the extent to which they had responsibility for decision-making on curriculum, teaching resources, and school policies. Figure 5.1 shows the results for Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who work in schools where the principal reported having a significant responsibility in these aspects of decision-making.

Figure 5.1 Teachers’ involvement in school decision-making on curriculum and instruction
Percentage of teachers working in schools where principals report that teachers have a significant responsibility¹ for the following areas (based on principal reports)



¹ Estimated based on principals’ responses and using final teacher weights. Data refer to teachers not as part of the school management team. A “significant responsibility” is one where an active role is played in decision-making.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables BMUL.NO.PQ24ijk_PQ25a and BMUL.NO.PQ24fg_PQ25cdef.

At both education levels, higher proportions of Australian principals reported that teachers in their school had a significant level of responsibility for aspects of decision-making related to instruction than for broader school policies. More than four out of five Australian lower secondary teachers had principals who reported that teachers in their school have a significant level of responsibility for choosing learning materials, compared to three out of four Australian primary teachers. Approximately seven out of ten teachers at both education levels had principals who reported that teachers at their school have a significant level of responsibility for decisions about the use of digital resources (72% at lower secondary, 70% at primary), while one-third of lower secondary and primary teachers had principals who reported that teachers at their school have a significant level of responsibility for decisions about which courses were offered (34% at lower secondary, 29% at primary). Over half of lower secondary teachers (56%) had principals who reported that teachers at their schools have a significant level of responsibility for determining course content, while two in five primary teachers (40%) had principals who indicated this.

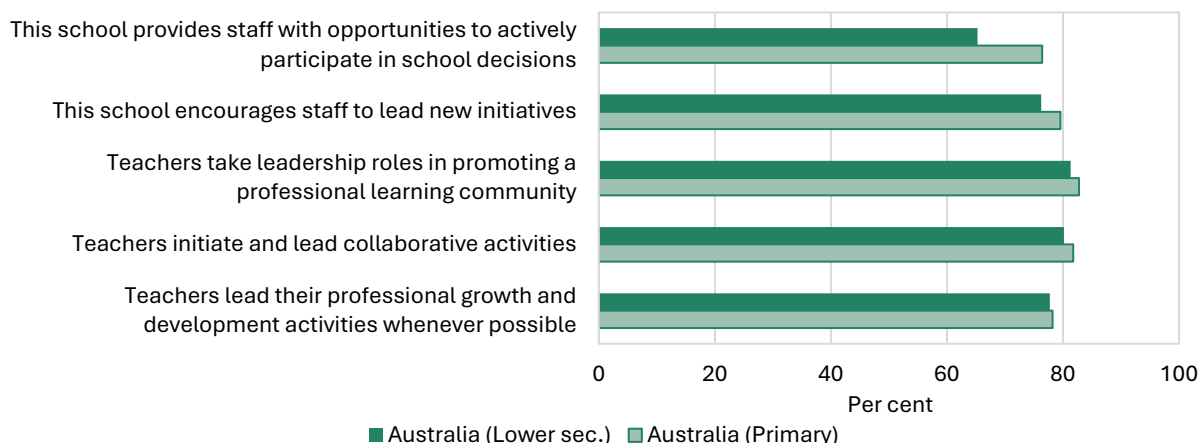
Fewer than half of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers had principals who reported that teachers at their schools have a significant level of responsibility for decision-making on school policies. Almost half of Australian primary teachers (49%) and about two out of five lower secondary teachers (44%) had principals who reported that teachers at their schools have a significant level of responsibility for decisions on teachers' professional learning activities to support students' wellbeing, and about two out of five teachers at both education levels (45% at lower secondary, 40% at primary), had principals who reported that teachers at their schools have a significant level of responsibility for decisions on defining school improvement policies. About one-third of teachers (29% at lower secondary, 33% at primary) were reported by principals to have a significant level of responsibility for decisions on establishing assessment policies, while much smaller proportions of lower secondary and primary teachers had principals who reported that teachers in their schools have a significant level of responsibility for decisions about policies for teacher and student diversity.

5.2.2. Teachers' opportunities to assume leadership roles

Two concepts are important when considering teachers' opportunities for leadership. Distributed leadership refers to the delegation of authority by school leader(s), where final decision-making control remains centralised (Harris, 2004; Muijs & Harris, 2006). Actual teacher leadership, in contrast, involves a formal or informal recognition of leadership roles assumed by teachers among peers and school staff (Wenner & Campbell, 2016; Schott, van Roekel & Tummers, 2020). Whether teacher leadership can thrive, however, depends also on the extent to which it is supported by school management and whether a genuine policy of shared leadership exists at the school (Collie, 2023; Oppi, Eisenschmidt & Jögi, 2022).

TALIS 2024 asked teachers to what extent they are provided with opportunities to take an active part in school decisions. Figure 5.2 shows the proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers’ agreement that they can take an active part in school level decision-making and policy-making.

Figure 5.2 Views of opportunities for teacher leadership
Percentage of teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements about teacher leadership

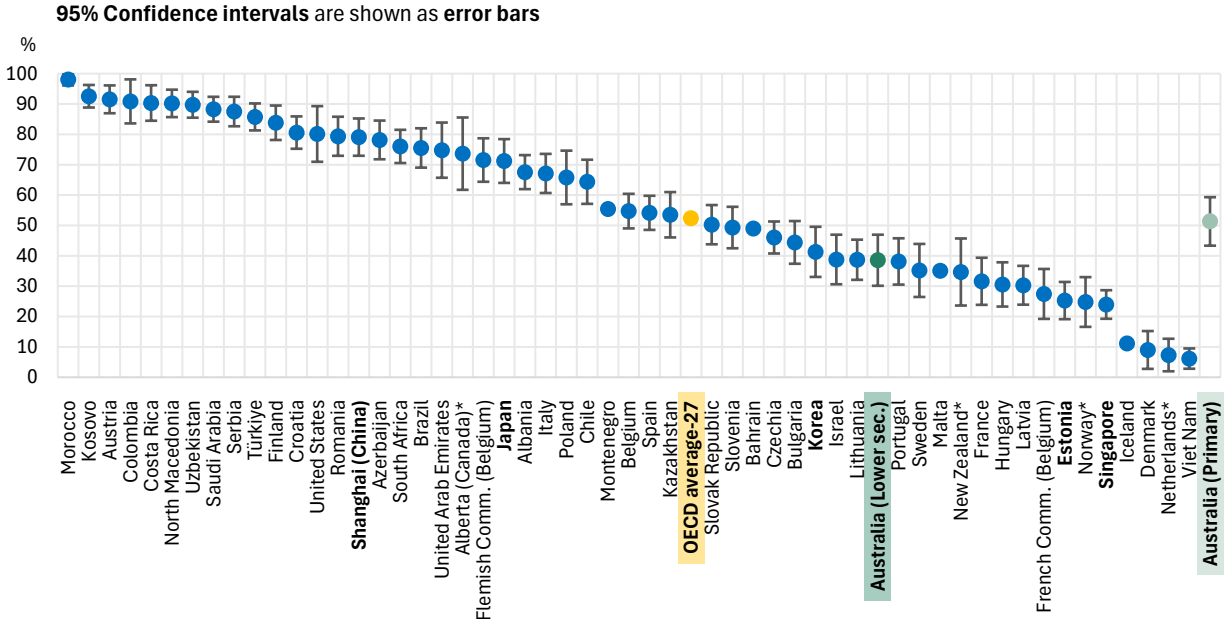


Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TGND.TQ64agijk.

Both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers generally agreed that they have opportunities for leadership at their schools. About four out of five lower secondary (81%) and primary (83%) teachers agreed that they could take leadership roles in promoting a professional learning community, and similar proportions among lower secondary (80%) and primary teachers (82%) agreed that teachers initiate and lead collaborative activities. However, the proportion of lower secondary teachers (65%) who agreed that their school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school-level decision-making was below that for Australian primary teachers (76%). Smaller proportions of teachers agreed with this item compared to the other items.

One way to support teacher leadership is through formal mechanisms such as teachers being part of school management teams, which offer structured avenues for participation and provide more opportunities for teacher influence on school-level decision-making (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). TALIS 2024 asked teachers to indicate whether they were currently represented on the school management team; the results are presented in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 Representation of teachers on the school management team
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers working in schools where teachers are currently represented on the school management team (based on principal reports)



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

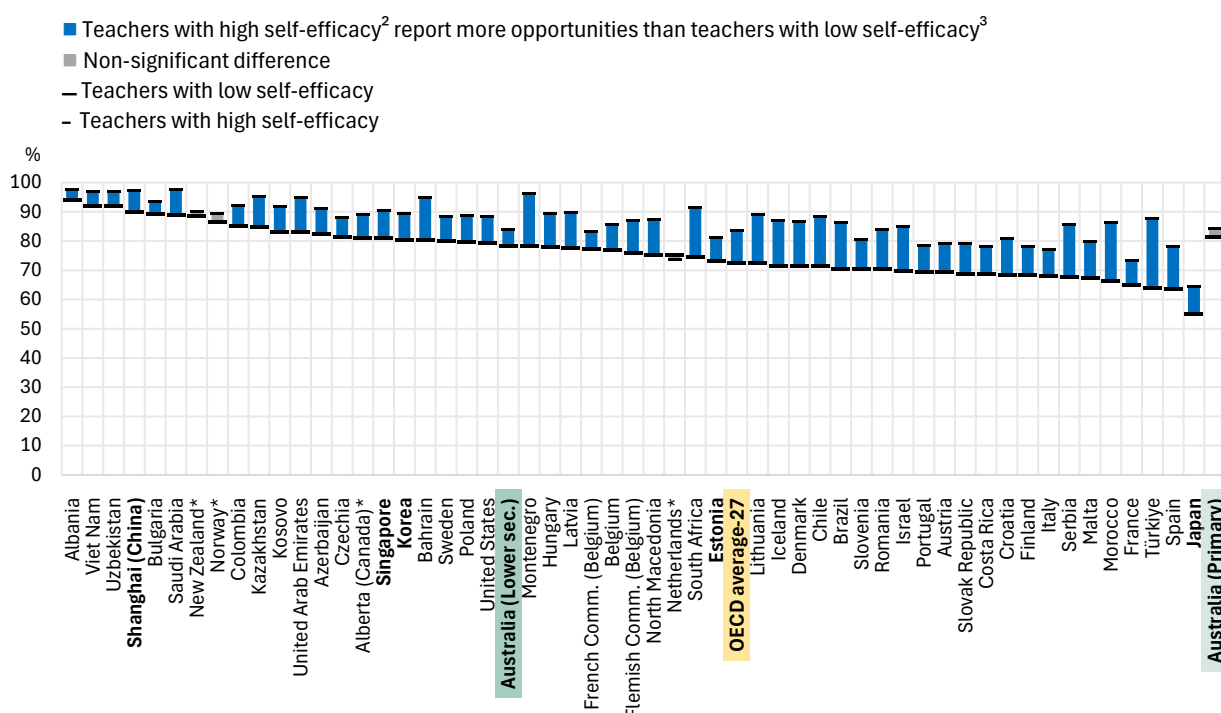
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.NO.PQ23e.

Less than two in five (39%) Australian lower secondary teachers reported being members of a school management team; this was significantly lower than both the OECD average (52%) and for Australian primary teachers (51%).

TALIS 2024 gathered data to examine the importance of teacher leadership for their instructional self-efficacy. Figure 5.4 shows the proportions of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers agreeing that their schools provide leadership opportunities for promoting professional learning communities, by levels of self-efficacy. High instructional self-efficacy was defined as being in the top quartile of the index, while low instructional self-efficacy reflected being in the lowest quartile. For most countries, teachers with higher levels of instructional self-efficacy were more likely to “agree” or “strongly agree” that staff are provided with leadership roles in promoting professional learning communities.

Figure 5.4 Teacher leadership in promoting professional learning communities, by self-efficacy
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that their school provides staff with opportunities to take leadership roles in promoting professional learning communities, by self-efficacy¹



¹ The scale of teacher self-efficacy overall (T4SELF) was constructed as an average of the three subscales: self-efficacy in student engagement (T4SEENG), self-efficacy in instruction (T4SEINS) and self-efficacy in classroom management (T4SECLS). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² High self-efficacy teachers refer to those in the top quartile of the scale of teacher self-efficacy (T4SELF). Quartiles are calculated within each country/economy.

³ Low self-efficacy teachers refer to those in the bottom quartile.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

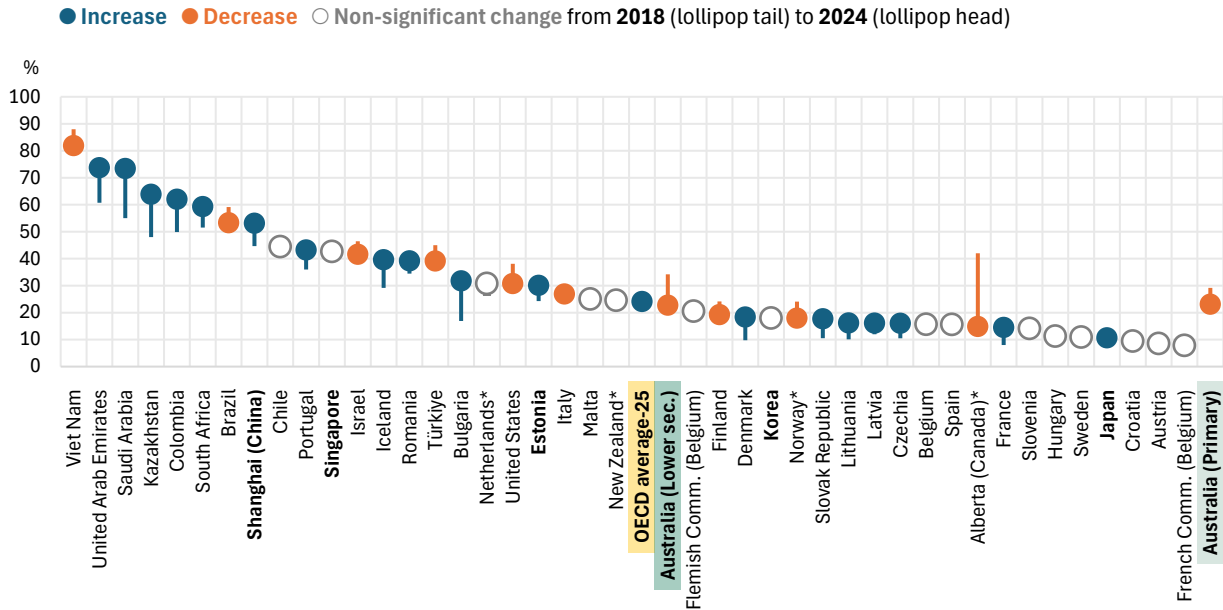
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQS27f.TQ64.

5.2.3. Influencing educational policy

Figure 5.5 shows the percentage increases or decrease of lower secondary teachers across countries participating in TALIS in 2018 and 2024 who agreed or strongly agreed that teachers were able to influence educational policy. It also includes the corresponding results for Australian primary teachers.

Figure 5.5 Change in teacher perceptions of their capacity to influence education policy, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that teachers can influence education policy in their country/region



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BIN.TR3.TQ79f.

The results show that, in most TALIS countries and economies, a small proportion of teachers viewed themselves as influential on educational policy. In Australia, less than one in four (23%) lower secondary teachers agreed that their profession can influence education policy, similar to both the OECD average (24%) and Australian primary teachers (23%). The Australian lower secondary and primary results declined significantly since 2018 (by 11 percentage points and 6 percentage points, respectively), whereas the OECD average increased significantly (by 1 percentage point).

5.2.4. Instructional autonomy

Teachers need autonomy to be able to manage the many varying circumstances that may present themselves in everyday teaching and to adapt their instruction to the needs of learners (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). However, it has also been noted that autonomy in teaching should be context-specific and appropriate to the level of teaching experience, with early career teachers requiring more guidance before benefiting from increasing autonomy in classrooms (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

TALIS 2024 asked teachers about the degree of autonomy they had for aspects of planning and teaching. Table 5.1 shows the proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers and comparison countries who reported having “substantial” or “full” autonomy over five such aspects.

Table 5.1 Teachers’ autonomy in planning and teaching
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they have “substantial” or “full” autonomy over the following aspects of planning and teaching¹

	Implementing the curriculum in a flexible way		Selecting teaching methods and strategies		Choosing assessment activities		Selecting learning objectives		Designing and preparing lessons	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	77	(1.3)	91	(0.7)	57	(1.3)	64	(1.2)	90	(0.8)
Estonia	84	(0.9)	96	(0.5)	75	(1.0)	77	(1.1)	96	(0.5)
Japan	71	(1.2)	86	(0.8)	81	(0.9)	85	(0.8)	88	(0.7)
Korea	61	(1.1)	78	(1.1)	58	(1.2)	54	(1.3)	78	(1.1)
Shanghai (China)	83	(0.8)	90	(0.7)	83	(0.7)	78	(0.8)	89	(0.6)
Singapore	75	(1.0)	92	(0.6)	66	(1.0)	61	(1.1)	92	(0.6)
OECD average-27	75	(0.2)	92	(0.1)	78	(0.2)	71	(0.2)	93	(0.1)
Australia (Primary)	76	(1.5)	87	(1.1)	68	(1.5)	68	(1.5)	84	(1.3)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	-1	(2.0)	-4	(1.3)	11	(2.0)	4	(1.9)	-6	(1.5)

¹ These data refer to tasks they perform for a class randomly selected from their current weekly timetable during the week preceding the survey.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ57.

Approximately nine in ten Australian lower secondary teachers reported having full or substantial autonomy in selecting teaching methods/strategies (91%) and in designing/preparing lessons (90%), which were just below the OECD average (92% and 93%, respectively) but significantly higher than the results for Australian primary teachers (87% and 84%, respectively). Over three in four (77%) Australian lower secondary teachers reported having full or substantial autonomy in implementing the curriculum in a flexible way, which was similar to the OECD average and most comparison countries. Furthermore, almost two-thirds (64%) of Australian lower secondary teachers reported having full or substantial autonomy in selecting learning objectives, which was below the OECD average (71%) and significantly lower than for Australian primary teachers (68%). Over half of Australian lower secondary teachers reported having full or substantial autonomy for choosing assessment activities (57%), which was below the OECD average (78%), all comparison countries except Korea (58%), and significantly below that for Australian primary teachers (68%).

TALIS 2024 asked teachers about their self-efficacy in areas of classroom management and instruction (Table 5.2); this is related to instructional autonomy as teachers tend to benefit from increased levels of autonomy if they have the capacity of managing instruction efficiently.

Table 5.2 Teacher self-efficacy in areas of classroom management and instruction
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they can do the following “quite a bit” or “a lot”

	Get students to follow classroom rules		Vary instructional strategies in my classroom		Reduce achievement gaps among students	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	89	(0.7)	88	(0.8)	61	(1.1)
Estonia	93	(0.5)	79	(0.9)	54	(1.0)
Japan	58	(0.9)	51	(0.9)	18	(0.8)
Korea	82	(0.8)	78	(0.9)	52	(1.1)
Shanghai (China)	93	(0.4)	91	(0.6)	88	(0.6)
Singapore	88	(0.6)	81	(0.8)	66	(1.0)
OECD average-27	87	(0.1)	84	(0.2)	59	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	92	(0.7)	91	(0.6)	63	(1.3)
Difference Australia (Primary – Lower sec.)	3	(1.0)	3	(1.0)	2	(1.7)

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TEXP.TQ27.

Approximately nine in ten Australian lower secondary teachers reported high levels of self-efficacy in getting students to follow rules (89%) and in varying instructional strategies (88%). These were similar to the OECD average (87% and 84%, respectively) and to most comparison countries, but significantly lower than for Australian primary teachers (92% and 91%, respectively). Japan and Korea had lower proportions of lower secondary teachers expressing confidence in each of these tasks in comparison to Australian teachers. Finally, over three in five Australian lower secondary teachers felt confident about reducing achievement gaps among students (61%), which was similar to the OECD average (59%) and for Australian primary teachers (63%).

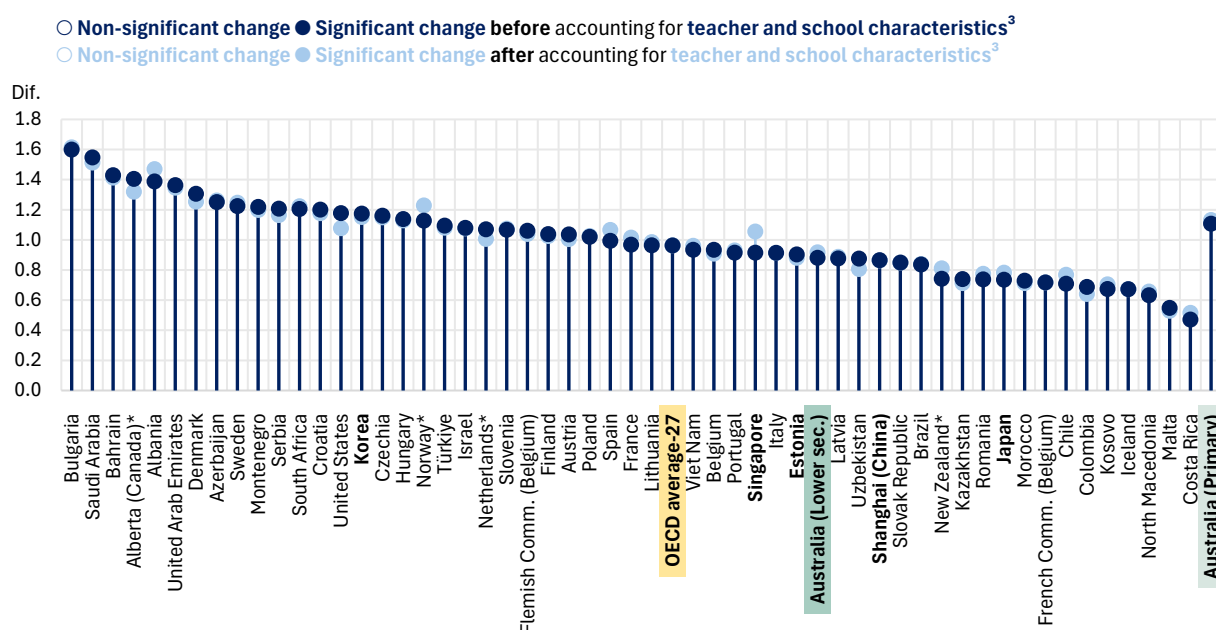
5.3 Teachers' decision-making authority and professional outcomes

It has been suggested that teacher involvement in decision-making and autonomy-supportive leadership at school has positive effects on teacher retention and motivation (Collie, 2023). Allowing teachers certain levels of autonomy, in particular with more experienced teachers, has the potential to motivate teachers to stay in the profession, lead to higher levels of teacher satisfaction and self-efficacy, and help schools to reduce administrative work and promote collaboration (Patil, 2023). This section builds on that work by looking at TALIS 2024 data on the relationship between decision-making authority and professional outcomes.

5.3.1. Effects of participation in school leadership

To study the potential effects of teachers' participation in school leadership on their job satisfaction, a regression model was fitted to the TALIS 2024 data, with teacher and school characteristics as control variables (Figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6 Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and participation in school decisions
Change in the scale of teacher job satisfaction¹ associated with lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that their school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions^{2,3}



¹ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² Binary variable: the reference category refers to “disagree” or “strongly disagree”.

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable. Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Notes: Statistically significant coefficients are highlighted with filled circles. Filled circles above 0 indicate a positive association between teacher job satisfaction and participation in school decision. High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLS.TQS78.TQ64agjjk.

Figure 5.6 shows the strength of the (unstandardised) regression coefficients (indicating the score point difference in job satisfaction between teachers who agreed or disagreed that they had opportunities for participation) for all countries/economies participating in the survey of lower secondary teachers, including the results for Australian primary teachers.

For Australian teachers and on average across OECD countries, teacher job satisfaction was positively associated with agreement that their school provides opportunities to participate in school decisions. Significant coefficients were recorded both before and after accounting for teacher and school characteristics. Similarly, on average across OECD countries, there was a significant association for teachers' views on opportunities for school participation, which was approximately the same before and after accounting for teacher and school characteristics. The coefficients were statistically significant in all countries/economies even after including the control variables.

In Australia, both for lower secondary and primary teachers, significant coefficients were recorded both before and after accounting for teacher and school characteristics. These results were in line with earlier findings that teaching professionals tend to express more satisfaction when they feel empowerment through participation at their schools (Cann, Riedel-Prabhakar & Powell, 2020; Collie, 2023; Dreer, 2022).

5.3.2. Effects of instructional autonomy

To study the potential effects of having instructional autonomy on whether teachers adapt their teaching to student needs, regression models were fitted to the TALIS 2024 data (see Table 5.3). Each model gave the effects of teachers having instructional autonomy on whether teachers “frequently” or “always” use a specific method of adapting teaching to students' needs. The methods considered were: “considering students' prior knowledge and needs when planning a lesson”, “pointing students to different learning materials depending on their needs”, “changing their way of explaining when students have difficulties understanding”, “adapting teaching methods to students' needs”, and “asking questions at various difficulty levels to check students' understanding of the subject matter”.

In Australia, lower secondary teachers with a higher level of instructional autonomy were significantly more likely to report using each recorded method of adapting their teaching to student needs, other than asking questions at different difficulty levels. On average across OECD countries and in all PISA 2022 comparison countries, there were significant associations between instructional autonomy and all reported adaptations to student needs after controlling for teacher and school characteristics. However, among Australian primary teachers, no significant associations were found between the degree of autonomy for teaching and the adaptations of teaching to learner needs.

Table 5.3 Relationship between teachers adapting their teaching to students’ needs and instructional autonomy
 After accounting for teacher and target class characteristics¹, change in the likelihood that lower secondary and Australian primary teachers report that they do the following activities “frequently” or “always”, associated with one scale-point difference in instructional autonomy^{2,3}

	Considering students’ prior knowledge and needs when planning a lesson		Pointing students to different materials for learning depending on their needs		Changing their way of explaining when a student has difficulties understanding a topic or task		Adapting teaching methods to students’ needs		Asking questions at various difficulty levels to check students’ understanding of the subject matter	
	Odds ratio ⁴	S.E.	Odds ratio ⁴	S.E.	Odds ratio ⁴	S.E.	Odds ratio ⁴	S.E.	Odds ratio ⁴	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	1.15	(0.07)	1.10	(0.04)	1.34	(0.12)	1.18	(0.06)	1.11	(0.07)
Estonia	1.25	(0.07)	1.09	(0.04)	1.15	(0.04)	1.18	(0.04)	1.12	(0.04)
Japan	1.30	(0.05)	1.07	(0.02)	1.31	(0.04)	1.25	(0.04)	1.12	(0.03)
Korea	1.27	(0.04)	1.09	(0.03)	1.29	(0.04)	1.16	(0.04)	1.27	(0.04)
Shanghai (China)	2.12	(0.19)	1.33	(0.06)	1.76	(0.15)	1.70	(0.16)	1.52	(0.10)
Singapore	1.19	(0.07)	1.18	(0.04)	1.36	(0.14)	1.26	(0.08)	1.19	(0.06)
OECD average-27	1.21	(0.02)	1.10	(0.01)	1.26	(0.02)	1.21	(0.01)	1.17	(0.01)
Australia (Primary)	1.14	(0.13)	1.02	(0.04)	1.07	(0.10)	1.19	(0.12)	0.98	(0.05)

¹ Teacher characteristics include gender, age and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). Target class characteristics include class size, class intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, class intake of low achieving students, and class intake of students with special education needs. Age and class size are each standardised at the international level.

² Binary variable: the reference category refers to “never or almost never” and “occasionally”.

³ The scale of instructional autonomy (T4AUTCH) was constructed using teacher responses (“no autonomy”, “limited autonomy”, “substantial autonomy”, or “full autonomy”) about how much autonomy they had over the following aspects (TT4G57): “implementing the curriculum in a flexible way”, “selecting teaching methods and strategies”, “choosing assessment activities”, and “designing and preparing lessons”. Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

⁴ Results based on binary logistic regression. An odds ratio indicates the degree to which an explanatory variable is associated with a categorical outcome variable. An odds ratio below one denotes a negative association; an odds ratio above one indicates a positive association; and an odds ratio of one means that there is no association. Results refer to a class randomly selected from teachers’ current weekly timetable during the week preceding the survey.

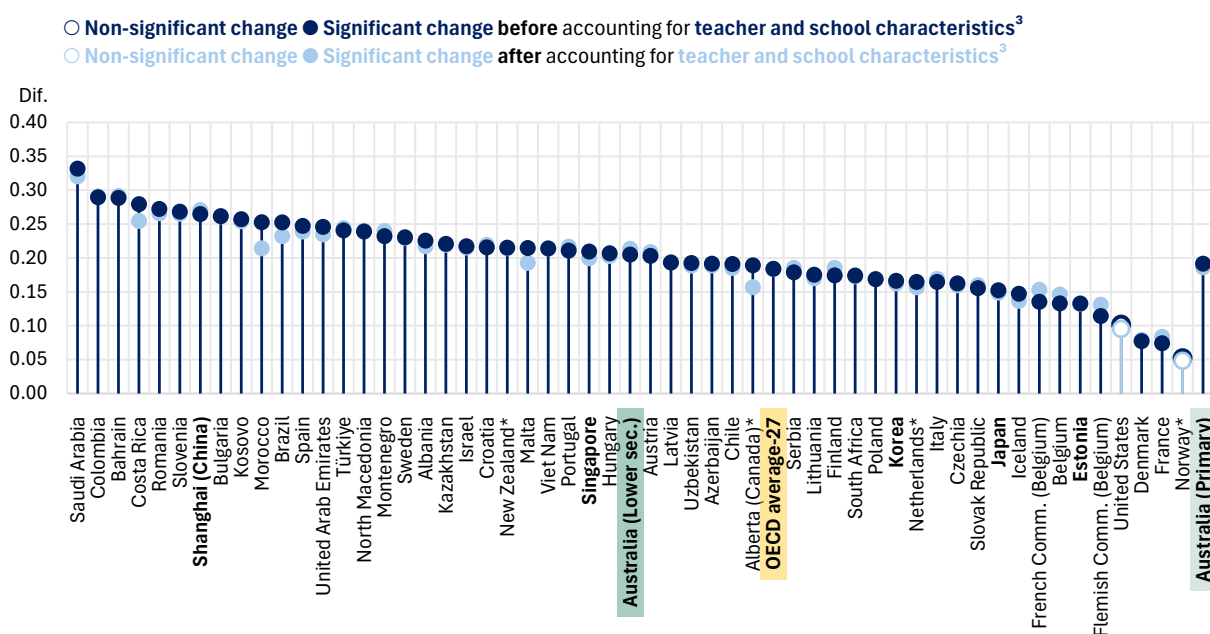
Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Tables LOG.TQ55a.TQS57, LOG.TQ55b.TQS57, LOG.TQ55c.TQS57, LOG.TQ55d.TQS57, and LOG.TQ55e.TQS57.

A regression model was also used to study the effects of instructional autonomy on teacher job satisfaction. Figure 5.7 shows the (unstandardised) regression coefficients, indicating the predicted change in scale of teacher satisfaction with a one score point on the scale of instructional autonomy, before and after accounting for teacher and school characteristics.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers, a change of one score point in instructional autonomy was associated with a change of 0.21 score points on the job satisfaction scale, which was above the OECD average (0.18) (after adjusting for teacher and school characteristics). This indicates that teachers given more instruction tend to be more satisfied in their job. Indeed, statistically significant effects were recorded across all but two of the participating countries/economies in TALIS 2024 (United States and Norway), after accounting for teacher and school characteristics. Among Australian primary teachers, a similar effect size was recorded (0.19). These results suggest that providing teachers with more instructional autonomy has the potential to promote higher levels of job satisfaction in the teaching profession.

Figure 5.7 Relationship between teacher job satisfaction and instructional autonomy
Change in the scale of teacher job satisfaction¹ associated with an increase in the scale of teacher autonomy^{2,3}, for lower secondary and Australian primary teachers (based on teacher and principal reports)



¹ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2.0 and the value of 10 corresponding to the mid-point of the scale.

² The scale of instructional autonomy (T4AUTCH) was constructed using teacher responses (“no autonomy”, “limited autonomy”, “substantial autonomy”, or “full autonomy”) about how much autonomy they had over the following aspects (TT4G57): “implementing the curriculum in a flexible way”, “selecting teaching methods and strategies”, “choosing assessment activities”, and “designing and preparing lessons”. Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale. Refers to a class randomly selected from teachers’ current weekly timetable during the week preceding the survey.

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable. Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Notes: Statistically significant coefficients are highlighted with filled circles. Filled circles above 0 indicate a positive association between teacher job satisfaction and teacher autonomy, while those below 0 reflect a negative relationship. High-performing PISA 2022 countries in bold.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLS.TQS78.TQS57.



6 Professional relationships in school communities

Highlights

- Both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers tended to work collaboratively. Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to exchange teaching materials and take part in collaborative professional learning, but were less likely to teach jointly in the same class than the OECD average.
- Australian lower secondary teachers were less likely to teach jointly or engage in joint activities with other classes than Australian primary teachers.
- The proportions of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported teaching jointly in a team in the same class, observing other teachers' classes and providing feedback to other teachers have declined since the previous TALIS cycle in 2018. Australian primary teachers were also less likely to report spending time teaching jointly in 2024 than in 2018 but were more likely to report taking part in collaborative professional learning.
- Australian teachers with high self-efficacy were significantly more likely to engage in discussions about the learning development of specific students than teachers with lower self-efficacy. However, lower secondary teachers were less likely to report having these discussions than primary teachers.
- Around nine in ten Australian teachers at both education levels reported that teachers can rely on each other at their school, which for lower secondary teachers was above the OECD average.
- Australian teachers mostly expressed positive views towards their principals, but the proportion of lower secondary teachers who expressed having those views was lower than that of primary teachers.
- Australian lower secondary teachers had higher rates of agreement for items in which their principal ensured teachers feel responsible for student learning outcomes and in which their principal had good professional relationships with parents. Most teachers also felt that principals encouraged all staff to have a say in important decisions, provided useful feedback, or monitored performance effectively.
- Most Australian teachers had positive perceptions of the quality of the relationships between students and teachers. Teachers who had positive perceptions tended to have higher levels of job satisfaction.
- Just under one-quarter of Australian lower secondary teachers and just over one-third of Australian primary teachers reported collaborating with parents and guardians once a month. Female primary teachers were more likely to report collaboration than their male colleagues.
- Australian teachers at both education levels reported spending on average less than two hours per week communicating with parents and guardians. For lower secondary teachers, this was similar to the OECD average.
- More than two-thirds of Australian teachers felt that they were valued by parents in their school. Teachers at both education levels felt much more valued if they worked at schools with a lower proportion of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes.

6.1 Introduction

This chapter examines teachers’ professional relationships with colleagues, principals, students, and parents or guardians. It considers how these relationships differ across teacher groups and explores their associations with professional outcomes such as the fulfilment of lesson aims, wellbeing, and job satisfaction.

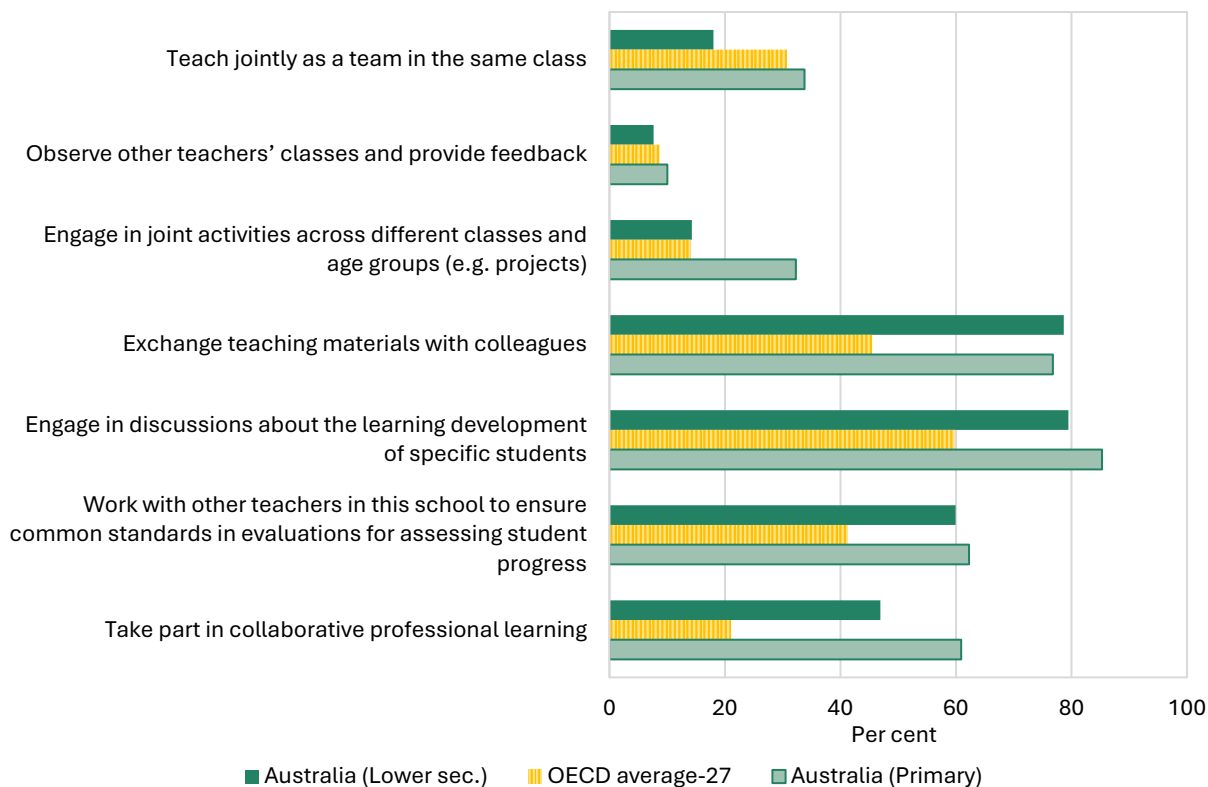
6.2 Professional relationships with other teachers

Professional relationships between teachers are a central feature of school life. Opportunities for collaboration can provide teachers with valuable support, help them share strategies, and create a stronger sense of belonging within the profession. When teachers work together, they may be better able to respond to the diverse needs of their students and to reflect on their own practice. TALIS 2024 asked two sets of questions about teachers’ relationships with one another; the first was related to how teachers work together while the second focussed on their collegiality (i.e. teachers’ reliance on each other).

6.2.1. Working together

TALIS 2024 asked teachers to report the frequency in which they engaged in different forms of collaboration within their school, ranging from joint teaching and classroom observation to sharing teaching materials and taking part in professional learning (“never”, “once a year or less”, “2–4 times a year”, “5–10 times a year”, “1–3 times a month”, or “once a week or more”). The proportions of Australian teachers (at both lower secondary and primary levels) who reported each of these collaborative activities at least once a month are shown in Figure 6.1. For comparison purposes, the OECD average at the lower secondary level is also included.

Figure 6.1 Teacher collaborative practices
Percentage of teachers reporting that they do the following activities at least once a month



Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TGND.TQ26.

In Australia, approximately four in five lower secondary teachers reported having discussed the learning development of specific students with colleagues (79%). They also reported exchanging teaching materials with colleagues (79%) at least once a month; the latter is the highest proportion amongst all of the TALIS 2024 countries. Just under half of Australian lower secondary teachers (47%) reported that they participated in collaborative professional learning on a monthly basis. In contrast, fewer teachers reported more intensive collaboration; 18 per cent reported that they taught jointly as a team in the same class, eight per cent observed other teachers' classes and provided feedback, and 14 per cent engaged in joint activities across different classes or age groups.

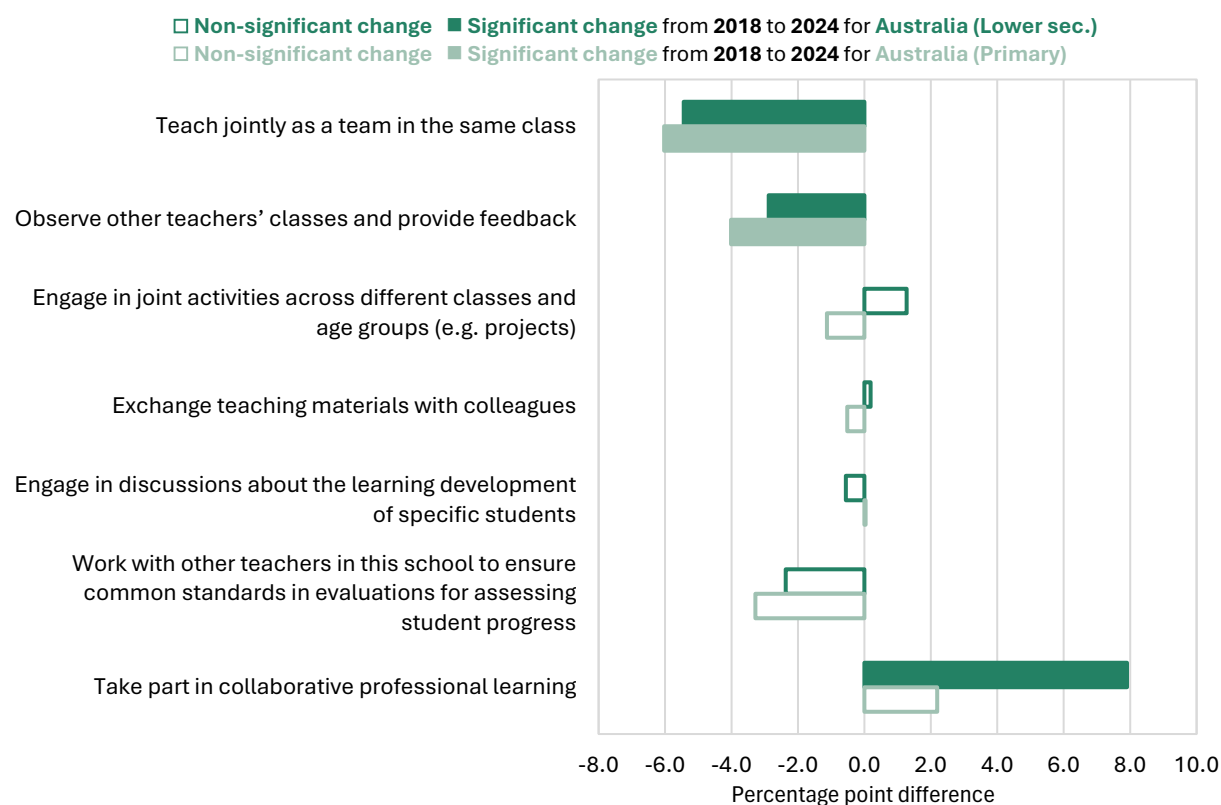
The proportions of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported exchanging teaching materials with colleagues and taking part in collaborative professional learning were above the OECD averages (79% vs 45% and 47% vs 21%, respectively); however, the proportion who reported that they teach jointly in the same class is below the OECD average (18% vs 31%).

Most Australian primary teachers reported discussing the learning development of specific students (85%), and over three-quarters reported exchanging teaching materials (77%). Six in ten primary teachers indicated that they took part in collaborative professional learning (61%).

At the primary level, Australian teachers reported higher rates of collaboration across nearly all activities. The largest differences were for engaging in joint activities across classes and age groups (18 percentage points higher) and teaching jointly in the same class (16 percentage points higher).

Figure 6.2 shows the differences in the proportions of teachers in Australia who reported monthly collaboration activities between TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024. At the lower secondary level, there were significant decreases in the proportions of teachers who reported teaching jointly as a team in the same class (five percentage points lower) and observing other teachers’ classes and providing feedback to other teachers (three percentage points lower). At the primary level, there was also a significant decrease in reports of teaching jointly as a team in the same class (six percentage points lower) and observing other teachers’ classes and providing feedback to other teachers (four percentage points lower). In contrast, there was a significant increase among lower secondary teachers who reported taking part in collaborative professional learning compared to 2018. For other forms of collaboration there were no significant changes over time.

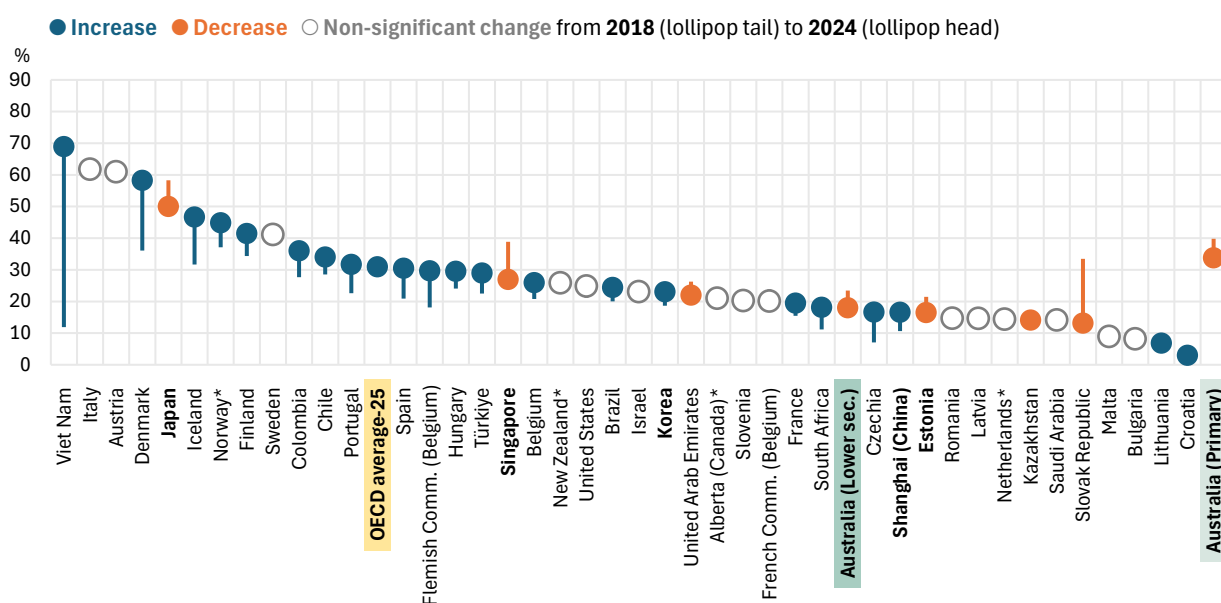
Figure 6.2 Change in teacher collaboration, from 2018 to 2024
Difference in percentage of teachers reporting that they do the following activities at least once a month



Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TR2.TQ26.

Figure 6.3 explores changes in the proportion of lower secondary teachers who reported teaching jointly with other teachers, between 2018 and 2024 for all countries who participated in TALIS in both years and for Australian primary teachers. Team teaching was less frequently reported for lower secondary teachers in Australia (18%) than the OECD average (31%), for Japan (50%), Singapore (27%), and Korea (23%) (among the high-performing PISA 2022 comparison countries), and for Australian primary teachers (34%). Further, the proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers that reported teaching jointly decreased since the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018 (23% vs 18%).

Figure 6.3 Change in team teaching, from 2018 to 2024
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they teach jointly as a team in the same class at least once a month



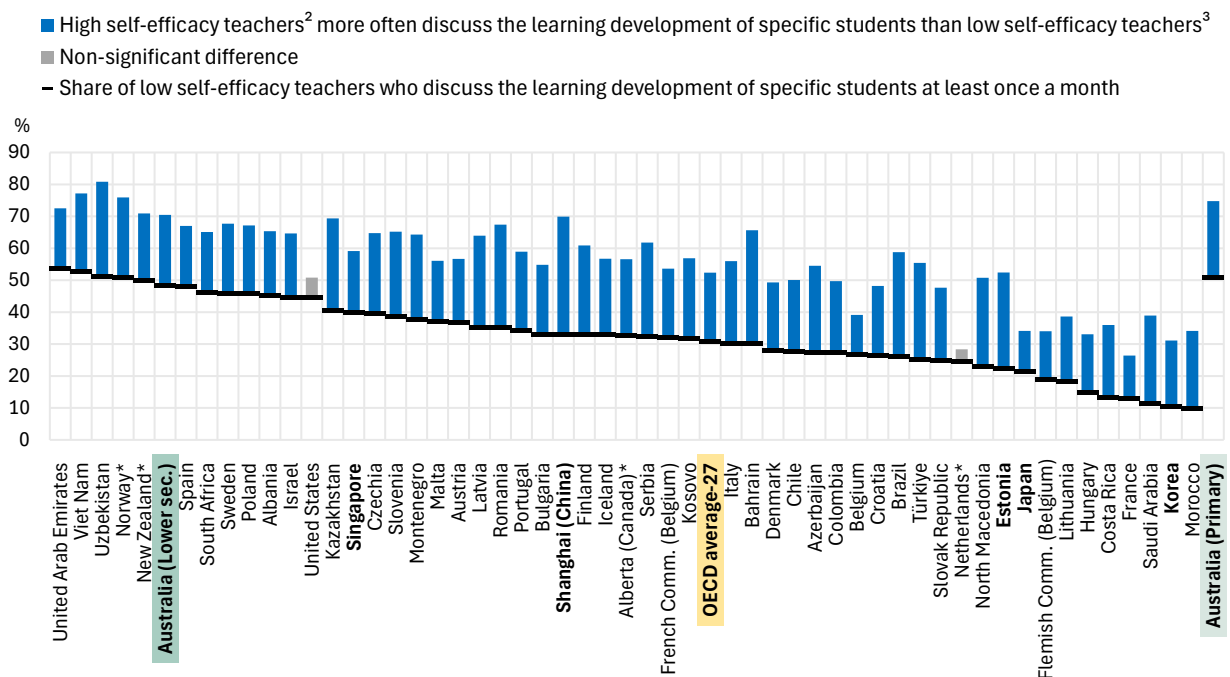
* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR2.TQ26.

Figure 6.4 shows the proportions of teachers who reported that they engaged in discussions about the learning development of specific students at least once a month, comparing teachers with high self-efficacy (those in the top quartile of the TALIS scale on teacher self-efficacy) with those with low self-efficacy (those in the bottom quartile of the TALIS scale on teacher self-efficacy). In Australia, as in most TALIS countries, lower secondary teachers with high self-efficacy were significantly more likely to report engaging in these discussions than their peers with low self-efficacy, and for Australia this difference was similar to the OECD average. The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers reporting these discussions was also greater than the proportion from each of the comparison countries, but below that for Australian primary teachers.

Figure 6.4 Teachers who engage in discussions about specific students’ learning development, by self-efficacy
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who engage in discussions about specific students’ learning development at least once a month, by self-efficacy¹



¹ The scale of teacher self-efficacy overall (T4SELF) was constructed as an average of the three subscales: self-efficacy in student engagement (T4SEENG), self-efficacy in instruction (T4SEINS) and self-efficacy in classroom management (T4SECLS). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² High self-efficacy teachers refer to those in the top quartile of the scale of teacher self-efficacy (T4SELF). Quartiles are calculated within each country/economy.

³ Low self-efficacy teachers refer to those in the bottom quartile.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQ26.

6.2.2. Collegiality

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire looked at collegiality by asking respondents whether the teachers at their school felt that they could rely on other teachers in their school. The proportions of teachers who responded “agree” or “strongly agree” in the 2018 and 2024 TALIS surveys are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Change in teacher collegiality, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that teachers can rely on each other at their school

	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	93	(0.5)	89	(0.8)	-4	(1.0)
Estonia	92	(0.6)	90	(0.7)	-3	(0.9)
Japan	83	(1.0)	77	(1.1)	-6	(1.5)
Korea	89	(0.9)	89	(0.8)	0	(1.2)
Shanghai (China)	96	(0.4)	96	(0.3)	0	(0.5)
Singapore	92	(0.4)	94	(0.6)	1	(0.8)
OECD average-25	87	(0.2)	87	(0.2)	0	(0.3)
Australia (Primary)	93	(0.5)	92	(0.6)	-1	(0.8)

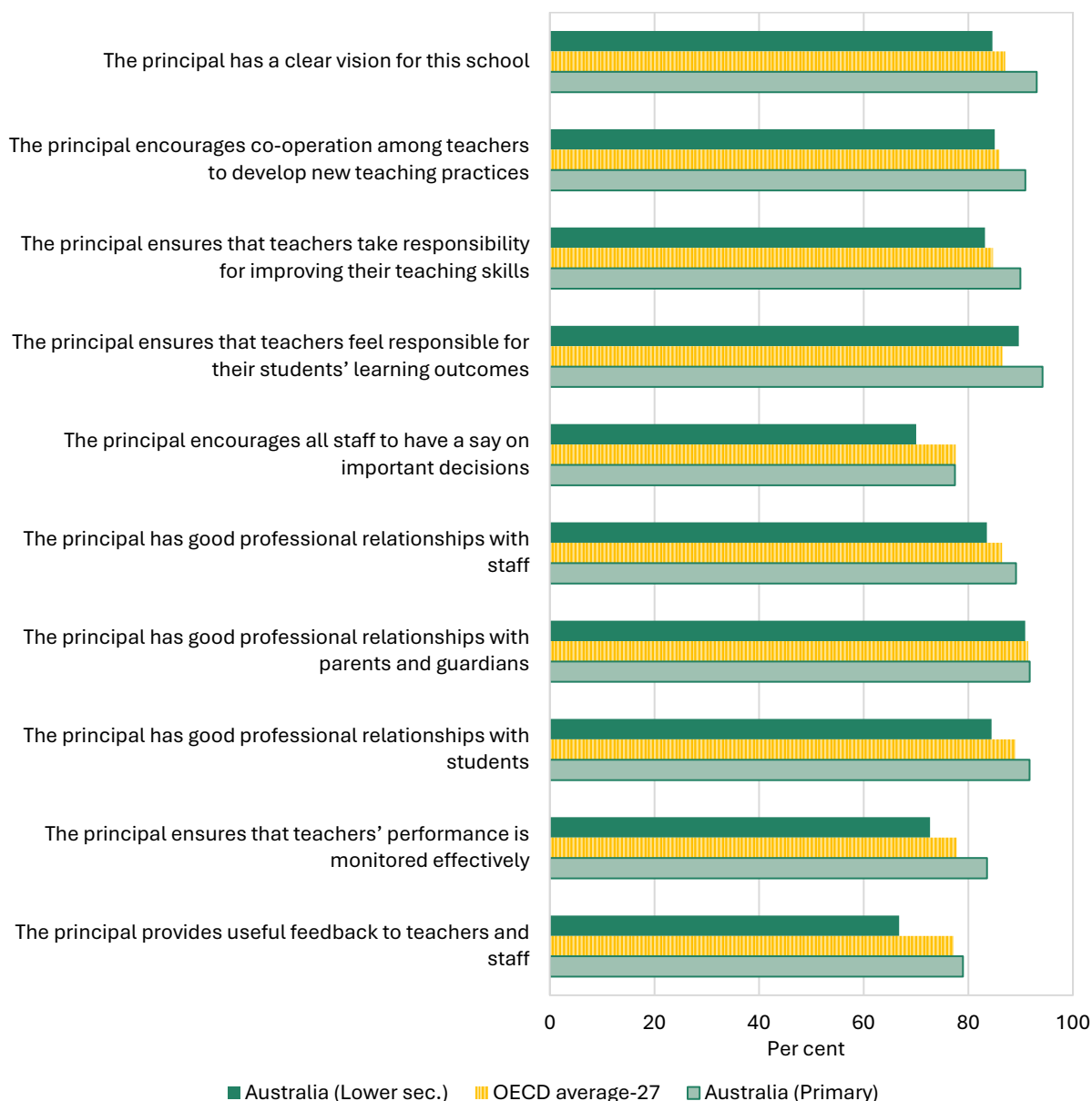
*Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.*

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ64h.

Around nine in ten teachers at both education levels (89% at lower secondary, 92% at primary) agreed with the statement that teachers could rely on each other at their school. At the lower secondary level, the proportion of teachers expressing this view in Australia was higher than the OECD average (87%), as well as Japan (77%), but lower than Shanghai (China) (96%) and Singapore (94%)

The TALIS 2024 teacher questionnaire asked teachers about their views on school leadership, including statements reflecting on whether their principal provided a clear vision, supported professional collaboration, monitored teaching, and maintained good relationships with members of the school community. The proportions of Australian teachers (at both lower secondary and primary levels) who agreed or strongly agreed with each item are provided in Figure 6.5. Comparisons are made against the average of OECD countries for lower secondary level.

Figure 6.5 Teachers’ views of their principals
Percentage of teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements about the principal at their school



Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.NO.TQ66.

The majority of Australian teachers expressed positive views about their principals. Among lower secondary teachers, nine in ten agreed that their principal ensured teachers feel responsible for student learning outcomes (90%) and that their principal had good professional relationships with parents (91%). Similarly high proportions were reported for maintaining good relationships with staff (84%) and students (84%). However, somewhat fewer lower secondary teachers felt that

principals monitored performance effectively (73%), encouraged all staff to have a say in important decisions (70%), or provided useful feedback (67%).

The proportions of Australian lower secondary teachers who agreed with each statement about their principal were mostly lower than those for primary teachers. For example, 94 per cent of primary teachers agreed that their principal ensured teachers feel responsible for student learning outcomes, and approximately nine in ten agreed their principal had a clear vision for the school (93%) and maintained good professional relationships with parents (92%), students (92%), and staff (89%). Similarly, other than the item “the principal ensures that teachers feel responsible for their students’ learning outcomes”, the proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers was below the OECD average, although in some cases the difference is small.

6.3 Teacher–student relations

Teachers were asked to comment about different aspects of teacher–student relations in their school. Specifically, teachers were asked whether they agreed or strongly agreed that teachers and students usually got along well, that most teachers believed student wellbeing is important, that teachers were interested in what students have to say, and that schools provided extra assistance if a student needed it.

The proportions of teachers who agreed or strongly agreed with each item are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Teacher–student relations

Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements about their school

	Teachers and students usually get on well with each other		Most teachers believe that the students’ wellbeing is important		Most teachers are interested in what students have to say		If a student needs extra assistance, the school provides it	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	97	(0.5)	98	(0.3)	95	(0.6)	94	(0.7)
Estonia	97	(0.5)	98	(0.3)	93	(0.7)	98	(0.4)
Japan	95	(0.5)	93	(0.6)	94	(0.7)	94	(0.7)
Korea	98	(0.3)	96	(0.5)	97	(0.4)	97	(0.4)
Shanghai (China)	99	(0.3)	99	(0.2)	97	(0.3)	97	(0.3)
Singapore	98	(0.3)	99	(0.3)	96	(0.7)	98	(0.4)
OECD average-27	96	(0.1)	97	(0.1)	93	(0.1)	93	(0.2)
Australia (Primary)	98	(0.4)	99	(0.2)	98	(0.3)	92	(0.8)

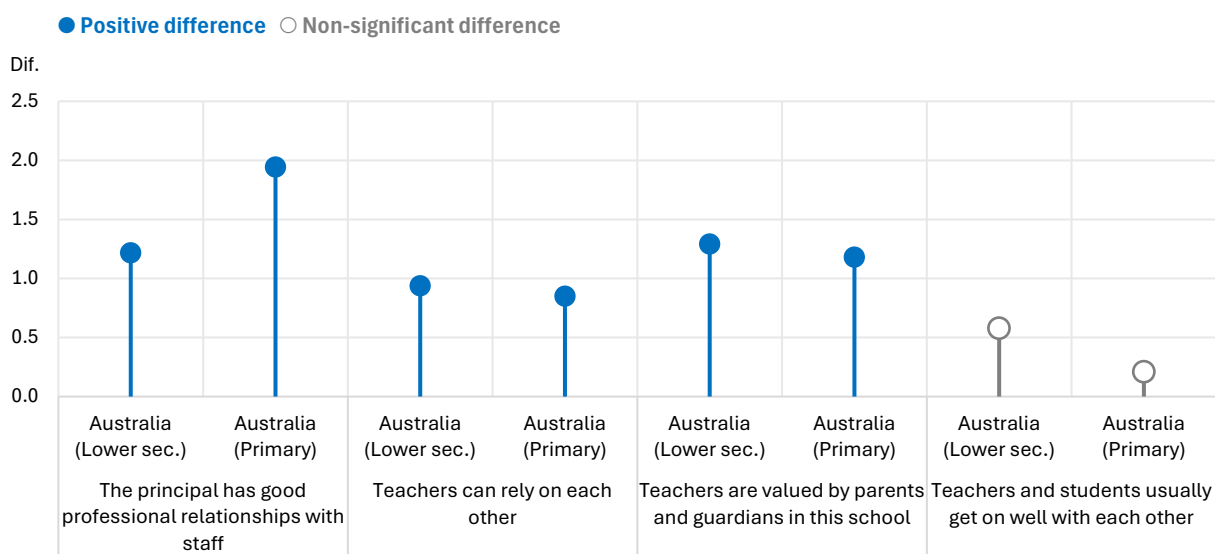
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ65.

In Australia, nearly all lower secondary teachers agreed with each item (94–98 per cent). These figures were broadly consistent with the OECD average and those in high-performing PISA 2022 comparison countries. Similar results were observed for primary teachers in Australia for three items; the only statistically significant differences were for “most teachers were interested in what students had to say” (95% of lower secondary teachers compared to 98% of primary teachers), and “if a student needs extra assistance, the school provides it” (94% of lower secondary teachers compared with 92% of primary teachers).

6.3.1. Teachers' relations with students and their relationships with school stakeholders

The relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their views of relationships with school stakeholders are presented in Figure 6.6. The figure shows the change in the level of job satisfaction⁷, based on agreement with sets of items related to relationships with school stakeholders. Australian teachers (both at lower secondary and primary level) each had greater levels of job satisfaction when they agreed that the principal had good professional relationships with staff, that teachers could rely on each other, and that teachers were valued by parents and guardians in the school (i.e. the differences in job satisfaction levels are statistically significant).

Figure 6.6 Relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and their views of relationships with school stakeholders
Change in the scale of job satisfaction¹ associated with teachers reporting that they "agree" or "strongly agree" with the following statements about their school^{2,3}



¹ The scale of job satisfaction overall (T4JOBSAT) was constructed as an average of the two subscales: job satisfaction with profession (T4JSPROT) and job satisfaction with work environment (T4JSENV). Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and a mean of 10.

² Binary variables: the reference category is responses of "disagree" or "strongly disagree".

³ Results based on linear regression analysis, showing the change in the outcome variable associated with a one-unit increase in the explanatory variable.

Notes: Filled circles above 0 indicate a positive association between teacher job satisfaction and their views of relationships with school stakeholders.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table OLS.TQS78.REL.

⁷ Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2.0 and the value of 10 corresponding to the mid-point of the scale. For more information on the scales, see Chapter 11 of the TALIS 2024 Technical Report.

6.4 Professional relationships with parents and guardians

Teachers were asked to indicate the frequency in which they collaborated with parents and guardians to enrich students' learning activities in general (“never”, “once a year or less”, “2–4 times a year”, “5–10 times a year”, “1–3 times a month”, or “once a week or more”). The proportion of teachers who indicated that they collaborated with parents and guardians at least once per month are presented in Table 6.3 by teacher characteristics (gender, age, and years of teaching experience).

Just under one-quarter (24%) of lower secondary teachers and just over one-third (34%) of primary teachers in Australia reported collaborating with parents and guardians at least once a month. At both education levels, younger teachers reported that they would collaborate more with parents and guardians than older teachers. Less experienced teachers were more likely to collaborate than more experienced teachers at both education levels. The results for lower secondary teachers were similar to the OECD averages. Whilst there was not a significant difference in the proportions of male and female lower secondary teachers reporting collaborating with parents and guardians, in primary schools' female teachers were more likely to report collaboration than male teachers (35% and 29%, respectively). A similar pattern of results disaggregated by teacher characteristics is observed in high-performing PISA 2022 comparison countries, but the proportion who regularly collaborated varied (for example, Australia had a higher proportion of lower secondary teachers reporting collaboration with parents and guardians than Japan, Singapore and Korea, and a lower proportion than Shanghai (China)).

Table 6.3 Teachers' collaboration with parents and guardians, by teacher characteristics
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they collaborate with parents and guardians to enrich students' learning activities in general at least once a month

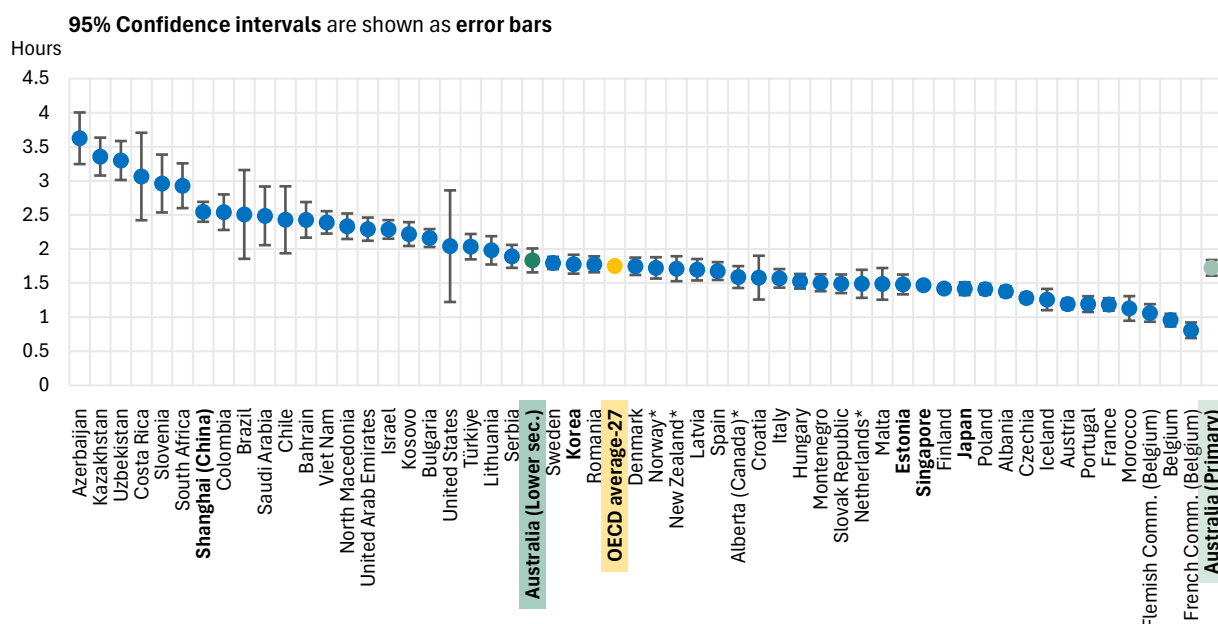
	Total		By gender						By age								By years of teaching experience							
			Female		Male		Male - Female		< Age 30 (a)		Age 30-49		≥ Age 50 (b)		Difference (b) - (a)		≤ 5 years (a)		6-10 years		> 10 years (b)		Difference (b) - (a)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	24	(1.1)	26	(1.2)	22	(1.8)	-3	(1.9)	31	(2.3)	25	(1.3)	20	(1.8)	-11	(2.8)	30	(2.1)	28	(2.3)	22	(1.4)	-8	(2.6)
Estonia	25	(0.9)	27	(1.0)	12	(1.4)	-15	(1.7)	24	(2.8)	24	(1.3)	26	(1.3)	2	(2.9)	20	(1.7)	20	(1.9)	27	(1.2)	6	(2.1)
Japan	17	(0.7)	19	(0.9)	15	(1.0)	-4	(1.4)	22	(1.6)	17	(1.0)	12	(1.1)	-9	(1.9)	21	(1.4)	20	(1.7)	14	(0.8)	-7	(1.6)
Korea	22	(1.1)	26	(1.3)	13	(1.5)	-13	(2.0)	29	(2.1)	24	(1.3)	13	(1.7)	-16	(2.4)	26	(1.7)	26	(2.5)	19	(1.3)	-6	(1.9)
Shanghai (China)	36	(1.0)	38	(1.1)	28	(1.4)	-10	(1.7)	43	(1.7)	35	(1.2)	30	(1.8)	-13	(2.3)	43	(1.7)	41	(2.0)	32	(1.1)	-11	(1.9)
Singapore	16	(0.6)	17	(0.8)	13	(0.9)	-4	(1.2)	16	(1.9)	16	(0.8)	13	(1.4)	-3	(2.3)	17	(2.0)	19	(2.4)	15	(0.8)	-2	(2.2)
OECD average-27	25	(0.2)	27	(0.2)	20	(0.3)	-7	(0.4)	28	(0.6)	26	(0.3)	23	(0.3)	-5	(0.7)	27	(0.4)	26	(0.5)	24	(0.3)	-3	(0.5)
Australia (Primary)	34	(1.3)	35	(1.5)	29	(2.2)	-6	(2.7)	42	(2.8)	33	(1.4)	30	(2.4)	-12	(3.5)	42	(2.7)	35	(2.2)	30	(1.5)	-12	(2.8)

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ26h.

6.4.1. Teachers' relations with parents and guardians and their professional outcomes

As part of a question on time spent on different teaching tasks, TALIS 2024 asked teachers to report how much time (in hours) they spent communicating and co-operating with parents or guardians. The number of hours spent by full-time Australian teachers (both at lower secondary and primary level) in comparison to lower secondary teachers from other countries are presented in Figure 6.7.

Figure 6.7 Teachers' time spent on communicating with parents and guardians
Average number of hours full-time teachers¹ reported that they spent on the following activities during the most recent complete calendar week²



¹ Teachers who report working more than 90% of full-time hours at the school.

² A “complete” calendar week is one that was not shortened by breaks, public holidays, sick leave, etc. It also includes tasks that took place during weekends, evenings or other out-of-class hours.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table CMUL.NO.TQ16bh_FT.

On average, Australian lower secondary teachers reported spending around 1.8 hours per week communicating with parents and guardians, which is similar to that reported by Australian primary teachers (1.7 hours per week) and the OECD average (1.8 hours per week). However, Australian lower secondary teachers spent more time communicating with parents than teachers from some of the high-performing PISA 2022 countries, including Estonia, Singapore, and Japan, but less time than teachers from Shanghai (China).

TALIS 2024 also asked teachers whether they believed that teachers in general were valued by parents/guardians in their school. The proportion of teachers who indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that teachers were valued are presented in Table 6.4, grouped by school characteristics (public or privately managed schools), by the proportion of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes (as reported by school principals), and by the proportion of students from schools where students had difficulties in understanding the language(s) of instruction (as reported by school principals).

More than two-thirds of Australian teachers (69% at lower secondary, 71% at primary) felt that teachers were valued by parents in their school. Teachers at both education levels felt more valued if they worked at private schools (in comparison to public schools), or at schools with no more than 10 per cent of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes (in comparison to schools with over 30% of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes). This was similar to the pattern observed on average across OECD countries, and across the selected comparison countries (noting that there were not sufficient data available for several of the comparison countries to explore these differences). Lower secondary teachers who worked at schools with no students having difficulties with the language(s) of instruction felt more valued (compared to schools with over 10% of students having such difficulties), but this pattern was not observed for primary teachers.

Table 6.4 Teachers' views on whether they are valued by parents and guardians in the school, by school characteristics
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that in their school, teachers are valued by parents and guardians

	Total		By school type						By school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes ¹								By school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction							
			Publicly managed schools ²		Privately managed schools ³		Private – Public		≤ 10% (a)		> 10% and ≤ 30%		> 30% (b)		Difference (b) – (a)		None (a)		> 0% and ≤ 10%		> 10% (b)		Difference (b) – (a)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	69	(1.4)	61	(2.1)	79	(1.7)	18	(2.7)	80	(1.9)	65	(2.9)	58	(2.8)	-22	(3.5)	82	(4.0)	69	(1.9)	65	(3.4)	-16	(5.0)
Estonia	72	(1.2)	71	(1.3)	83	(3.5)	12	(3.8)	74	(1.5)	66	(2.6)	63	(6.7)	-11	(6.8)	74	(2.8)	72	(1.6)	67	(3.1)	-7	(4.3)
Japan	45	(1.5)	43	(1.4)	68	(6.6)	26	(6.7)	47	(1.9)	41	(2.1)	43	(9.5)	-4	(9.8)	48	(2.6)	41	(1.6)	c	c	c	c
Korea	71	(1.2)	70	(1.5)	77	(2.9)	7	(3.3)	68	(1.8)	72	(2.3)	c	c	c	c	70	(1.6)	70	(2.4)	c	c	c	c
Shanghai (China)	83	(0.9)	83	(0.9)	89	(1.5)	6	(1.8)	83	(0.9)	83	(2.4)	c	c	c	c	82	(1.0)	88	(1.2)	a	a	a	a
Singapore	76	(1.0)	76	(0.9)	80	(3.5)	4	(3.6)	77	(1.7)	76	(1.3)	c	c	c	c	76	(1.6)	77	(1.3)	c	c	c	c
OECD average-27	65	(0.3)	63	(0.3)	76	(0.8)	14	(0.9)	69	(0.4)	64	(0.6)	60	(1.0)	-9	(1.1)	70	(0.6)	65	(0.4)	62	(0.8)	-8	(1.1)
Australia (Primary)	71	(1.7)	68	(2.1)	78	(3.4)	10	(4.0)	77	(3.1)	69	(3.1)	64	(3.3)	-13	(4.5)	66	(5.6)	73	(2.3)	68	(3.4)	3	(6.5)

¹ Socio-economically disadvantaged homes are those that lack the basic necessities or advantages of life, such as adequate housing, nutrition or medical care.

² A publicly managed school is a school whose principal reported that it is managed by a public education authority, government agency, municipality, or governing board appointed by government or elected by public franchise. In the Principal Questionnaire, this question does not make any reference to the source of the school's funding.

³ A privately managed school is a school whose principal reported that it is managed by a non-governmental organisation (e.g. a church, trade union, business or other private institution). In the Principal Questionnaire, this question does not make any reference to the source of the school's funding; the privately-managed-schools category includes schools that receive significant funding from the government (government-dependent private schools).

Notes: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**. a: The category does not apply to the country/economy concerned, data were not collected by the country/economy, or there was no observation in the sample. c: There are too few or no observations to provide reliable estimates and/or to ensure the confidentiality of respondents (i.e. there are fewer than 30 teachers or 10 schools/principals with valid data; and/or the item non-response rate [i.e. ratio of missing or invalid responses to the number of participants for whom the question was applicable] is above 50%).

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.SCH.TQ79d.



7 Sustaining the teaching profession

Highlights

- About one in five Australian lower secondary and primary teachers under 30 years of age reported that they intend to leave teaching within the next five years. This was similar to the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. Intentions to leave were impacted by sources of stress, such as having too many lessons and lack of classroom discipline.
- When asked about their motivations for becoming a teacher, most Australian lower secondary and primary teachers reported social utility reasons (concerning factors such as influencing the next generation or making worthwhile social contributions), job security, having the right abilities for the job, and liking work with children/adolescents.
- Almost all Australian lower secondary and primary teachers agreed that they enjoyed teaching. The joy of teaching was associated with lower intention to leave teaching, even after controlling for teacher and school characteristics, contract type, and satisfaction with employment terms.
- Both lower secondary and primary teachers' perceptions of feeling valued by policymakers and society in general were lower than in the previous cycle of TALIS in 2018.
- The proportion of Australian lower secondary teachers who reported that becoming a teacher was their first career choice was below that for both Australian primary teachers and the OECD average at lower secondary level. Higher proportions of female teachers and younger teachers (those aged below 30) reported that teaching was their first career choice.
- Nine out of ten Australian lower secondary teachers reported having a permanent contract, higher than the OECD average at lower secondary level. Three out of four Australian primary teachers reported a permanent position. In Australia, part-time work was also more frequently reported among primary teachers (one out of four) than among lower secondary teachers (one out of five).
- More than two-thirds of Australian teachers in 2024 were satisfied with their terms of employment. However, teachers' satisfaction with employment conditions and salaries decreased significantly between 2018 and 2024. In contrast, there were small increases on average across OECD countries for lower secondary teachers.

7.1 Introduction

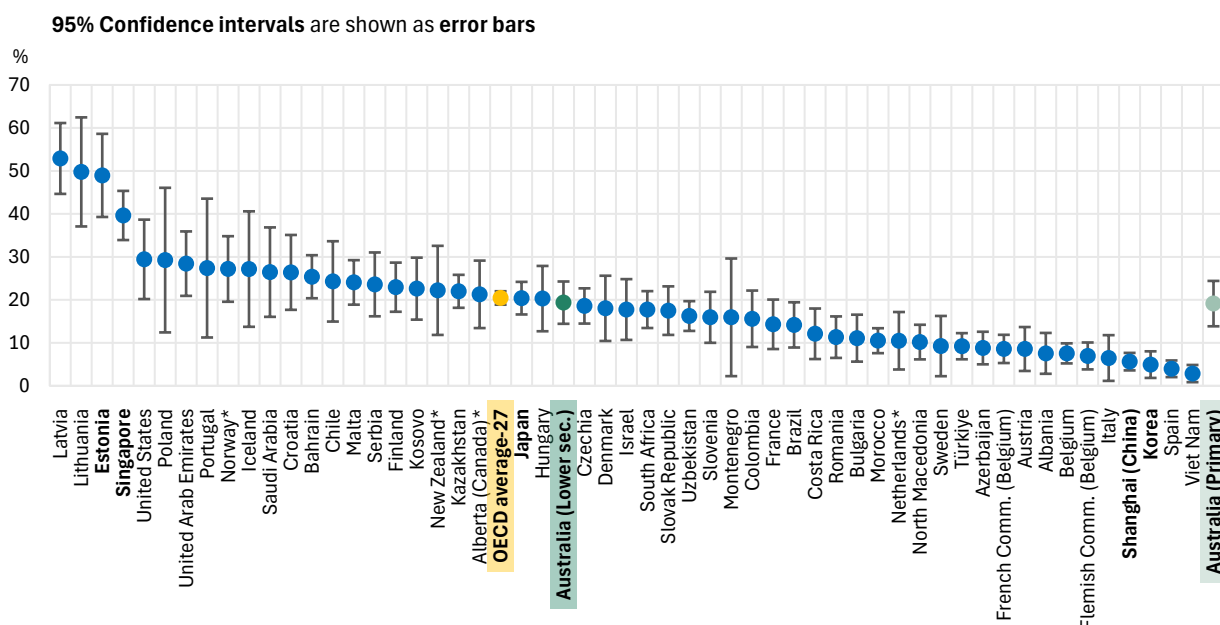
In view of the crucial role that teachers have in education systems, it is important that schools have a sufficient number of highly motivated and capable teachers in the workforce. In the context of the current teacher shortages in Australia, it is important to consider the relationships between adverse teaching experiences (stress, burnout, depressive symptoms) and teachers’ intentions to leave the profession (Rahimi & Arnold, 2024; Arnold & Rahimi, 2025).

This chapter examines teachers’ career intentions, intrinsic motivations (social utility, enjoyment of teaching), perceptions of the status of the teaching profession, and characteristics of teachers’ employment.

7.2 Teachers’ career intentions

TALIS 2024 asked teachers to report how many years they intended to continue in the teaching profession. As older teachers are likely to expect to continue in the teaching profession for only a limited number of years, this analysis focuses on young teachers (i.e. those below the age of 30 years). Generally, younger teachers tended to be more likely to change jobs and/or careers than older ones (ABS, 2025; Gallup, 2024; OECD, 2025b). Figure 7.1 reports on career intentions among teachers under the age of 30 in Australia compared with other TALIS countries.

Figure 7.1 Career intentions among teachers aged under 30
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers aged under 30 expressing the intention to leave teaching within the next five years



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.UND.TQ74.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers below the age of 30, almost two out of ten teachers (19%) reported planning to leave the teaching profession within the next five years, similar to the OECD average (20%) and Australian primary teachers under the age of 30 (19%).

Since TALIS 2018, the proportions of teachers under the age of 30 who were intending to leave teaching increased across both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers by seven and eight percentage points, respectively. The seven percentage point increase at the lower secondary level between 2018 and 2024 was considerably higher than the OECD average increase of three percentage points over the same time period (OECD, 2025a).

A logistic regression model was used to estimate the effects of 13 indicators of teachers' sources of stress on their intention to leave the teaching profession (Table 7.1). All 13 indicators had significant effects on Australian lower secondary teachers' intentions to leave teaching, with those related to lessons (preparation/amount), classroom discipline, and being held responsible for student achievement and wellbeing having the biggest effects (i.e. the highest odds ratios). The effects were slightly higher than on average across OECD countries (an exception to this was being intimidated or verbally abused by students where the effect was stronger on average across OECD countries). For Australian primary teachers, there were somewhat weaker associations between sources of stress and intentions to leave than among Australian lower secondary teachers.

Table 7.1 Relationship between teachers' career intentions and sources of stress

Change in the likelihood of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they intend to leave the profession within the next five years¹ associated with encountering the following as sources of stress "quite a bit" or "a lot" at work^{2,3,4}, after accounting for teacher and school characteristics⁵

	Australia (Lower sec.)		Estonia		Japan		Korea		Shanghai (China)		Singapore		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.	Odds ratio	S.E.
Having too many lessons to teach	2.66	(0.46)	1.63	(0.24)	2.35	(0.63)	0.90	(0.23)	2.01	(0.36)	1.59	(0.36)	1.92	(0.09)	1.53	(0.31)
Having too much lesson preparation	2.49	(0.47)	1.58	(0.21)	2.58	(0.64)	1.29	(0.42)	2.04	(0.37)	1.56	(0.27)	1.73	(0.08)	1.79	(0.37)
Being held responsible for students' social and emotional wellbeing	2.36	(0.47)	1.53	(0.21)	1.61	(0.40)	1.22	(0.37)	1.66	(0.31)	1.91	(0.31)	1.61	(0.07)	2.29	(0.48)
Maintaining classroom discipline	2.34	(0.49)	1.82	(0.25)	1.99	(0.43)	1.35	(0.38)	2.35	(0.44)	1.21	(0.18)	2.00	(0.08)	2.03	(0.40)
Being held responsible for student achievement	2.28	(0.42)	1.68	(0.25)	1.71	(0.41)	1.41	(0.35)	1.47	(0.26)	1.34	(0.25)	1.55	(0.06)	2.12	(0.38)
Having too much administrative work	2.04	(0.39)	1.09	(0.15)	1.08	(0.26)	0.70	(0.17)	1.61	(0.33)	1.19	(0.17)	1.33	(0.06)	1.64	(0.33)
Keeping up with curriculum or programme changes in this school	1.98	(0.41)	1.10	(0.17)	1.30	(0.31)	0.98	(0.27)	1.54	(0.29)	2.06	(0.35)	1.54	(0.07)	1.69	(0.33)
Having too much work on diversity and equity issues, concerns, or conflicts	1.96	(0.39)	1.33	(0.25)	1.47	(0.34)	1.21	(0.34)	2.19	(0.45)	2.08	(0.34)	1.82	(0.09)	1.64	(0.34)
Being intimidated or verbally abused by students	1.87	(0.35)	1.67	(0.35)	2.03	(0.57)	1.05	(0.31)	2.73	(0.88)	1.94	(0.46)	2.13	(0.12)	2.10	(0.43)
Modifying lessons for students with special education needs	1.81	(0.33)	1.45	(0.20)	1.76	(0.52)	1.05	(0.39)	1.54	(0.40)	1.86	(0.37)	1.67	(0.07)	1.90	(0.38)
Keeping up with changing requirements	1.75	(0.32)	1.36	(0.18)	0.76	(0.17)	0.78	(0.23)	1.72	(0.29)	1.99	(0.29)	1.53	(0.07)	1.36	(0.25)
Addressing parent or guardian concerns	1.73	(0.29)	1.25	(0.19)	0.98	(0.21)	1.04	(0.23)	1.61	(0.33)	1.38	(0.21)	1.58	(0.06)	2.37	(0.46)
Having too much marking	1.59	(0.32)	1.79	(0.24)	1.48	(0.38)	0.94	(0.29)	1.78	(0.32)	1.55	(0.24)	1.44	(0.06)	1.81	(0.35)

¹ Binary variable: the reference category refers to teachers reporting that they want to continue working as a teacher for more than five years.

² Binary variable: the reference category "not at all" and "to some extent".

³ Results based on binary logistic regression. An odds ratio indicates the degree to which an explanatory variable is associated with a categorical outcome variable. An odds ratio below one denotes a negative association; an odds ratio above one indicates a positive association; and an odds ratio of one means that there is no association.

⁴ The analysis is restricted to teachers who reported that retirement from work sector is "not at all likely" or "not very likely" to lead them to leave teaching within the next five years.

⁵ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table LOGMUL.TQ74.TQ77.

7.3 Teachers' intrinsic motivations

Intrinsic motivation to teach is an important aspect of teacher retention; it can be thought of as a personal resource that reduces the impact of job demands and stress factors in the teaching profession, and has the potential to strengthen and support professional engagement and outcomes. As such, information about intrinsic motivations is of interest for teacher recruitment and retention (OECD, 2025b).

TALIS 2024 gathered data about teachers' intrinsic motivations related to social utility aspects (concerning factors such as influencing the next generation or making worthwhile social contributions) and enjoyment of teaching (measured as agreements with positive statements about how respondents feel about teaching). This section contains information on how teachers perceive these as intrinsic motivation to teach and examines how enjoyment of teaching is associated with intentions to leave teaching.

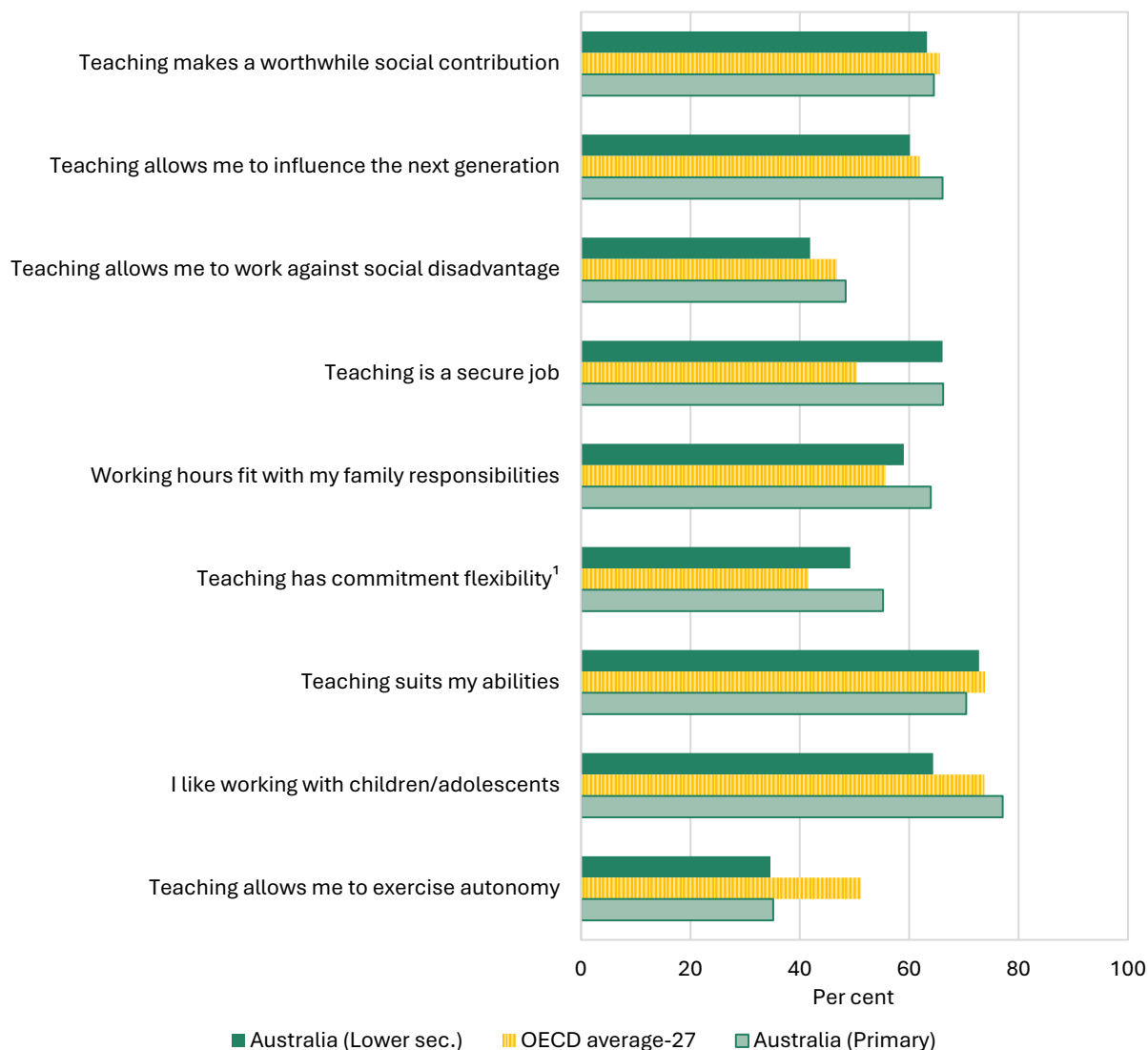
TALIS 2024 asked teachers about factors of high importance for being a teacher. Figure 7.2 displays the three factors related to social utility, three to personal utility, and three to other aspects. Among the factors related to social utility, more than 60 per cent of Australian lower secondary teachers rated making worthwhile social contributions as of high importance, which was similar to the OECD average (66%) and for Australian primary teachers (65%). Influencing the next generation was also regarded as highly important by Australian lower secondary teachers, six percentage points lower than for Australian primary teachers.

For both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers, job security was regarded as highly important by about two-thirds of teachers (66% at each level respectively). Across OECD countries, on average only about half (50%) of teachers expressed this view. About six in ten (59%) Australian lower secondary teachers considered it highly important that working hours fit with family responsibilities, a view that was shared by just under thirds of Australian primary teachers (64%). About half of Australian lower secondary teachers (49%) considered commitment flexibility to be highly important, while the corresponding proportion across OECD countries on average was considerably lower (42%). Among Australian primary teachers, commitment flexibility was considered to be highly important by more than half of the respondents (55%).

Among both Australian lower secondary and primary teachers approximately seven out of ten respondents were of the view that teaching suited their abilities (73% and 70%, respectively), which was a similar proportion to the average across OECD countries among lower secondary teachers (74%). Liking to work with children or adolescents was reported as of high importance by more than three-quarters of Australian primary teachers (77%), while this proportion was considerably lower among Australian lower secondary teachers (slightly less than two-thirds, 64%). On average across OECD countries 74 per cent of lower secondary teachers were of this view. Only one in three Australian lower secondary and primary teachers rated the possibility to exercise autonomy as highly important, while on average across OECD countries about half of lower secondary teachers viewed this as of high importance.

TALIS 2024 asked teachers about their agreement with statements reflecting enthusiasm, feeling happy while teaching, and liking teaching their subjects. In Australia, almost 100 per cent of both lower secondary and primary teachers agreed or strongly agreed with these statements, which was also the case among lower secondary teachers on average across OECD countries.

Figure 7.2 Motivations to teach
Percentage of teachers reporting that the following factors are of “high importance” to them as a teacher



¹ For example, travel, part-time work, family commitments.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.TGND.TQ73.

The four items reflecting teachers’ enjoyment of teaching were scaled to provide an index of joy of teaching, which was used in a logistic regression model to predict teachers’ intentions to leave teaching within the next five years, before and after controlling for different teacher and school characteristics (Table 7.2). Australian lower secondary and primary teachers’ intentions to leave were negatively associated with the joy of teaching (i.e. the likelihood of teachers reporting an intention to leave the profession in the next five years is higher for those who reported lower levels of enjoyment from teaching). This was also the case for OECD countries on average, but in two of the comparison countries (Japan and Korea) joy of teaching did not have a significant effect after controlling for teacher and school characteristics.

Table 7.2 Relationship between teachers' career intentions and enjoyment of teaching

Change in the likelihood of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they intend to leave the profession within the next five years¹, associated with the scale of joy of teaching^{2,3,4}

	Australia (Lower sec.)		Estonia		Japan		Korea		Shanghai (China)		Singapore		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.	Odds ratio ³	S.E.
Before accounting for teacher and school characteristics ⁵	0.67	(0.03)	0.79	(0.03)	0.89	(0.05)	0.89	(0.05)	0.76	(0.04)	0.78	(0.04)	0.74	(0.01)	0.71	(0.04)
After accounting for teacher and school characteristics ⁵ , social utility motivations, contract modalities and satisfaction with the terms of employment (including salaries)	0.67	(0.04)	0.79	(0.03)	0.87	(0.07)	0.85	(0.07)	0.81	(0.05)	0.83	(0.05)	0.75	(0.01)	0.72	(0.04)

¹ Binary variable: the reference category refers to teachers reporting that they want to continue working as a teacher for more than five years.

² The scale of joy of teaching (T4JOYTCH) was constructed using teacher responses (“strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree”, or “strongly agree”) about the following statements (TT4G80): “I like the subject(s) that I teach”, “I often feel happy while I teach”, “I generally teach with enthusiasm”, and “the interesting challenges of teaching give me satisfaction”. Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

³ Results based on binary logistic regression. An odds ratio indicates the degree to which an explanatory variable is associated with a categorical outcome variable. An odds ratio below one denotes a negative association; an odds ratio above one indicates a positive association; and an odds ratio of one means that there is no association.

⁴ The analysis is restricted to teachers who reported that retirement from work sector is “not at all likely” or “not very likely” to lead them to leave teaching within the next five years.

⁵ Teacher characteristics include gender, age (standardised at the international level) and years of teaching experience (standardised at the international level). School characteristics include school location, school governance type, school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction, and school intake of students with special education needs.

⁶ The scale of social utility motivations to teach (T4MOSU) was constructed using teacher responses (“not important at all”, “of low importance”, “of moderate importance”, or “of high importance”) about how important the following factors are to them (TT4G73): “teaching allows me to influence the next generation”, “teaching allows me to work against social disadvantage”, and “teaching makes a worthwhile social contribution”. Standardised scale scores with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale.

⁷ Contract modalities refer to the binary variables of being employed on a fixed-term contract (reference category: permanent contract) and working part-time contract (reference category: full-time).

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table LOG.TQ74.TQS80.

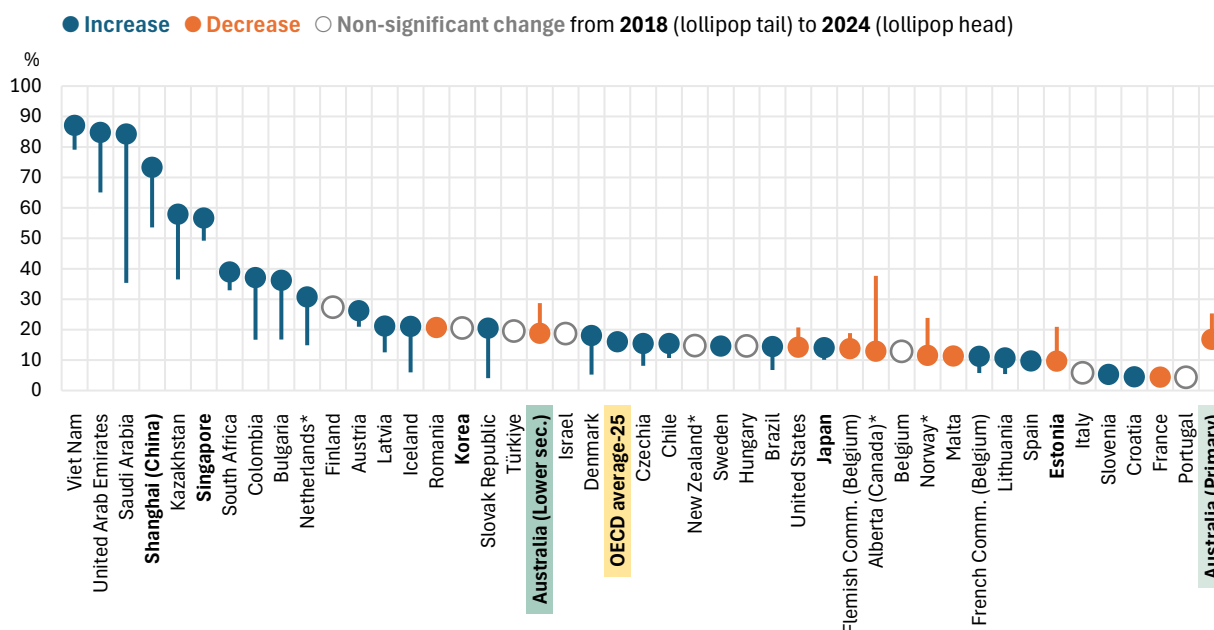
7.4 Status of the teaching profession

There is evidence that teachers’ professional prestige is linked to successful learning and that education systems with higher levels of achievement are often characterised by a teaching workforce that feels valued in society (Dolton et al., 2018; Schleicher, 2018). Higher social status of teachers also helps to attract and retain educators (Han, 2018). Results from Australia in recent years indicated that teachers in this country tend to feel unappreciated and that they are not respected in the public eye (Heffernan et al., 2019; Longmuir et al., 2022).

This section discusses the TALIS 2024 data on the status of the teaching profession based on teacher perceptions about how they feel valued in the eyes of policymakers and in the eyes of the public. This section also looks at data on whether teaching was the first career choice among teachers by selected background characteristics.

TALIS asked teachers in 2018 and 2024 to what extent they agreed that their views were valued by policymakers in their country (Figure 7.3). Low proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers agreed or strongly agreed that Australian policymakers value the teaching profession (19% and 17%, respectively). At both education levels, this was a statistically significant decrease from 2018 (of 10 and nine percentage points, respectively). On average across OECD countries there was a small but significant increase (of three percentage points), however, it should be noted that teachers’ perceptions of the value of the teaching profession were still higher than the OECD average.

Figure 7.3 Change in teachers’ perceptions of the value of the teaching profession and teachers by policymakers, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that teachers’ views are valued by policymakers in their country/region



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

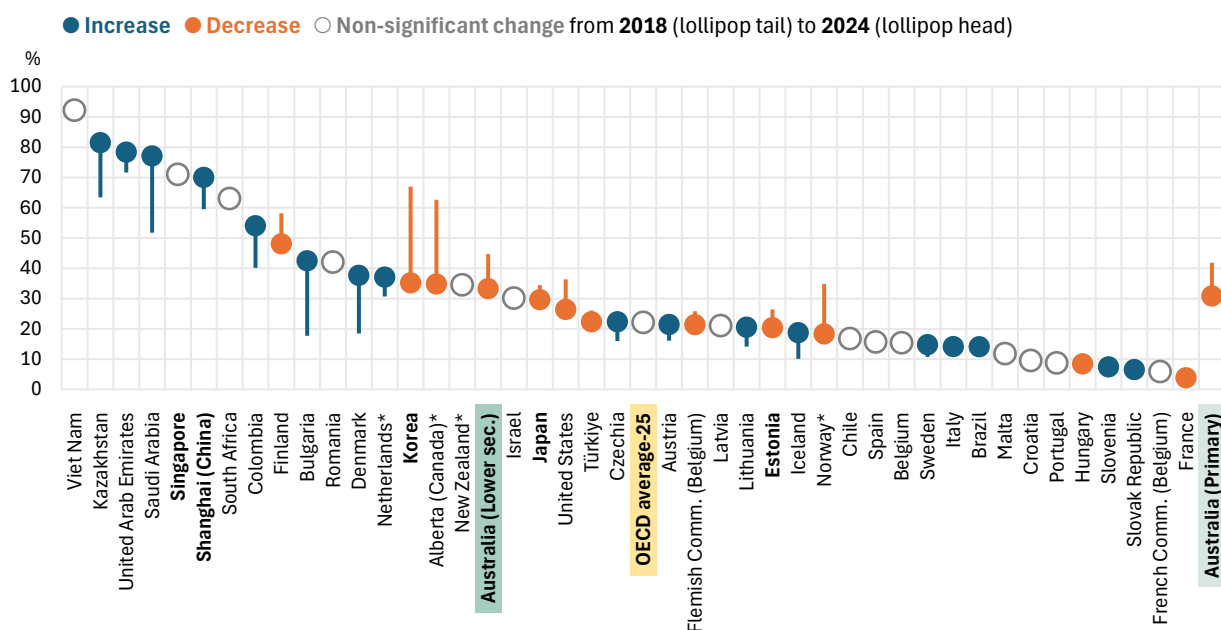
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BMUL.TR3.TQ79eg.

Figure 7.4 shows that while more Australian teachers perceived that society values the teaching profession than the OECD average, this declined since 2018.

Approximately one-third of Australian lower secondary teachers (33%) and a little less than one-third (31%) of Australian primary teachers agreed or strongly agreed that society values the teaching profession. At both education levels these proportions were 11 percentage points lower than in 2018. In contrast, on average across OECD countries the perception of lower secondary teachers that they were valued did not change significantly.

Figure 7.4 Change in teachers’ perceptions of the value of the teaching profession by society, from 2018 to 2024
 Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that the teaching profession is valued by society



* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and TALIS 2024 Databases, Table BIN.TR2.TQ78h.

7.4.1. Teaching as first career choice

Whether teachers pursued teaching as their first career choice can indicate how current teachers value their own teachers. This is because pursuing teaching as a first career choice is, in effect, following in their teachers’ footsteps. Table 7.3 shows the proportions of teachers who reported that teaching was their first career choice by gender, age, and years of teaching experience, for Australian lower secondary teachers, high-performing PISA 2022 comparison countries, on average across OECD countries at lower secondary and Australian primary teachers.

Just under three in five (58%) Australian lower secondary teachers reported that teaching was their first career choice; this was below the OECD average (69%) and the proportion for Australian primary teachers (69%). Australian lower secondary teachers were more likely to have teaching as a first career choice if they were female (63% vs 51% for male) or younger (i.e. aged below 30 (71%), compared to those aged 50 or more (57%)). However, years of experience had no effect on the proportion for whom teaching was their first career choice.

The finding for age is not surprising, as younger teachers are less likely to have had an opportunity to have a different career before starting their teaching career. However, whilst the OECD average

results for gender were similar to those for Australia, they were quite different for age (no relationship to likelihood of teaching being the first career choice) and experience (experienced teachers were significantly more likely than early career teachers to report teaching as their first career choice). Of the comparison PISA 2022 countries, Estonia had starkly different results to Australia; their older teachers (aged 50 and above) and experienced teachers were more likely to report teaching as their first career choice. Further, although in Estonia, like in Australia, female teachers were more likely to report teaching was their first career choice, the difference between the proportions of females and males reporting this in Estonia was much larger (21 percentage points in Estonia vs 12 percentage points in Australia).

Table 7.3 Teaching as a first career choice, by gender, age, and teaching experience
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that teaching was their first choice as a career

		Australia (Lower sec.)		Estonia		Japan		Korea		Shanghai (China)		Singapore		OECD average-27		Australia (Primary)	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Overall		58	(1.2)	65	(1.2)	84	(0.8)	84	(1.0)	95	(0.5)	75	(0.9)	69	(0.2)	69	(1.3)
By gender	Female	63	(1.4)	69	(1.2)	81	(1.3)	85	(1.1)	95	(0.6)	79	(1.2)	72	(0.3)	71	(1.4)
	Male	51	(1.9)	47	(3.1)	86	(1.1)	82	(1.7)	94	(1.0)	69	(1.3)	63	(0.5)	62	(2.7)
	Male – Female	-12	(2.3)	-21	(3.3)	5	(1.6)	-3	(2.0)	-1	(1.1)	-9	(1.8)	-9	(0.5)	-8	(3.1)
By age	< Age 30 (a)	71	(3.0)	50	(3.8)	89	(1.4)	97	(1.4)	94	(1.1)	82	(2.8)	71	(0.8)	81	(2.2)
	Age 30–49	55	(1.4)	56	(1.6)	83	(1.2)	82	(1.0)	95	(0.6)	75	(1.4)	67	(0.3)	70	(1.6)
	≥ Age 50 (b)	57	(2.4)	75	(1.5)	82	(1.4)	81	(2.2)	95	(0.9)	73	(2.3)	70	(0.4)	63	(2.6)
	Difference (b) – (a)	-14	(3.8)	24	(4.0)	-7	(1.8)	-16	(2.5)	1	(1.3)	-9	(4.0)	0	(0.9)	-18	(3.1)
By years of teaching experience	≤ 5 years (a)	57	(2.7)	35	(2.7)	84	(1.8)	86	(1.5)	93	(1.1)	79	(2.4)	58	(0.6)	65	(2.6)
	6–10 years	54	(3.2)	44	(3.4)	81	(1.7)	79	(1.9)	94	(1.1)	73	(3.1)	62	(0.6)	68	(3.0)
	> 10 years (b)	59	(1.7)	77	(1.2)	84	(1.0)	84	(1.4)	95	(0.6)	75	(1.3)	74	(0.3)	73	(1.5)
	Difference (b) – (a)	2	(2.8)	43	(2.8)	0	(2.0)	-1	(2.1)	2	(1.2)	-4	(3.1)	16	(0.7)	8	(2.7)

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ08.

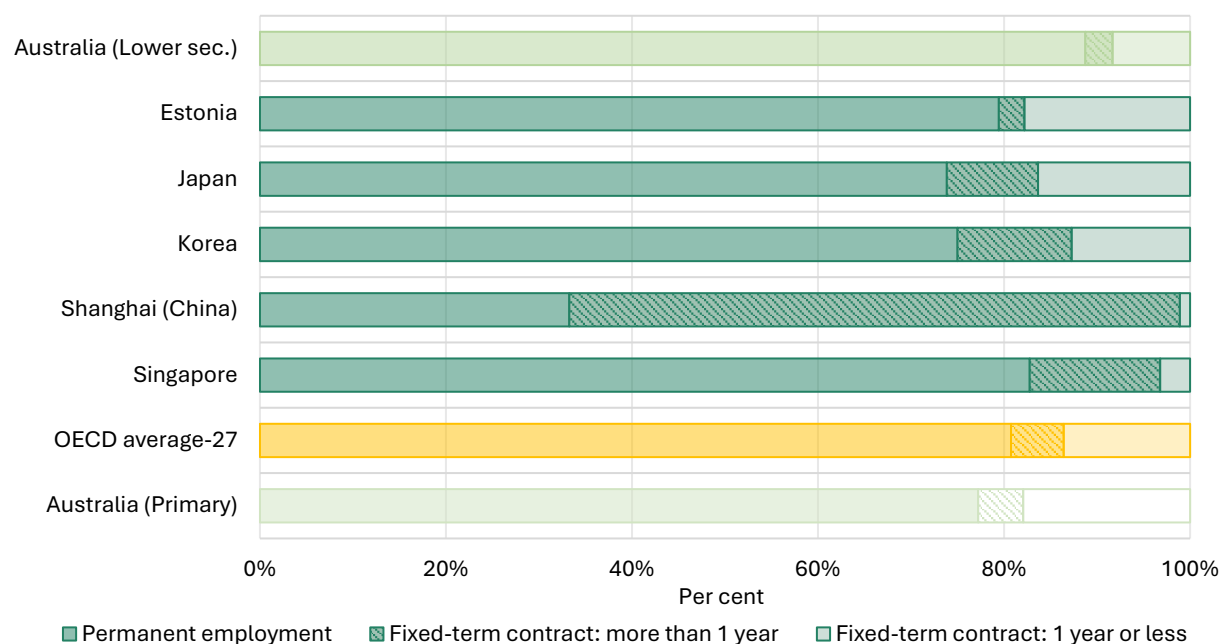
7.5 Teachers' terms of employment

The quality of teachers' working conditions has been found to be associated with wellbeing, health, and productivity (Arnold & Rahimi, 2025; Cazes, Hijzen & Saint-Martin, 2015; Eurofound & International Labour Organization, 2019; Nwoko et al., 2024). The terms of employment that determine working conditions include contractual arrangements and remuneration; they can help to mitigate other sources of stress and potentially increase motivation and engagement.

This section explores teachers' contractual arrangements (fixed-term, short-term, or permanent), the extent to which teachers work part-time, and teacher satisfaction with the terms of employment and with their salaries.

TALIS 2024 gathered data on job stability by asking teachers whether they were permanently employed, on a fixed-term contract lasting for more than one year, or on a fixed-term contract lasting for one year or less (Figure 7.5). The data show that close to nine in ten Australian lower secondary teachers (89%) reported being permanently employed, while fewer than one in ten teachers reported being on a fixed-term contract for one year or less. More Australian lower secondary teachers were permanently employed in comparison to the OECD average (89% vs 81%), in comparison to all high-performing PISA 2022 countries, and in comparison to Australian primary teachers (77%). In Shanghai (China) only one-third of teachers reported being permanently employed.

Figure 7.5 Teacher employment by permanent employment and fixed-term contracts
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers with the following employment statuses



Note: Permanent employment refers to an ongoing contract with no fixed endpoint before the age of retirement.

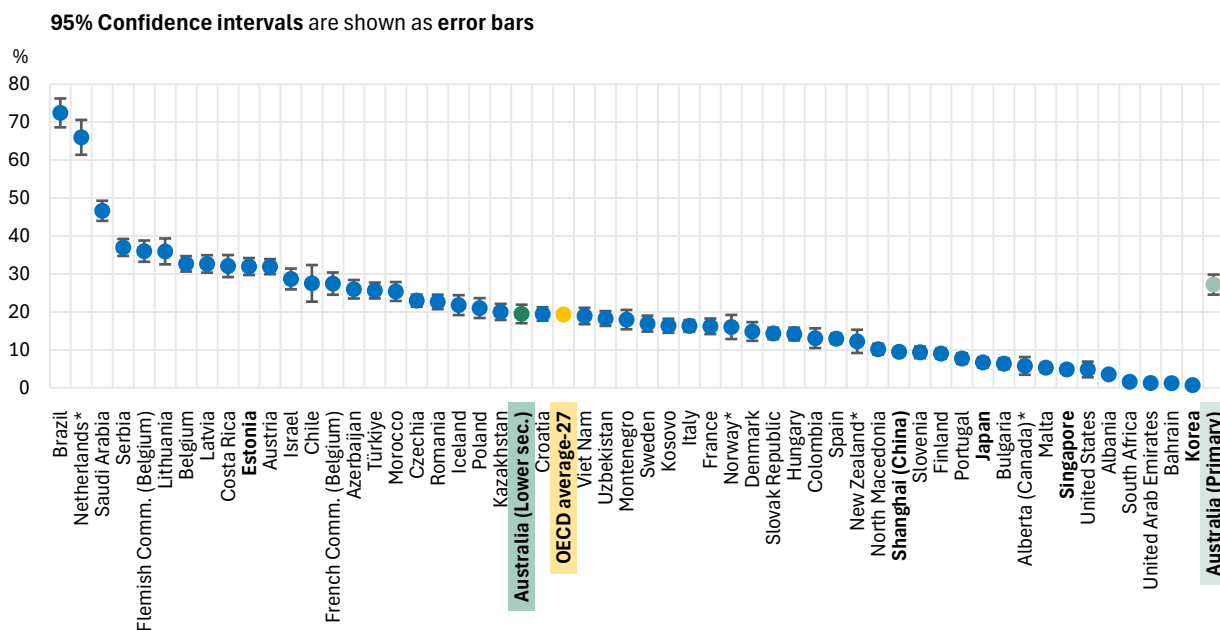
Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BMUL.NO.TQ09.

Another important aspect of teachers' working conditions is flexibility. For example, part-time work can have benefits for work-life balance and wellbeing, however it may also be regarded as detrimental for teachers' career paths, remuneration and pension benefits (OECD, 2019). TALIS 2024 collected data from teachers about their working time, asking teachers to report whether they worked more than 90% of regular full-time hours, 71–90% of full-time hours, 50–70% of full-

time hours, or less than 50% of full-time hours. Teachers who worked more than 90% of regular full-time hours were classified as full-time, whilst the rest were classified as part-time.

Figure 7.6 shows the proportions of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who reported working part-time. Approximately one in five Australian lower secondary teachers reported working part-time, which was similar to the OECD average, but below that for Australian primary teachers (approximately one in four).

Figure 7.6 Teachers working part-time
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers reporting that they work part-time¹



¹ Part-time teachers are defined as those who work up to 90% of full-time hours.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

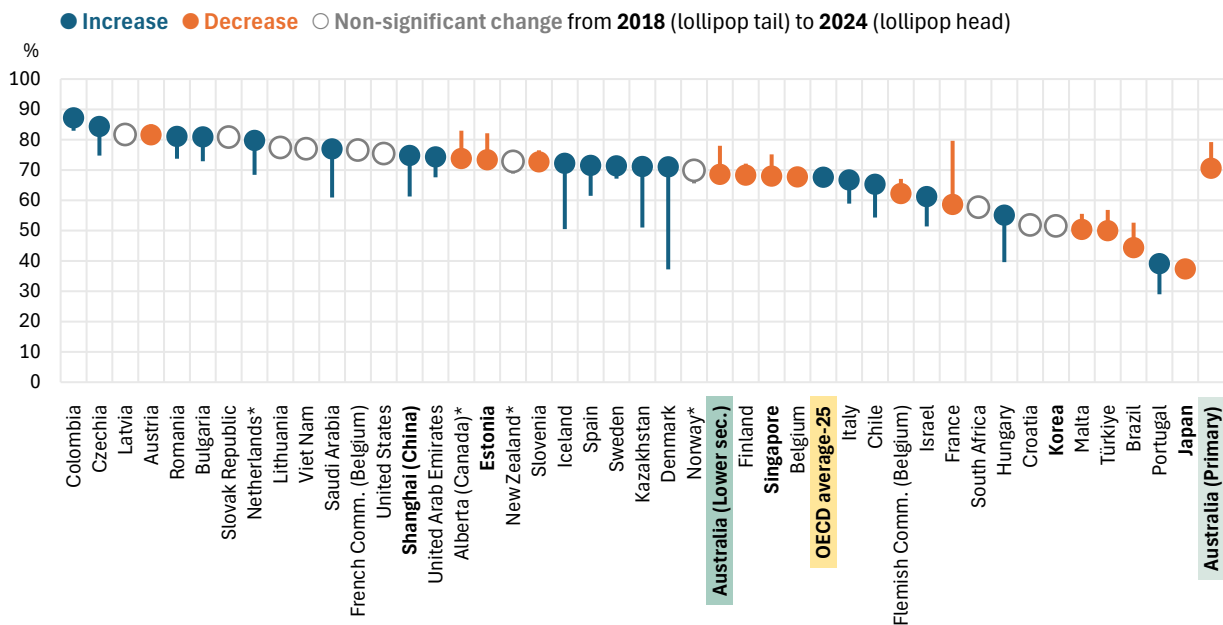
Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TCH.TQ12.

7.5.1. Satisfaction with terms of employment and salaries

TALIS asked teachers in 2018 and 2024 about their satisfaction with current employment terms (excluding salaries). More than two-thirds of Australian teachers in 2024 agreed or strongly agreed that they were satisfied with the terms of their employment (Figure 7.7). However, for both groups of Australian teachers, this result was significantly less than in 2018, whereas there was a small but significant increase in the OECD average for lower secondary teachers. There was also considerable variation in teacher satisfaction with employment terms across participating countries/economies. Teachers from Shanghai (China) and Estonia had higher levels of satisfaction, while teachers from Japan and Korea had lower levels of satisfaction than Australian lower secondary teachers (there was no difference in satisfaction levels with teachers from Singapore).

Figure 7.7 Change in teachers’ satisfaction with employment terms (excluding salaries), from 2018 to 2024
 Percentage of lower secondary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that they are satisfied with their terms of employment¹



¹ Terms of employment refer to the terms of teaching contracts or employment, for example benefits and work schedule, excluding salary.

* Estimates should be interpreted with caution due to higher risk of non-response bias.

Note: High-performing PISA 2022 countries in **bold**.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.TR3.TQ79b.

While adequate remuneration is a potentially successful incentive for teacher recruitment and retention in Australia (Blackmore et al., 2023), it plays an important role in ensuring that teaching at schools is financially sustainable and competitive with other forms of employment (Cuervo & Vera-Toscano, 2025).

As in the previous cycle, teachers surveyed in TALIS 2024 were asked to what extent they agreed that they were satisfied with their salaries. Table 7.4 shows the proportions of teachers who agreed or strongly agreed that they were satisfied with their salaries, for Australian lower secondary teachers, comparison PISA 2022 countries, the OECD average, and among Australian primary teachers in 2018 and in 2024.

Table 7.4 Change in teachers’ salary satisfaction, from 2018 to 2024
Percentage of lower secondary and Australian primary teachers who “agree” or “strongly agree” that they are satisfied with the salary they receive for their work

	TALIS 2018		TALIS 2024		Change (2024 – 2018)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.
Australia (Lower sec.)	67	(1.0)	55	(1.8)	-13	(2.1)
Estonia	39	(1.2)	30	(1.1)	-9	(1.7)
Japan	42	(1.1)	29	(1.0)	-13	(1.5)
Korea	49	(1.2)	29	(1.1)	-20	(1.6)
Shanghai (China)	37	(1.2)	59	(1.4)	22	(1.8)
Singapore	72	(0.8)	55	(1.5)	-17	(1.7)
OECD average-25	36	(0.2)	39	(0.3)	3	(0.4)
Australia (Primary)	63	(0.9)	55	(1.4)	-8	(1.7)

*Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**.*

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018 and 2024 Databases, Table BIN.TR3.TQ79a.

Just over half of Australian lower secondary teachers in 2024 reported being satisfied with their salaries. This was similar to the proportions of teachers in Shanghai and Singapore, and Australian primary teachers, who are satisfied with their salaries, and above the OECD average and the proportions in the other comparison countries.

However, the proportions of Australian lower secondary and primary teachers who were satisfied with their salaries was significantly lower than in 2018 (by 13 and eight percentage points, respectively). Significant decreases were also recorded in all comparison countries/economies except Shanghai (China), which recorded a 22-percentage point increase. On average across OECD countries there was a three-percentage point increase in teacher salary satisfaction.

TALIS 2024 also compared teachers' satisfaction with their salaries by school characteristics (school location, intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes, intake of students with a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction, and intake of students with special education needs) (Table 7.5).

Table 7.5 Teachers' satisfaction with their salaries, by school characteristics
Percentage of teachers who "agree" or "strongly agree" that they are satisfied with the salary they receive for their work

		Australia (Lower sec.)		Australia (Primary)	
		%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Total		55	(1.8)	55	(1.4)
By school location¹	Rural area or village (a)	c	c	65	(2.9)
	Town	57	(3.2)	53	(2.7)
	City (b)	54	(2.1)	55	(1.9)
	Difference (b) – (a)	c	c	-11	(3.5)
By school intake of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes²	≤ 10% (a)	58	(2.8)	54	(2.1)
	> 10% and ≤ 30%	52	(3.4)	55	(3.3)
	> 30% (b)	49	(3.2)	58	(2.6)
	Difference (b) – (a)	-8	(4.2)	4	(3.4)
By school intake of students who have difficulties understanding the language(s) of instruction	None (a)	46	(5.5)	66	(2.9)
	> 0% and ≤ 10%	56	(2.2)	56	(1.9)
	> 10% (b)	55	(4.2)	51	(2.9)
	Difference (b) – (a)	8	(6.9)	-15	(4.3)
By school intake of students with special education needs³	≤ 10% (a)	55	(3.4)	56	(2.6)
	> 10% and ≤ 30%	54	(2.3)	53	(2.3)
	> 30% (b)	46	(5.2)	60	(3.1)
	Difference (b) – (a)	-9	(6.2)	4	(4.1)

¹ Rural area or village: up to 3 000 people; Town: 3 001 to 100 000 people; City: over 100 000 people.

² Socio-economically disadvantaged homes are those that lack the basic necessities or advantages of life, such as adequate housing, nutrition or medical care.

³ Students with special education needs are those for whom a special education need has been formally identified because they are mentally, physically, or emotionally disadvantaged.

Note: Statistically significant values are indicated in **bold**. c: There are too few or no observations to provide reliable estimates and/or to ensure the confidentiality of respondents (i.e. there are fewer than 30 teachers or 10 schools/principals with valid data; and/or the item non-response rate [i.e. ratio of missing or invalid responses to the number of participants for whom the question was applicable] is above 50%).

Source: OECD, TALIS 2024 Database, Table BIN.SCH.TQ79a.

Among Australian lower secondary teachers, the only statistically significant difference was between schools with low and high intakes of socio-economically disadvantaged students. In particular, teachers at schools where ten per cent or fewer students are socio-economically disadvantaged were more likely to be satisfied with their salaries than teachers where over 30 per cent of the students are socio-economically disadvantaged (by eight percentage points). In contrast, there were two statistically significant differences for Australian primary teachers: those in rural areas expressed a significantly higher level of salary satisfaction than those in cities (by 11 percent points), and primary schools that had no students with a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction had teachers with a significantly higher level of salary satisfaction than schools with a high intake of such students (by 15 percentage points).

References

- Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. (2025). *ATWD National Trends: Teacher Workforce (June 2025 ed., 2019-2023)*. <https://www.aitsl.edu.au/research/australian-teacher-workforce-data/atwd-reports/national-trends-teacher-workforce-jun2025/>
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.
- Biesta, G., M. Priestley and S. Robinson (2015), "The role of beliefs in teacher agency", *Teachers and Teaching*, Vol. 21/6, pp. 624-640. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2015.1044325>
- Blackmore, J., D'Arbon, P., Pardo, A. M. G. N., & Frawley, G. (2023). An analysis of Australian teacher workforce policy: Challenges and constructions. *Australian Journal of Education*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14782103241283106>
- Boeskens, L., Nusche, D., & Yurita, M. (2020). Policies to support teachers' continuing professional learning: A conceptual framework and mapping of OECD data (*OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 235). OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/247b7c4d-en>
- Bostwick, K. C., Martin, A. J., Collie, R. J., & Durksen, T. L. (2020). Teachers' growth mindset and engagement in adaptive teaching practices: The mediating role of teacher self-efficacy. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90(3), 674-691.
- Cann, R., Riedel-Prabhakar, R., & Powell, D. (2020). A model of positive school leadership to improve teacher wellbeing. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, 6(2), 195-218. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-020-00045-5>
- Cazes, S., Hijzen, A., & Saint-Martin, A. (2015). Measuring and assessing job quality: The OECD job quality framework (OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers, No. 174). OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/5jrp02kpw1mr-en>
- Claro, S. (2021). Growth mindset in education: A research synthesis. *Educational Psychologist*, 56(2), 85-105.
- Collie, R. J. (2023). Teachers' work motivation: Examining perceived leadership practices and salient outcomes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 135, 104348.
- Cuervo, H., & Vera-Toscano, E. (2025). Teacher retention and attrition: Understanding why teachers leave and their post-teaching pathways in Australia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-025-00842-4>
- Datnow, A. (2020). The role of teachers in educational reform: A 20-year perspective. *Journal of Educational Change*, 21(3), 431-441. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-020-09372-5>
- De Bortoli, L., Underwood, C., & Thomson, S. (2022). *PISA 2018: Reporting Australia's results*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Dix, K. L., & Carslake, T. (2025). *The Teaching and Learning International Survey 2024: Non-response bias analysis report for Australia. Report to the Australian Government Department of Education*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Dolton, P., Marcenaro, O., de Vries, R., & She, P. (2018). *Global Teacher Status Index 2018*. Varkey Foundation. <https://www.varkeyfoundation.org/media/4867/gts-index-13-11-2018.pdf>

- Dreer, B. (2022). Teacher well-being: Investigating the contributions of school climate and job crafting. *Cogent Education*, 9(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2022.2044583>
- Dweck, C. S. (2010). Mindsets and equitable education. *Principal Leadership*, 10(5), 26–29.
- Dweck, C. S. (2016). *Mindset: The new psychology of success* (Updated ed.). Ballantine Books.
- Dweck, C. S., & Yeager, D. S. (2019). Mindsets: A view from two eras. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 14(3), 481–496.
- Eurofound, & International Labour Organization. (2019). Working conditions in a global perspective. Publications Office of the European Union; International Labour Organization.
- Eacott, S., & Wainer, C. (2023). Schooling on the margins: The problems and possibilities of Montessori schools in Australia. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 53(4), 551-566.
- Gallup. (2024). *State of the global workplace report*. <https://www.gallup.com/workplace/349484/state-of-the-global-workplace.aspx> (accessed April 25, 2025)
- Granziera, H., Collie, R. J., Roberts, A., Corkish, B., Tickell, A., Deady, M., O’Dea, B., Tye, M., & Werner-Seidler, A. (2025). Teachers’ workload, turnover intentions, and mental health: Perspectives of Australian teachers. *Social Psychology of Education*, 28, Article 149.
- Guerriero, S. (Ed.). (2017). *Pedagogical knowledge and the changing nature of the teaching profession*. OECD Publishing.
- Han, S. (2018). Who expects to become a teacher? The role of educational accountability policies in international perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 75, 141–152. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.06.012>
- Harris, A. (2004). Distributed leadership and school improvement. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 32(1), 11–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143204039297>
- Heffernan, A., Longmuir, F., Bright, D., & Kim, M. (2019). *Perceptions of teachers and teaching in Australia*. Monash University. <https://www.monash.edu/perceptions-of-teaching/docs/Perceptions-of-Teachers-and-Teaching-in-Australia-report-Nov-2019.pdf>
- Helms-Lorenz, M., & Maulana, R. (2016). Influencing the psychological well-being of beginning teachers across three years of teaching: Self-efficacy, stress causes, job tension and job discontent. *Educational Psychology*, 36(3), 569–594. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2015.1008403>
- Hillman, K., O’Grady, E., Rodrigues, S., Schmid, M., & Thomson, S. (2023). *Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) 2021: Australian national report*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Ingersoll, R., & Strong, M. (2011). The impact of induction and mentoring programs for beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(2), 201–233. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654311403323>
- Kraft, M., D. Blazar and D. Hogan (2018), “The Effect of Teacher Coaching on Instruction and Achievement: A Meta-Analysis of the Causal Evidence”, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 88/4, pp. 547-588. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654318759268>
- Longmuir, F., Gallo Cordoba, B., Phillips, M., Allen, K.-A., & Moharami, M. (2022). *Australian teachers’ perceptions of their work in 2022*. Monash University. <https://doi.org/10.26180/21212891>
- Maulana, R., Helms-Lorenz, M., & van de Grift, W. (2015). A longitudinal study of induction on the acceleration of growth in teaching quality of beginning teachers through the eyes of their

- students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 51, 225–245.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.07.003>
- Maulana, R., Kington, A., & Ko, J. (2023). Editorial: Effective teaching: Measurements, antecedents, correlates, characteristics, and links with outcomes. *Frontiers in Education*, 8.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/educ.2023.1170854>
- Muijs, D., & Harris, A. (2006). Teacher led school improvement: Teacher leadership in the UK. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 961–972.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.010>
- Myrick Short, P., Greer, J. T., & Melvin, W. M. (1994). Creating empowered schools: Lessons in change. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32(4), 38–52.
- Nguyen, T. D., Pietsch, M., & Gümüş, S. (2021). Collective teacher efficacy and teacher self-efficacy: Similarities and differences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 108, 103510.
- Nie, Y., Tan, G., Liao, A., Lau, S., & Chua, B. (2012). The roles of teacher efficacy in instructional innovation: Its predictive relation to constructivist and didactic instruction. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 11(3), 191–206.
- Nilsen, T., & Gustafsson, J.-E. (2016). *Teacher quality, instructional quality and student outcomes: Relationships across countries, cohorts and time*. IEA Research for Education, Vol. 2. Springer.
- Nwoko, J., Anderson, E., Adegboye, O., Malau-Aduli, A., & Malau-Aduli, B. (2024). Navigating teachers' occupational well-being in the tides of classroom processes and school structure. *Education Sciences*, 14(11), 1225. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci14111225>
- OECD. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2010). *Educating teachers for diversity: Meeting the challenge*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2013). *Synergies for better learning: An international perspective on evaluation and assessment*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2014). *TALIS 2013 results: An international perspective on teaching and learning*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2017a). *Starting strong V: Transitions from early childhood education and care to primary education*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2017b). *Education at a glance 2017: OECD indicators*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2017c). *TALIS 2018 conceptual framework*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2018). *Preparing our youth for an inclusive and sustainable world: The OECD PISA global competence framework*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2019a). *TALIS 2018 results (Volume I): Teachers and school leaders as lifelong learners*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2019b). *TALIS 2018 results (Volume II): Teachers and school leaders as valued professionals*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2019c). *Education at a glance 2019: OECD indicators*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2020a). *TALIS 2018 results (Volume III): Teachers and school leaders as valued professionals in schools*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2020b). *PISA 2018 results (Volume VI): Are students ready to thrive in an interconnected world?* OECD Publishing.

- OECD. (2021a). *21st-century readers: Developing literacy skills in a digital world (Volume III, PISA 2018 results)*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2021b). *Teachers and leaders in vocational education and training*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2021c). *Education at a glance 2021: OECD indicators*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2023). *TALIS 2024 technical standards*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2025a). *Results from TALIS 2024: The State of Teaching*, TALIS, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/10.1787/90df6235-en>
- OECD. (2025b). *TALIS 2024 conceptual framework*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2025c). *TALIS 2024 General Pedagogical Knowledge assessment framework*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD (forthcoming), *Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2024 Technical Report*, OECD Publishing, Paris.
- Oppi, P., Eisenschmidt, E., & Jogi, A. (2022). Teacher’s readiness for leadership – A strategy for school improvement. *School Leadership & Management*, 41(1), 79–103. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13632434.2021.2016685>
- Papay, J. et al. (2020), “Learning Job Skills from Colleagues at Work: Evidence from a Field Experiment Using Teacher Performance Data”, *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, Vol. 12/1, pp. 359–388. <https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.20170709>
- Patil, R. (2023). Rethinking Teacher Retention Policy: Empowering Australian Teachers Through Autonomy, Collaboration and Career Progression. *The International Journal of Community and Social Development*, 5(3), 306–323. <https://doi.org/10.1177/25166026231198300>
- Rahimi, M., & Arnold, B. (2025). Understanding Australia’s teacher shortage: The importance of psychosocial working conditions to turnover intentions. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 52, 383–409. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-024-00720-5>
- Schleicher, A. (2018). *Valuing our teachers and raising their status: How communities can help*. International Summit on the Teaching Profession. OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264292697-en>
- Schott, C., van Roekel, H., & Tummers, L. G. (2020). Teacher leadership: A systematic review, methodological quality assessment and conceptual framework. *Educational Research Review*, 31, 100352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2020.100352>
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.57.1.j463w79r56455411>
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2014). Teacher self-efficacy and perceived autonomy: Relations with teacher engagement, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. *Psychological Reports*, 114(1), 68–77. <https://doi.org/10.2466/14.02.PR0.114k14w0>
- Smale-Jacobse, A. E., Meijer, A., Helms-Lorenz, M., & Maulana, R. (2019). Differentiated instruction in secondary education: A systematic review of research evidence. *Educational Research Review*, 27, 100–118.
- Smith, T. M., & Ingersoll, R. M. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(3), 681–714.
- Soini, T., Pyhältö, K., & Pietarinen, J. (2010). Pedagogical well-being: Reflecting learning and well-being in teachers’ work. *Teachers and Teaching*, 16(6), 735–751.
- Spilt, J. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., & Thijs, J. T. (2011). Teacher wellbeing: The importance of teacher–student relationships. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(4), 457–477.

- Stearns, E., Bottía, M. C., Davalos, E., Mickelson, R. A., Moller, S., & Valentino, L. (2016). Demographic characteristics of STEM career aspirations. *Social Forces*, 94(2), 691–721.
- Stroetinga, M., Leeman, Y., & Veugelers, W. (2018). Understanding the moral role of teachers: A review of literature on moral agency. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 48(4), 479–495.
- Sykes, G., Schneider, B., & Plank, D. N. (2012). *Handbook of education policy research*. Routledge.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(7), 783–805.
- Thomson, S., DiFrancesca, D., Carrier, J., & Lee, L. (2016). *Teaching practices in Australian schools*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Thomson, S., & Hillman, K. (2019). *The Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2018: Australian report*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Tigchelaar, A., Brouwer, N., & Vermunt, J. D. (2010). Tailor-made: Towards a pedagogy for educating second-career teachers. *Educational Research Review*, 5(2), 164–183.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2015). *Teaching for excellence in academically diverse classrooms*. Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2017). *How to differentiate instruction in academically diverse classrooms* (3rd ed.). ASCD.
- Toropova, A., Johansson, S., & Myrberg, E. (2019). Teacher job satisfaction: The importance of school working conditions and teacher characteristics. *Educational Review*, 73(1), 71–97.
- Topp, C. W., Østergaard, S. D., Søndergaard, S., & Bech, P. (2015). The WHO-5 well-being index: A systematic review of the literature. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 84(3), 167–176.
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2012). *International Standard Classification of Education 2011*. UNESCO, Montréal. <http://dx.doi.org/10.15220/978-92-9189-123-8-en>
- Wenner, J. and T. Campbell (2016), “The theoretical and empirical basis of teacher leadership”, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 87/1, pp. 134-171. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654316653478>
- Wernert, N., Thomson, S., Rodrigues, S., & O’Grady, E. (2025). *Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) 2023: Australian national report*. Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Woessmann, L. (2016). The importance of school systems: Evidence from international differences in student achievement. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 30(3), 3–31.
- World Health Organization. (2024). The World Health Organization–Five Well-Being Index (WHO-5) (WHO/UCN/MSD/MHE/2024.1). World Health Organization. <https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/WHO-UCN-MSD-MHE-2024.01>

Appendix

Country notes

There are five territories participating in TALIS 2024. They are italicised in figures and referred to in the following manner:

- ❖ The province of Alberta, in Canada, is referred to as Alberta (Canada).
- ❖ The Flemish Community of Belgium is referred to as Flemish Comm. (Belgium).
- ❖ The French Community of Belgium is referred to as French Comm. (Belgium).
- ❖ Kosovo.
- ❖ The municipality of Shanghai, in the People's Republic of China, is referred to as Shanghai (China).

In tables, countries and territories are sorted in alphabetical order. There are two exceptions:

- ❖ The Flemish Community and the French Community of Belgium are indented, italicised, and appear below Belgium for ISCED2 teacher and principal data. The French Community of Belgium is indented, italicised, and appears below Belgium for ISCED 1 teacher and principal data.
- ❖ Countries and territories that did not meet the TALIS technical standards with respect to participation rates are placed at the bottom of the tables by ISCED level.

Cyprus did not participate directly in TALIS 2024: its data collection and processing were managed exclusively by the international research consortium. Its data are reported in the result tables listed in Annex C. Two notes are added to the information on Cyprus:

- ❖ Note by Türkiye: The information in this document with reference to 'Cyprus' relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Türkiye recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Türkiye shall preserve its position concerning the 'Cyprus issue'.
- ❖ Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union: The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Türkiye. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

One note is added to the information on the data for Israel:

- ❖ The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem, and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

The OCED international report notes with regards to the first mention of Kosovo:

- ❖ This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244/99 and the Advisory Opinion of the International Court of Justice on Kosovo's declaration of independence.