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# PRIMARY TEACHERS: INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION, CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Olwen McNamara and Rosemary Webb
University of Manchester

Mark Brundrett
Liverpool John Moores University

Esmée Fairbairn FOUNDATION

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE
Faculty of Education

# PRIMARY TEACHERS:
## initial teacher education, continuing professional development and school leadership development

Primary Review Research Survey 6/3

## Olwen McNamara, Mark Brundrett and Rosemary Webb

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This is one of a series of 32 interim reports from the Primary Review, an independent enquiry into the condition and future of primary education in England. The Review was launched in October 2006 and will publish its final report in late 2008.

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A briefing which summarises key issues from this report has also been published.  The report and briefing are available electronically at the Primary Review website: **www.primaryreview.org.uk**. The website also contains Information about other reports in this series and about the Primary Review as a whole.

We want this report to contribute to the debate about English primary education, so we would welcome readers' comments on anything it contains. Please write to: **evidence@primaryreview.org.uk**.

The report forms part of the Review's research survey strand, which consists of thirty specially-commissioned surveys of published research and other evidence relating to the Review's ten themes. The themes and reports are listed in Appendices 1 and 3.

This survey relates to Primary Review theme 6, **Settings and Professionals**.

**The authors: Olwen McNarama is Professor of Teacher Education and Development at the School of Education, University of Manchester. Mark Brundrett is Professor of Educational Research and Head of the Centre for Research and Evaluation in the Faculty of Education, Community and Leisure at Liverpool John Moores University. Rosemary Webb is Professorial Research Fellow at the School of Education, University of Manchester.**

# PRIMARY TEACHERS:
## INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION,
## CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
## AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

## 1      INTRODUCTION

This survey of the teacher education and training in England has been structured into three sections covering the key areas of initial teacher education (ITE), continuing professional development (CPD) and the training of education leaders.  The final section looks across these and draws out some common themes. Each of the authors has chosen to work on one of the three areas reviewed and contributed to the analysis which gave rise to the themes and issues identified in the concluding comments. The survey covers an area so extensive as to make systematic review an unrealistic prospect; whole books, indeed entire series of books, have been written on each of these individual strands. The survey thus does not purport to be exhaustive but will present an overview of the professional learning landscape.

Even within these parameters the challenge faced by the authors in mapping out the particular area in which they were working was considerable. Firstly, in terms of identifying appropriate navigational tools that would render the accounts accessible, not only to 'insiders' but also to a generalist audience with an interest in education. Secondly, in terms of identifying aspects of broad relevance within the field that could be meaningfully and coherently addressed in such a short treatise. Such constraints and the disparate nature of the areas meant that the authors each took a different approach, as is explained in the individual sections, to delineating the breadth and scope of their enquiry. However, having determined the parameters of the enquiry, carrying out the literature review itself brought its own challenges.

The main data sources that have been drawn on include academic research and professional literature together with official reports, databases and electronic publications. Searches certainly revealed a wealth of research evidence. However, obtaining a coherent overview from it was often challenging: none more so than in the case of evaluating the effectiveness and outcomes of CPD for primary teachers. For example, surprisingly in these days of financial accountability, no single organisation is responsible for publishing and collating such data in order that policy decisions can be informed and cost effectiveness evaluated. Bolam (2000) is critical of the inadequate knowledge base on CPD resulting in a lack of facts about 'the scale of provision, who does what, costs, numbers on courses, how the considerable sums now spent on CPD are actually spent and how value-for-money is measured' (2000: 275). The evidence base is very diverse and fragmented, and usually grounded in individual self-report which generally relates solely to the quality of the CPD experience. Much of the research occurs summatively, after the CPD experience, rather than formatively, and evaluation processes are not sophisticated enough to track multiple outcomes, both intended and unintended, and different levels of impact. Where outcomes are reported, the relationship between teacher, school and pupil benefits are not unpicked. Additionally, surveys and larger studies frequently focus on teachers in all phases of mainstream and special schooling and inadequately differentiate between them. Similar themes emerge in respect of ITE, where the lack of a systemic, robust and cumulative evidence base means we are as yet unable to answer many questions about the effectiveness of our teacher education programmes – questions such as those posed in the United States by Wilson *et al*. (2001) about: the content of course and instructional methods best suited for

particular aspects of teacher preparation; the relative contributions of centre based learning, assignments and teaching experience to trainees' progress; the importance of their particular school experience contexts on the outcome of their practice; and the importance of consistency between school and centre based training. A data-rich environment in the US, supported by initiatives such as 'no child left behind', means that a number of high profile research programmes are beginning to attempt to answer such questions. The evidence base relating to primary leadership programmes is, surprisingly, little more comprehensive. Raw data on completion of leadership programmes was released by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) on request but, beyond gender and phase, individual profile detail was not available to support a more sophisticated level of analysis. Furthermore, phase categories extended only to 'primary' and 'secondary'; no data was available for the 'special education' sector. Yet such fundamental information is vital to support strategic workforce planning, at a time when the age profile in special education is such that, overall, 60 per cent of classroom teachers are over 45 years of age and 40 per cent of these are over 50. Additionally, the career progress to headship positions of successful completers of the, soon to be mandatory, National Professional Qualification for Headship is not tracked, meaning the opportunity to gather systematic data on gendered and ethnic patterns in leadership appointments is lost.

## 2        INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION (ITE)

### 2.1        Introduction

The last two decades have been a period of sustained and increasingly radical change to the structure, content and regulation of primary ITE in England. The utilitarian, practical and skills-based nature of the reforms reflects not just a rethink of the theory/practice ratio and the way the process of development and assessment of academic and professional competences are conceptualised, but a redefinition of 'good' practice in ITE. In this section of the survey we locate primary teacher education in its historical context and examine the strategic, political, and in some cases ideological, drivers of its centralisation within the compass of political control. We examine the sector's relationship with its accrediting bodies and consider the nature of the regulation and inspection regimes. We map the impact of these central influences on the sector over the last twenty years, in respect of its 'core principle' partnership and the profiles and characteristics of the various training routes. Finally, we look at succession planning in the teacher education workforce.

In setting these parameters we realise that many important debates, particularly subject specific debates, are not addressed. Debates in respect of trainees' classroom performance and its relation to subject knowledge and pedagogic content knowledge are well documented and analysed in mathematics (for example Goulding *et al.* 2002; Rowland *et al.* 2005), science (for example Heywood 2005) and English (for example Twistleton 2000; Poulson 2003). Here we restrict ourselves to note of research in core subject areas, but much valuable work is, of course, undertaken in respect of foundation subjects – their absence reflects pragmatism, in response to the sheer volume and impossibility of being inclusive, but is also perhaps symbolic of their current positioning in the ITE curriculum. Other debates, such as the appropriate curriculum balance between core and foundation subjects and the appropriateness of the primary generalist/specialist model (for example Thornton 1998), are highly relevant to ITE, but are located within primary education itself and will be covered elsewhere in this thematic series. The general point to note, perhaps, is how policy over the last twenty years has been mobilised to align ITE with the primary curriculum and to advance the reform agenda. In acknowledging so many limitations, this section of the survey mirrors a key challenge facing the sector as a whole; namely that the sheer weight

and intrusiveness of policy requirements and accountability have rendered many fundamentally important debates about ITE as peripheral. We will begin by tracing the historical trends that have led to such a positioning.

## 2.2    Historical context

Alexander (1984) documented the main developments in teacher education in the two decades following the seminal Robbins Report (1963) and identified two defining and still current influences on the sector: the culture and organisation of the teacher education institutions, and their relationship with the validating body. An even longer-term historical perspective (1876-1996) makes it clear that these comparatively contemporary influences have historical precedents (Gardener & Cunningham 1998). The 1963 Robbins Report instituted the four year concurrent BEd; prior to this the main route into primary teaching was the recently extended three year certificate course, while the degree and postgraduate certification was barely a player.

Subsequent to this the James Report (DES 1972) was also a significant influence on the sector in respect of the structure and validation of teacher education courses. It recommended structural reform of the BEd, endorsed both cyclic and consecutive training, and entitled colleges to seek validation under the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) regulations; prior to this, universities had validated all teacher education courses and overseen area training organisations. The post-war baby–boom had resulted in a teacher supply crisis which augured a dramatic expansion of postgraduate training. The expansion was largely situated in colleges of education, and brought cultural as well as purely volume changes. Before 1970 the postgraduate training routes (Diploma in Ed / PGCE) were largely run by university departments of education and were traditionally undertaken by the 10 per cent of teachers intending to enter the grammar or independent school sectors (Alexander 1984). The expansion was followed in the 1970s by the beginning of a contraction of the market, although the introduction of mandatory training for graduates teaching in primary (in 1969) and secondary non-shortage subjects (in 1973) mitigated the effect, to a degree.

The raft of institutional mergers of specialist teacher training colleges into polytechnics and universities during the 1970s/1980s and into the 1990s was in part a pragmatic response to the downsizing of the sector, but had been an ambition signalled in McNair's (1944) recommendations. The loss of autonomy of the colleges was balanced against what they, misguidedly as it transpires, thought to be increased protection against early centralising tendencies shown by the government. Yet establishing their niche, in terms of specialist knowledge, within the complex, internally competitive, and somewhat dismissive, academy was not easy. Initially accomplished through the practical application of the foundation disciplines of psychology, philosophy, history and sociology, from thence teacher education's warrant moved to practical professional knowledge (Alexander 1984; Nixon *et al*. 2000; Gardener & Cunningham 1998). The mergers, however, often proved a culture shock and occasionally 'traumatic' (Kirk 1999). 'Contradictions' and 'confusions' were reported as the closure programme, orchestrated by the National Advisory Board, proceeded. A leader in the *Times Educational Supplement* in 1985 (1st November) reflected, 'It's impossible not to feel somewhat sorry for teacher training institutions, caught up as they are in a double pincer movement between the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE), the National Advisory Board (NAB), HM Inspectorate and Sir Keith Joseph. Troubles, these days certainly never come singly.' Things were, however, to get worse before they got better!

## 2.3    Politicisation

The establishment in 1984 of the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) (DES Circular 3/84, DES 1984) was a key watershed for ITE introducing, as it did, the notion

of *accreditation* for the first time. The two decades since have been a period of sustained and increasingly radical reform as successive governments have progressively increased control mechanisms and regulatory prescription in respect of processes and curriculum (Furlong *et al.* 2000; Mahony & Hextall 2000; Whitty 2002). Perry (1985: 3-4), Chief Inspector of Schools and HMI assessor on CATE, claimed its functions were: 'to raise the academic standards and to raise the level of professionalism and professional partnership'. She invoked the metaphor of a 'clinical' model of training, later taken up by Hargreaves (1996) in a controversial Annual TTA Lecture. Others have ascribed the move of ITE from relative obscurity to strategic significance to an assumption on the part of the successive governments that ITE would be an effective mechanism for steering changes in the school curriculum and transforming teacher professionalism (Furlong 2001, 2005).

Alexander (1984) identifies the appointment of Keith Joseph as Secretary of State for Education in 1976, and the availability of increased evidence from HMI surveys of the impact of training on the competence of new teachers, as the catalysts for central government interest in the sector. A corpus of inspection evidence (HMI 1982, 1983, 1987, 1988a, 1988b, 1991a) indicated that all was not well: new primary teachers emerged as more competent in teaching skills than their secondary colleagues, but less so in curricular areas. Twenty five per cent of new primary teachers were deemed to demonstrate insecurity in subject teaching (HMI 1982), although whether in academic knowledge or its application in the classroom was not clear. Yet under the direction of the government, CATE sought to make recommendations about the content of teacher education courses, the links between subject study and the needs of schools, and the academic background of candidates suitable to be admitted into training (Reid 1985).

CATE importantly sought to create more practically-based teacher education, which later of course was to develop into full partnership with schools. Circular 24/89 (DES 1989a) required the creation of Professional Committees to oversee course management, and prescribed minimum lengths of school-based training for different courses: 100 days for all undergraduate trainees and 75 days for postgraduate students. This target was met by all courses by 1991, and exceeded by some (Furlong *et al.* 2000); a fact also noted in the HMI (1991b) study of school-based training. This study also recommended a 'measured' increase in the extent and formality of partnership in school-based training, whilst expressing caution about capacity and resourcing – particularly in the primary sector. 'School-based training' and 'partnership' were now the new mantras, promoted in 1992 by Kenneth Clarke, Secretary of State for Education, at the North of England (Southport) Conference. (Secondary) Circular 9/92 and (primary) Circular 14/93 (DFE 1992, 1993a, 1993b) rapidly followed, increasing the school-based component of primary courses to 90 days for postgraduate and 160 days for four-year undergraduate, and prescribing a competences-based assessment model of subject knowledge and classroom skills. The combined effect of these modifications increased the level of intensification of courses, rendered them over-full, and what had previously been key aspects of curricular and professional development were squeezed out (Furlong *et al.* 2000: 103). The new arrangements were condemned by others variously as 'political rape' (Gilroy 1992), 'time constrained', 'lacking flexibility', diluting the intellectual and professional foundation of ITE (Wilkin 1996; Bines 1994; Bines & Welton 1995) and 'eroding rigour' – largely against international trends in teacher education (Holyoake 1993; Judge *et al.* 1994). An additional impact of the changes was the apportioning of funds between higher education institutions and schools in respect of the latter's greatly increased role, which in turn increased financial pressures (Gilroy 1998). This change in funding caused a marked casualisation of the workforce, with the introduction of more part-time staffing and also, indirectly, increased pressure on the delivery of courses (Taylor 2000).

There was also a drive to diversify routes into teaching through establishing school-based Licensed and Articled Teacher Schemes (later to be renamed and relaunched under the umbrella Employment Based Routes) and School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) (DES 1989b; DFE 1993c). However, Modes of Teacher Education (MOTE), the first national survey of training provision, showed that in 1991 99 per cent of student teachers were still trained on traditional programmes offered through higher education institutions (HEIs) (Barrett *et al*. 1992), and even a decade later the overall percentage of teachers trained through HEIs had not changed significantly (Furlong *et al*. 2000). Meanwhile, traditional provision itself was developing progressively more complex variants, designed to attract a wider range of candidates: three- and four-year primary undergraduate degrees (with QTS); one year PGCE for primary, with part-time and flexible variants.

Indications of further drastic reform came in the 1994 Education Act (DFE 1993b), with the establishment of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) as a successor to CATE. The move from 'Council' to 'Agency' signalled a change in governance and the, now formal, redesignation of 'Teacher Education' as 'Teacher Training' augured a profound ideological shift (Wilkin 1999). The proposals attracted much opposition from all quarters (Edwards 1994), not least the retiring Chairman of CATE (Taylor 1993). The TTA's brief, more wide-ranging than that of CATE, was to include teacher recruitment, quality control/assurance and funding, and accreditation of training routes. Its central remit extended only to England, and it is arguable at this point that the three devolved administrations began to diverge significantly in their teacher training provision. The Agency survived its first turbulent years, a change of government in 1997 and the establishment of a General Teaching Council in England (GTCE). It was even allowed to broaden its scope to include control of professional development. Feelings of 'alienation' and 'hostility' in the sector towards the TTA (Kane 1998, cited in Gilroy 1998) came to a head, however, when an impending teacher supply crisis and a national debacle over TTA's ill-conceived in-service education policy meant that, at its Quinquennial Review (DfEE 1999a) in 1999, TTA's portfolio was refocused on initial training and induction. A decade after its inception, however, its fortunes were to change again dramatically when the TTA was re-launched in the 2005 Education Act as the TDA (Training and Development Agency *for Schools*); its purpose being to raise children's standards of achievement and to promote their wellbeing by improving the training and development of the whole school workforce. ITE did not feature in the DfES 5 year strategy (DfES 2004), and in its 2002 counterpart (DfES 2002c) HE was not listed as a partner in the drive for standards. ITE was, it seems, taking a back seat again. As Furlong (2005: 132) reflected, 'the last 30 years may have been uncomfortable for many of us, but at least there was an arena in which to engage […] the end of the era is to be regretted'.

## 2.4    Regulation

The TTA's quality assurance remit extended not only to assessment but also to curriculum content, which now for the first time had become politicised and regulated.  The most radical and comprehensive change with regard to the practice of training providers was heralded by the publication of the National Curriculum for Initial Teacher Training (DfEE 1997, Circular 10/97; revised DfEE 1998a, Circular 4/98) which prescribed requirements for courses including length, partnership arrangements, selection of trainees, and quality assurance and assessment processes. A thorough analysis of the procedures and reporting of the 1997 consultation process left Hextall and Mahony (2000: 323) 'concerned about the state of democracy in England'. Central to Circular 4/98 were the Standards for the Award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), which related to: trainees' knowledge and understanding; planning, teaching and classroom management; monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability in relation to subject knowledge, teaching studies and

monitoring and assessment; and other professional requirements. Subject to much critique (for example, Richards *et al*. 1998), it set down in unimaginable detail around 100 standards.

In addition to these standards, Circular 4/98 also specified extensive knowledge (equivalent to at least National Curriculum level 7) in core subjects and ICT. These subject knowledge demands focused the curriculum on core areas (particularly English and mathematics – for undergraduate degrees even hours of study time were prescribed) but still maintained the requirement for at least one specialist subject (with subject knowledge expectation equivalent to A level). This drive was linked to impending changes in the primary curriculum resulting from the introduction of the National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies in 1998 and 1999, respectively, and the revised National Curriculum in 2000 (Wyse 2003; Brown & McNamara 2005). The notion was to steer and support curriculum change through ITE (Furlong 2005), informed by TTA funded research in the teaching of literacy (Medwell *et al*. 1998) and numeracy (Askew *et al*. 1997). Parallel to these developments, the (post-National Curriculum) on-going debate over whether to introduce subject specialist teaching into upper primary education had rapidly grown in momentum. The weight of opinion for once appeared to favour the status quo in that, since neither 'generalist' nor 'specialist' systems had 'a monopoly on effectiveness', there was not convincing enough evidence to warrant change (see Thorton 1998). Subject knowledge demands were, however, further increased in 2001 by the introduction of QTS skills tests in mathematics, English and ICT. These were controversial not least because they focused on professional knowledge, such as interpretation of data, rather than curricular knowledge; and there was evidence to suggest that certain minority constituencies were disadvantaged (Hextall *et al*. 2001; TTA 2002/06).

Circular 4/98 was superseded in 2002 by the slim line 'Qualifying to Teach' (DfES 2002a) and much weightier handbook of guidelines (DfES 2002b). The government having now explicitly abandoned attempts to prescribe pedagogy and detail subject knowledge, the new framework (containing about 40 QTS standards) was much more positively received by the profession (Simco & Wilson 2002). Its explicit focus on professional values and practice, informed by the GTCE Code of Professional Values and Practice (GTCE 2002, 2004), was much appreciated. Although addressing curriculum capacity problems, less well received by some was the fact that the requirements no longer necessitated providers to offer a subject specialism or full curriculum coverage (either history or geography, and either art and design or design and technology, were made optional). Inspection evidence indicates that primary provision continued to place strong emphasis on the teaching of core subjects, leaving little time for foundation subjects – particularly on the increasingly popular postgraduate routes (HMI 2005). The next manifestation of the Standards (DfES 2007), a refinement of the 2002 version foregrounding the Every Child Matters (ECM) agenda, reduced the number of standards still further (to 33) and, significantly, placed it within a coherent framework of National Professional Standards first mooted ten years earlier. It also increased flexibility in training pathways (now to be two or more of the 3-5, 5-7, 7-9, 9-11 age phases), including reintroducing the 'upper / lower junior' divide that had been lost in the Key Stage focused model of the previous two manifestations.

If policy has been used in the last ten years to refocus the content of ITE to engage with subject knowledge as it is situated in primary classrooms and to more closely align with, and steer changes in, the primary curriculum, then the inspection regime has been mobilised to ensure that providers are 'on message'.

## 2.5 Inspection

The inspection of the quality of training provision, previously managed by Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI), was brought under the auspices of the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) in the 1994 Education Act. The first 'new style' inspection of all 67 primary

providers was undertaken in 1995-96 and unofficially became known as the 'Primary Sweep'. A summary report of the strengths and weaknesses of overall provision was never published, and it was left to the sector to draw its own conclusions from the providers' reports. Furlong and Kane (1996) conducted just such an analysis on behalf of UCET and concluded that the sector was generally in good health. There was no evidence to indicate undue weakness in the teaching of reading or numeracy, the two foci for the 'primary follow up survey' (1996 -1998) of the, now 72, primary training providers (Ofsted 1999).

These first inspections were a considerable cultural shock to the community and judgements were fiercely contested. A system of grading, 1 (very good) to 4 (non-compliant), was used to measure standards, low grades incurred real penalties in terms of reduced allocation of training places and even worse non-compliance was notified at institution rather than course level. Campbell and Husbands (2000), in a case study of two primary inspections (1996-97 and 1997-98) at Warwick University, contrasted the 'informed connoisseurship' model, formerly deployed by HMI, to the new 'technicist' model adopted by Ofsted. The move from HMI to Ofsted heralded an era of 'surveillance and control' that professed greater transparency of criteria through the Framework for Assessment of Quality and Standards, and had the potential to lead to greater inter-inspector reliability of assessment, and greater consistency of judgements across contexts. Lack of confidence was, however, expressed in the piloting, evaluation and rigour of the evidence–base for the criteria statements (the 1997-98 version contained about 160) (Gilroy & Wilcox 1997) and the validity and reliability of the process (Graham & Nabb 1999).

A subsequent round of 90 primary inspections (1998-2002) coincided with the introduction of the National Strategies and focused on English and mathematics. The inspections concluded that, over the four years, significant improvement had occurred in all provision, including SCITTs – although on the whole they performed less well than HEI providers (Ofsted 2003a). Evidence of this improvement is supported by data from inspection reports of NQTs during the years 1997 to 2001 (HMI 2002). The burden and high-stakes nature of inspection led to the Parliamentary Select Committee on Education and Employment recommending the introduction, as a priority, of a four year cycle with differentiated light-touch provision (HoC 1999). The latter, with a focus on management and quality assurance, was introduced in the 2002-2005 Framework of Inspection (Ofsted 2002b); although the short inspection was not felt by providers to be markedly less onerous (UCET 2007). In 2006-07, under the 2005-2011 framework (Ofsted 2005b), just under half of primary providers inspected were deemed to be 'outstanding' in management and quality assurance (Ofsted 2007a). Primary SCITTs were still performing less well than their HEI provider counterparts (2005-2007) in terms of Ofsted gradings and entry qualifications, although trainees fared better considerably in terms of employment (Smithers & Robinson 2007). Evidence from the annual survey of NQTs supports the perception of continuous improvement, with some 88 per cent of the NQTs (n = 11,000) rating their training good or very good. In the primary sector, undergraduate routes were rated more highly (91 per cent good or very good) against postgraduate (84 per cent). Evaluation of assessment/feedback and support/guidance were also at a 5-year high, with 82 per cent and 80 per cent respectively rating the provision good or very good (TTA 2007).

By contrast to the inspection of traditional provision, the rapidly increasing Employment Based Route into teaching (now renamed Employment Based Initial Teacher Training: EBITT) has, since its (re)launch in 1998, been subject only to survey inspections. The most recent (2003–06) concluded that the management of training had improved considerably over the period but that there was room for further improvement. Primary provision was judged to be consistently better than secondary, but was found in the majority of cases not to offer good enough subject training (Ofsted 2005a, 2006a, 2007b) and generally there was an

underlying weakness in the quality of mentoring (Brookes 2005). Primary NQTs trained on employment-based routes concurred with this evaluation, with 87 per cent rating it good or very good against 83 per cent for their secondary counterparts (TDA 2007). Half of the lessons observed in 2005/06 in EBITT inspections displayed strengths but 17 per cent still had significant weaknesses (Ofsted 2007b).

Inspection grades are now systematically and transparently being used to inform the allocation of training places for traditional provision, but ideological drivers can be deduced from the tolerance of the repeatedly less than favourable inspection reports on EBITT provision since its inception. The combined weight of the QTS standards and the Ofsted framework functioned as a quality assurance instrument for the assessment of training and trainees, and the weight of inspection and evaluation evidence cited above indicates an increase in quality measures. Mahony and Hextall (2000), however, reported that very few providers thought that the overall quality of their courses had improved and generally felt the whole assessment portfolio was a 'bureaucratic nightmare'. Reports indicate that workload for the new short inspections, rather than lessen significantly, have shifted to fall more intensively onto course leaders (UCET 2007). That inspection is still being strategically planned to focus the primary sector on particular educational enterprises and nationally defined goals is evidenced by the survey inspection in September 2007 of initial training in early reading on the quality and impact of training in phonic work as reflected in the renewed Primary Framework, subsequent to the publication of the Rose Review (2006).

## 2.6    Partnership

The 1944 McNair report endorsed school-based training and, encouraged by CATE in the late 1980s, providers had voluntarily made considerable strides in the sector towards developing such formal models; the Oxford Internship Scheme (Benton 1990) was one such ground-breaking initiative. As the 'school-based training' evolved into 'partnership', a review of contemporary literature characterised it as a 'problematic concept' (Brown *et al*. 1993) and a 'slippery and imprecise word' (Crozier *et al*. 1990). It was soon to become much less 'imprecise' but, despite substantial international interest (Brisard *et al*. 2005), England and Wales still remain the only countries where 'partnership has become institutionalised at a national level as a core principle of provision' (Furlong *et al*. 2006a: 33).

Once partnership was mandated in legislation (DFE Circular 14/93, 1993a) and moved into its second era in 1993 many providers challenged what they saw as the government's simplistic depiction of the trainee developing practical skills in schools and subject knowledge in the university (for example, Edwards 1995). They argued that the changes had reinforced 'hierarchical relations' and the 'demarcation of practice in schools from educational theory' (Dunne *et al*. 1996: 41). Taylor (2000: 55) speculated that 'specification of who does what, is less important than the existence of shared values based as far as possible on a common knowledge base'. However, he also expressed concern at the lack of acknowledgement of the additional costs or the equity of the relative distribution of resources, control, quality assurance, penalties and accountability.

Furlong *et al*. (2000) concluded that who actually did what, with regard to the substantive content of training courses, had changed little as a result of the introduction of the new arrangements. They identified a continuum in partnership models that extended from the HEI-led to the entirely school-led (SCITTS); they argued that neither extreme were truly partnerships. They characterised ideal typical models of ITE partnerships as either 'complementary' or 'collaborative'. The former were a 'pragmatic response to limited resources' in which the partners had separate roles and responsibilities; the latter partners were deemed to have different, but equally legitimate, bodies of knowledge – the Oxford Internship Scheme was posited as a classic example (Furlong *et al*. 2000: 78). Furlong *et al*.

reported that in reality the most common model of partnership throughout the 1990s was still largely HEI-led, with contributions from school-based colleagues. There was little evidence in the literature that primary schools in particular harboured a desire to establish more independent school-based primary ITE (for example the infamous government proposals for a 'Mum's Army' scheme (DFE 1993c)) (Williams & Soares 2002). However, there was an interest in restructuring the present arrangements to give primary schools a more significant role (Hannan 1995). The introduction of school-led SCITT provision and employment-based routes in the mid 1990s, however, opened up this possibility and in the process undermined the notion of partnership even further as collaboration with HEI stakeholders was not a requirement. Brisard *et al.* (2005: 50), comparing England to other parts of the UK in a review of partnership commissioned by the General Teaching Council (Scotland), suggest that the 'detachment of some forms of entry away from the university sector perhaps reflects the relatively low standing of teaching within the English culture'. Furlong *et al.* (2006a: 41) argue that the key strength of the HEI partners 'is theorising the epistemological and pedagogical underpinnings of training', so in their absence '(the) complexity and contestability of professional knowledge is no longer seen to be at the heart of what partnership is about; professional knowledge becomes simplified… it is essentially about contemporary practice in school'.

Evidence of what was actually happening in school-based training during the first decade of formal partnership is somewhat limited in scope. A TTA funded EPPI Review (1992-2003) on school-based partnership practices supporting trainee teachers' professional development (Moyles & Stuart 2003) revealed a dearth of evidence across the UK, and only two studies (both, as it happens, primary) were found to be appropriate for in-depth reporting (Mills (1995) and Baird (1996)). The review concluded that trainee development was supported by regular constructive feedback; oral feedback offering a chance for constructive dialogue on issues of immediate concern or practical relevance; and written feedback linked to more long term development objectives. Professional skills supported and developed on paired school placements found that significant drivers of professional learning included increased opportunities for developing communication and teamwork skills, a theme further developed by Smith (2004).

Of the burgeoning body of research literature into partnership that did emerge in the 1990s around school-based partners' roles, the vast majority focused on professional and affective dimensions of the mentoring, particularly mentors' perceptions, views and beliefs and reported on individuals / individual institutions (Moyles & Stuart 2003). The use of mentoring as a vehicle to encourage reflective practice featured largely in the literature in the early 1990s, although higher levels of reflection was generally held to be a much more productive exercise for mentors than trainees (McIntyre 1993; McNally *et al.* 1994). Moyles *et al.* (1998), conducting a review of primary mentoring for the Association of Teachers and Lecturers, concluded that professional, interpersonal and communication skills were important and that guidelines for selection and training of mentors were necessary. Primary school-based mentors tended to emphasise classroom management and professional issues and did not provide quality subject-specific feedback to support trainees in applying subject knowledge effectively (Brown & McNamara 2005; Ofsted 2007a). Mentors were also found not to take sufficient account of adult learning needs and not to understand the principles underpinning mentoring (Jones & Straker 2006). Edwards and Protheroe (2003), in a study of the school-based learning of 125 student teachers, concluded it focused on curriculum delivery and was heavily situated in a way that limited their understanding of learners. They also speculated that the participatory model of school-based training did not make the most of the strengths of mentors.

The professional learning gains offered by ITE mentoring in primary schools is a recurrent theme in the literature, particularly the need for leaders and managers to have greater awareness of its potential (Price & Willett 2006; Hurd *et al.* 2007); more effectively integrate it into school structures and processes (Menter & Whitehead 1995); and employ it as a mechanism for school improvement (Hurd *et al.* 2007). Chief HMI Perry (1985) identified links between ITE and teacher professional development (IT-INSET) as powerful. Two decades later, however, Hurd *et al.* (2007) in an analysis of all 13,202 primary Ofsted reports (1999-2005) found that fewer than 6 per cent made any reference to ITE, limited in the main to statements of involvement. Although all evaluative comments made were supportive, only one example was found of a report explicitly linking ITE mentoring to professional learning.

Partnership underwent renewed scrutiny with the introduction of Circular 4/98 (Annex I, DfEE 1998) and partnership, and school-based training generally, have formed a key element of subsequent inspection frameworks. During this same period a teacher supply crisis and an ensuing planned rapid increase of 40 per cent overall (primary and secondary) in training numbers between 1998 and 2004, bought with it concerns abut the capacity of the system to deliver the relatively new partnership model of training. A number of interventions were planned to bolster the enterprise, including a network of high quality Training Schools (DfEE 1998b) to develop and disseminate good practice in ITE, train mentors/school-based tutors and undertake research. The model was always in essence secondary (some 80 per cent of the existing 250 schools) and has now been subsumed under the specialist schools network (DfES 2004). By 2004, when the anticipated decline in pupil numbers precipitated a planned contraction in the secondary training sector, the placement crisis was perceived by TDA to be abating (Furlong *et al.* 2006a); albeit in shortage subjects that were not subject to cuts, and capacity issues still remained in some geographic areas. In the primary sector, however, Key Stage 1 placements were at an increasing premium (HMI 2005) owing to a considerable expansion in the early years sector and changes to the Qualifying to Teach requirements in 2002. In a UCET survey on school placements virtually all responding institutions claimed to be experiencing difficulties – early years followed by modern languages, science and ICT were posing the greatest challenge (UCET 2005).

The major national intervention devised to address the school-based training crisis at the turn of the millennium was the high profile National Partnership Project (2001-2005). Built on the government office regional infrastructure, it funded the nine regions in proportion to numbers of training places. Partnership, now in its third era, was to be commodified and marketed to schools by a TDA Regional Partnership Manager supported by devices such as a glossy magazine, 'Doing ITT'. The aim was to increase the capacity of the system, the quality of school-based training, and to enhance collaboration between partners and other stakeholders in the teacher training enterprise. Each region had a Regional Steering Group. Chaired by the partnership manager, it comprised representation from all stakeholders (HEIs, SCITTs, schools and LAs), and was a forum for discussion and management of projects funded centrally (from a national budget of £1.7 million per year) to meet the locally-agreed national objectives. At a national level the project portfolio included a web-based school usage survey (which attempted to map schools involved with ITE) and the newly created Partnership Promotion Schools initiative, which funded (mainly primary) schools doing outreach work to develop training capacity. The whole package was estimated by the evaluation team to amount to £6 million per year (Campbell *et al.* 2007). The project was terminated a year early because of a change in government priorities, driven perhaps by a perception that partnership was increasingly secure. The evaluation team concluded that the project met many of its objectives but much activity 'finding placements' and 'producing common paperwork' reduced teacher education to a 'technical-rationalist task'. Overall, the

project was about 'making the existing model work, not developing a new model'. Partnership, the authors concluded, had moved to where it should have been five years ago (Furlong *et al.* 2006a: 41).

**2.7    Routes into teaching**

The historical background to the proliferation of ITE provision in England in the early 1990s has been documented above and, although the political significance was considerable, the relative uptake of non-traditional provision was extremely small even in the late 1990s. The ongoing debate about the introduction of subject specialists into primary education (Thornton 1998), aligned with the increasing focus on English and mathematics, was more significant in practical terms. Its relevance was thrown into sharp focus with the publication of the Sutherland Report (1997) (as part of the Dearing Committee of Enquiry into Higher Education) which recommended greater differentiation of ITE routes and questioned the effectiveness of the one year PGCE in preparing primary teachers adequately, whilst problematising inspection evidence which appeared to indicate that BEd trained NQTs out-performed them. All this had a marked impact on increasing concern about the vulnerability of the four-year BEd degree, which for many years had been unassailable as a primary training route (UCET 2004).

Even more significant, however, was the introduction of the HE tuition fee in 1998 and the £6000 postgraduate training bursary in 2002, which together triggered the rapid growth of the shortened three-year education degrees (with QTS) to capture 40 per cent of the undergraduate market in England by 2004/05 (cited Furlong 2006b). Practice across the UK is extremely varied in respect of undergraduate QTS provision: in Scotland and Northern Ireland virtually all primary undergraduate courses are still four years in duration, by contrast Welsh undergraduate provision (which accounts for over half of the Welsh primary training numbers) is virtually all of three years in duration. Furlong *et al.* (2006b), in their review of Welsh ITT provision, recommended that this route should be phased out in favour of a new, academically rigorous three year pre-professional degree designed to prepare students for a range of education related careers.

Compared to the evolution of the undergraduate degree, the traditional PGCE has remained remarkably stable over its long history. In 2007, however, to accord with the Framework for HE Qualifications (QAA 2001), it branched into the M (masters) level Postgraduate Certificate of Education and the H (honours undergraduate) level Professional Graduate Certificate of Education. An enhanced Fast Track Programme, which included a lucrative package of incentives for postgraduate trainees, was launched in 2000 as part of the school improvement/workforce reform agenda. Its ambition was to attract into teaching able young graduates, identified as potential future leaders, and support them in developing the skills to progress rapidly into senior positions. Piloted for two years, the programme was rolled out to selected providers in 2003-04 only to be terminated in 2005-06.

Other changes in provision, already alluded to, have been the demise of the school-based Licensed and Articled Teacher Schemes in the late 1990s and their relaunch as the mainly post graduate Graduate and Registered Teacher Programmes. Now repackaged under the umbrella of employment-based routes (and commonly referred to as EBITT) they also encompass the Overseas Trained Teacher Programme and QTS-only assessment routes. Additional diversity in postgraduate provision was created by the introduction of primary SCITTs in the mid 1990s, and the last 5 years has seen their numbers grow rapidly to 28 (16 covering the full primary range). However, they still account for only around 4 per cent of training allocations.

Alongside these structural changes, contextual factors – such as the teacher supply crises which coincidentally followed the inception of the TTA – have had a marked impact on primary provision in the last decade. Rising school rolls, low teacher retention, and falling recruitment were exacerbated by the introduction of HE tuition fees and caused a shortfall in teacher numbers; especially significant in the period 1998-2001. The latter was felt most acutely in London and southern England, where it was overcome in the short term by recruiting overseas-trained teachers (McNamara *et al*. 2007). Ultimately the crisis led to an increase of 30 per cent in primary training numbers (50 per cent in secondary) and the introduction of the postgraduate bursary. Currently England is in a period of oversupply of primary teachers as a result of falling rolls (an estimated 600,000, 2003-2013), in part offset by increases in early years provision, triggering a reduction of just 7 per cent in primary allocations (compared to 17 per cent in secondary) (TDA 2006). This temporary downsizing of the 'client base', however, should be read against the impending retirement of 25 per cent of female and 21 per cent of male primary teachers who are currently over 50 (DfES 2006b) and a greatly increased population growth estimate recently announced by the Office of National Statistics (ONS 2007), which is about to augur an increase in primary training numbers.

Marked shifts in the patterns of training have reconfigured the landscape of new entrants into the teacher workforce for the period 1998 to 2005. The data in Table 1 (below) show DfES Workforce Recruitment Statistics disaggregated by training route. The proportion of undergraduate trained teachers has decreased from 53 per cent to 37 per cent and that of postgraduate trained teachers has increased from 43 per cent to 49 per cent. The proportion entering though (postgraduate) EBITT has increased from 4 per cent to 14 per cent (secondary EBITT having increased to 21 per cent in the same period).

| Table 1: Workforce recruitment by route and phase of education | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | YEAR | 1998/ 1999 | 1999/ 2000 | 2000/ 2001 | 2001/ 2002 | 2002/ 2003 | 2003/ 2004 | 2004/ 2005 |
| UNDER-GRAD | PRIMARY | 7,370 | 6,580 | 6,390 | 6,490 | 6,600 | 7,030 | 6,990 |
| | *% ALL PRI* | *53%* | *47%* | *43%* | *40%* | *36%* | *36%* | *37%* |
| POST-GRAD | PRIMARY | 6,000 | 6,590 | 6,750 | 8,030 | 9,040 | 9,510 | 9,270 |
| | *% ALL PRI* | *43%* | *47%* | *46%* | *50%* | *50%* | *49%* | *49%* |
| EBITT | PRIMARY | 490 | 830 | 1,610 | 1,690 | 2,510 | 2,750 | 2,690 |
| | *% ALL PRI* | *4%* | *6%* | *11%* | *10%* | *14%* | *14%* | *14%* |
| TOTAL | PRIMARY | **13,860** | **14,000** | **14,750** | **16,210** | **18,150** | **19,290** | **18,950** |
| | % TOTAL | 48% | 47% | 44% | 45% | 45% | 46% | 46% |
| | | | | | *Source: DfES Workforce statistics, Initial Teacher Training* | | | |

The data in Table 2 (below) reveal marked shifts in the trends of primary allocations and trainee characteristics. It shows a 30 per cent decrease in undergraduate numbers and a 120 per cent increase in postgraduate numbers (including EBITT). A key issue with regard to

primary recruitment has characteristically been a gender imbalance in the applicant pool, and despite a number of high profile national initiatives the proportion of men has remained at a consistently low 13-14 per cent (Harnett & Lee 2003). Data from Smithers and Robinson (2007) show that disaggregating the routes reveals marked variation in the proportion of male trainees, ranging from 13 per cent in traditional programmes to 20 per cent on EBITT. The effect on student teacher gender identities (Skelton 2003; Carrington 2002; Jones 2007) is well documented, although whether it impacts negatively upon pupil achievement or attitudes is contested (Thornton & Bricheno 2000, 2006; Skelton 2002; Carrington 2002). In respect of training, the government now presents 'males into primary' as an 'important but still relatively small area of TDA recruitment work' and instead emphasises the importance of 'high-quality confident and celebrated teachers, of whatever gender' (Watkins 2006: 37).

Table 2 shows that the overall trend in the proportion of mature trainees in the period 1998-2006 has increased quite significantly to nearly 50 per cent, but again this proportion ranges from 40 per cent on traditional provision to 88 per cent on EBITT (Smithers & Robinson 2007). Likewise the proportion of minority ethnic trainees shows a gradual increase across the sector from 5 per cent to 8 per cent.

| **Table 2: Primary Sector Level Data disaggregated: allocations; award of QTS as % of final year training numbers (inc EBITT); % employment (within 6 months of completion) (exc EBITT); % gender on entry, % age on entry and % ethnic minority trainees** | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | 1998/ 1999 | 1999/ 2000 | 2000/ 2001 | 2001/ 2002 | 2002/ 2003 | 2003/ 2004 | 2004/ 2005 | 2005/ 2006 |
| First year trainees | 11677 * | 11552* | 12918 | 14471 | 15276 | 17111 | 18616 | 18700 |
| Final year trainees | 13079 | 11035 | 11682 | 12767 | 14741 | 15660 | 17127 | 16999 |
| UG final year | 7892 | 5795 | 5443 | 5566 | 5891 | 5394 | 5338 | 5391 |
| PG final year | 5187 | 5240 | 6239 | 7201 | 8850 | 10266 | 11789 | 11608 |
| UG award of QTS | 91% | 92% | 93% | 93% | 89% | 93% | 88% | 89% |
| PG award of QTS | 87% | 86% | 88% | 89% | 91% | 89% | 90% | 87% |
| UG employment | 80% | 83% | 87% | 87% | 80% | 77% | 78% | 78% |
| PG employment | 83% | 83% | 82% | 82% | 76% | 76% | 78% | 79% |
| Females | 87% | 87% | 87% | 87% | 87% | 86% | 86% | 86% |
| Males | 13% | 13% | 13% | 13% | 13% | 14% | 14% | 14% |
| Age 25+ | 37% | 38% | 39% | 48% | 48% | 50% | 50% | 47% |
| Minority ethnic | 5% | 6% | 6% | 6% | 7% | 7% | 9% | 8% |
| *Source: TDA Sector Level Data Performance Profiles* | | | | | | | | |

Table 3 (below) shows the characteristics of the primary training sector in 2005-06 disaggregated by Government Office Region, and evidences a number of key regional

differences. In particular the proportion of minority ethnic trainees varies from 2 per cent in the Northeast to 20 per cent in London.

| Table 3: Trainee characteristics disaggregated by region | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **PRIMARY** | | | |
| | **TOTAL TRAINEE** | **% MALE** | **% MINORITY ETHNIC** | **% AGED 25 +** |
| **EASTERN** | 1,779 | 14% | 7% | 54% |
| **EAST MIDLANDS** | 1,321 | 13% | 6% | 44% |
| **LONDON** | 3,703 | 15% | 20% | 62% |
| **NORTH EAST** | 889 | 14% | 2% | 42% |
| **NORTH WEST** | 3,167 | 15% | 5% | 38% |
| **SOUTH EAST** | 2,696 | 12% | 4% | 49% |
| **SOUTH WEST** | 1,555 | 18% | 3% | 42% |
| **WEST MIDLANDS** | 1,567 | 12% | 12% | 44% |
| **YORKSHIRE & HUMBER** | 1,979 | 14% | 5% | 36% |
| **NON-REGIONAL PROVIDERS** | 70 | 16% | 6% | 64% |
| | | | | *Source: TDA Characteristics by region of 2005/06 intake* |

Ross (2002) reported that a survey of 22 LEAs (18 in London) found that less than 50 per cent of white teachers qualified in the 1990s, compared with 63 per cent of all black teachers, 69 per cent of Asian teachers and 62 per cent of mixed ethnic origin teachers. Twenty eight percent of all Asian teachers were aged under 30 years. There was also a marked increase in female Asian teachers in this period, particularly into the primary phase: 70.5 per cent of Asian women teachers had qualified since 1989. Once in training, however, there is still concerning evidence relating to the experiences of black and minority ethnic trainees both in school and university contexts (Basit *et al*. 2007; Carrington *et al*. 2001; Carrington & Tomlin 2000; Jones & Maguire 1998) and statistically they have been shown to have a significantly higher withdrawal rate (Basit *et al*. 2006).

The relative 'effectiveness', 'impact' and 'value for money' of the various training routes in the UK is unproven, and in some cases unresearched, although there is anecdotal evidence from inspection prior to the early 1990s about the relative performance of NQTs and self report from trainees/NQTs on perceived effectiveness of training (see below). Despite the cautionary note cited in the introduction (Wilson *et al.* 2001), the US is still a good way ahead of the UK in developing a research base on teacher preparation. A number of large scale initiatives such as the Teacher Pathways Project (2003-2007), a multi-year data-rich analysis of programmes and routes into teaching and their impact on student achievement in the classroom, have been funded. Focusing on the New York City public school system, the study includes detailed programme information on fifteen public and private traditional

teacher preparation programmes, and two alternative route programmes primarily serving the New York City area. It analyses and identifies the attributes of programmes and pathways into teaching that positively impact on student outcomes. In comparison, UK evidence often relates to single case studies or contexts, albeit some of extremely high repute such as the Leverhulme Primary Project, which tracked Primary PGCE students through their training programme and into their first appointments (Bennett & Carré 1993). There have been a few exceptions such as 'Modes of Teacher Education' (Barrett *et al*. 1992) and 'Changing Modes of Professionalism' (Furlong *et al*. 2000) cited in this review. The current 'Becoming a Teacher Project' (BaT) (2003-09), co-funded by GTCE, TDA and DfES, is tracking 5,000 trainee teachers for five years, charting their experience of training and early professional development and has so far published a number of extensive reports (Hobson *et al*. 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007) although they include only trainee self report comparative data relating to the 'effectiveness' of the routes.

## 2.8    Learning to teach

A number of different theoretical models have been used over the years to conceptualise the student experience of learning to teach, including 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie 1975); 'development of expertise' (Berliner 1988); 'rite of passage' (White 1989); 'performance theory' (McNamara *et al*. 2002); 'legitimate peripheral participation' / 'community of practice' (Lave & Wenger 1991; Maynard 2001); 'activity theory' (Twiselton 2004; Edwards & Protheroe 2004). As a model of professionalism and pedagogy, however, the 'reflective practitioner' has been pre-eminent in ITE over the last quarter century. Empirical evidence from the 1991 Modes of Teacher Education survey of training providers indicates that over 80 per cent (218) of courses claimed to espouse a particular philosophy, which in over 70 per cent per cent of cases was the 'reflective practitioner'; only 6 per cent (mainly primary undergraduate) laid claim to a 'competency model' (Barrett *et al*. 1992). Yet Edwards (1995: 600) identified scant evidence in the literature to suggest that 'reflection on practice in ITT is an opportunity to connect any sort of pedagogical theory with practice'. In the late 1990s the 'reflective practitioner' was, to a degree, a casualty of the intensification of ITE. Furlong *et al*. (2000: 143) observed that 'while many teacher educators aspired to maintain the ideal of the reflective practitioner […] in reality that was increasingly difficult'. The introduction of the M level postgraduate pathways in 2007 will undoubtedly cause reflection to once again move up the ITE agenda. A crucial area of immediate reflection for the new postgraduate trainee might be how the space to reflect can be created amongst all the other competing demands on their time, and what policies, practices and pedagogies are sanctioned as legitimate objects for reflection, given the competing discourses of 'audit' and 'standards'.

Learning to teach in the 21st century, notwithstanding an enduring focus on the core curriculum, involves demonstrating expertise in an ever-increasing curricular and pedagogic knowledge base and skill set, the latest impending addition being modern languages. The aspiring primary teacher is also required to broaden their key focus on the academic curriculum to encompass contribution to society, safety, health, and economic wellbeing. They also need to develop an understanding of an extended range of professional contexts, from working with others in the classroom to working in multi-professional teams providing access to integrated and specialist services including childcare, parenting and family support, community facilities/ learning and, finally, to promoting community cohesion.

Even before the extended school and Every Child Matters (ECM) outcome agendas listed above were incorporated, Lunn and Bishop (2003) reported that trainees perceived the training curriculum as overly prescriptive and felt the need for space to develop their understanding of what it is to be an effective teacher. Brown and McNamara (2005) claim the

transition to teacher, if it is to be effective, necessitates the student: unlearning their pupil perspective to develop a teacher identity; changing beliefs and attitudes; enhancing curricular knowledge; transforming subject knowledge into pedagogic content knowledge; and developing pedagogic and reflective skills. They conceptualise the transition in terms of students reconciling dichotomies between their own understanding of subject knowledge and the formal curriculum; their personal aspirations for teaching and learning and the official requirements; and their developing identity as teachers and representations of themselves as an aggregation of standards.

A substantive corpus of empirical evidence on how effective primary students perceive their training to be in terms of their preparedness, support and developing self efficacy compared to their secondary counterparts can be gleaned from the Becoming a Teacher Project, and it indicates overall that the latter are generally more positive about their experiences. This perhaps reflects the demanding nature of the challenge posed by primary training, particularly through the postgraduate route. Hobson *et al.* (2006) report that only 31 per cent of primary trainees thought the support they received very good, compared to 43 per cent of secondary trainees. Data indicate marked difference between primary routes: 46 per cent of trainees who had undertaken SCITT training rated it very good, followed by 43 per cent of GRTP, 34 per cent BEd, 31 per cent BA/BSC (with QTS) and only 21 per cent PGCE. Generally speaking, the older the trainee the lower they rated the support they received. Overall, however, 74 per cent of primary completers reported they would follow the same route with the same provider given their time again; variations between routes show primary SCITT completers to be the most positive again with 86 per cent content to follow the same training programme.

The Becoming a Teacher Project also explored the motivations that brought primary and secondary trainees into teaching and found significant differences: 72 per cent of primary trainees were motivated by wanting to work with children and young people compared to only 45 per cent of secondary trainees, and 82 per cent of primary trainees were strongly attracted to helping young people learn compared to 74 per cent of secondary trainees. Only 10 per cent of primary trainees were significantly interested in pursuing their subject specialism, compared to 41 per cent of secondary, but more surprisingly they were also significantly less interested in opportunities for career development, 15 per cent compared to 23 per cent of secondary trainees (Hobson *et al.* 2005). Exploring trainees' preconceptions about the effectiveness of their chosen training routes, prior to training, Hobson *et al.* (2005) reported that factors associated with increased confidence that would prepare them to be effective teachers were gender (being male), phase (being secondary) and age (being mature). Primary trainees were reported to be particularly concerned about managing their workload (74 per cent), coping academically (58 per cent) and managing financially (57 per cent) whilst secondary trainees were more concerned about discipline (74 per cent).

Regarding the content of primary courses Hobson *et al.* (2006) reported that BEd trainees were least satisfied with the theory/practice balance, 46 per cent thinking their programmes were too theoretical whilst GRTP trainees thought their programmes were too practical. SCITT trainees were clearest about the links between theory and practical elements of their courses and thought the balance about right by a significant margin. Whilst primary trainees were more positive than secondary trainees about relationships with their peers, regarding relationships with HEI staff primary trainees were again less positive than their secondary counterparts: 35 per cent of secondary trainees rated their relationship with HEI staff very good compared to only 24 per cent of primary. Within primary, BEd trainees were the most positive about HEI relationships and PGCE trainees the least positive. At the end of their training, primary trainees were more likely than secondary to identify maintaining

classroom discipline as very important and it was more commonly cited for PGCE-trained students as a development point for induction than undergraduates. Overall, the ability to work with pupils with SEN was the most frequently mentioned as the area requiring further training.

That learning to teach cannot all be accomplished in ITE has been long recognised, and there have been various probationary schemes for newly qualified teachers over the years. The latest statutory induction period of three terms for NQTs in England was introduced in 1999 (DfEE 1999b) and revised in 2003 to align with the new QTS Standards. The induction policy has two main principles: firstly, the NQT's entitlement to support from a school-based induction mentor and a 10 per cent reduction in contact hours for professional development activities; secondly, the assessment of NQTs against defined national standards (monitored by LAs). From April 2001 schools had a funding allocation of £1000 per term per NQT for induction support, but in 2003 this was incorporated into standards funding.

Initial response from the sector was, on the whole, positive. A large-scale DfES funded evaluation (Totterdell *et al*. 2002) reported that the vast majority of NQTs, head teachers, induction tutors and LEA representatives considered the process beneficial. Reports of the actuality falling short of intentions were in respect of entitlement for reduction in contact hours, access to professional development activities, mentoring, and funding (Kyriacou & O'Connor 2003; Heilbronn 2002; Jones *et al*. 2002); Bubb *et al*. (2005) developed a typology of 'rogue' schools. An Ofsted survey inspection of the induction of NQTs (Ofsted 2001) found that most schools were meeting their responsibilities but that in a small number of instances release time was not used effectively to support induction activities and that mentors needed further training in assessing against the standards. On the whole this training was better received by primary than secondary NQTs. It was also noted that large numbers of NQTs on short-term contracts had no entitlement to support and that 60 per cent of primary NQTs (compared to 30 per cent of secondary NQTs) were appointed on temporary contracts.

Six years later, according to Hobson *et al*. (2007), the situation had not improved. Primary NQTs got on average 2.7 hours of their statutory entitlement to non-contact time, compared to secondary NQTs who had an average of five hours. Of those in employment, 58 per cent of primary NQTs secured a permanent post compared to 76 per cent of secondary NQTs. Variation between routes showed that SCITT NQTs were most likely to secure a permanent post followed by GRTP, PGCE, BA/BSc (QTS) – BEd NQTs were least successful in this respect. Additionally, primary NQTs were more likely to have encountered difficulties in securing first appointments (32 per cent) compared to secondary (12 per cent), and of the primary NQTs those trained through undergraduate routes were again most likely to encounter difficulties (46 per cent).

Hobson *et al*. (2007) reporting NQTs' retrospective perception of their level of preparedness found variation between routes with PGCE trained NQTs feeling least well prepared (76 per cent good or very good) to be effective teachers and those trained in SCITTs best prepared (92 per cent good or very good). Rippon and Martin (2006) highlight the importance of the emotional as well as professional learning needs of NQTs as they are socialised into the teaching profession. Overall, however, NQTs were overwhelmingly positive about their chosen career virtually all agreeing they enjoyed working as a teacher and rating the relationships they established with their pupils as good or very good. Variations between routes show the most positive being NQTs trained through BEd routes, 97 per cent enjoying working as a teacher, and PGCE trained NQTs the least positive but with 91 per cent still enjoying being a teacher.

## 2.9    Teacher educators

The nature of the ITE curriculum, requirements and inspection framework in England has made it virtually essential that teacher educators have QTS. More recently non-managerial career development opportunities such as Advanced Skills Teachers, and the relatively poor remuneration levels in HE, have made a move to teacher education from a senior leadership position in a primary school financially unattractive. Additionally, the transition from teacher to teacher educator involves 'boundary-crossing' between two very different cultures and activity systems (Boyd *et al*. 2006), and individuals can take two or three years to establish their 'new' professional identities (Murray & Male 2005).  The sheer range of knowledge and skills required in the role is challenging (Boyd *et al*. 2007), and having become teacher educators many new recruits are reported to receive inadequate induction (Boyd *et al*. 2006; Murray 2005a).  Boyd *et al*. (2007: 7)  observe that the literature (Boyd *et al*. 2006; Murray 2005b) identifies three immediate priorities for new teacher educators: (1) 'survival'; (2) 'shifting the lens of existing expertise…. [to] the differing pedagogic demands of working with adults'; and (3) 'laying the foundations for scholarship and research activity'.

Recent initiatives aimed at building capacity and expertise include the allocation of £25 million over three years (2006-09) by HEFCE, through the Teaching Quality Enhancement Funding, to support the 'research informed teaching environment' in less research-intensive institutions. ESCalate (2003-09), an Education Subject Centre of the Higher Education Academy produces resources, organises conferences, and funds small-scale research and development projects with a focus on teaching and learning in education studies – including initial teacher education. Another such initiative is the TDA-funded Teacher Training Resource Bank (TTRB), which aims to increase the quality and range of resources available in ITE to support teacher educators and those training to teach. More recently still, a Teacher Education Reference Group (funded jointly by UCET/BERA/TLRP) with a focus on research support has been established to work alongside the TLRP Capacity Building Programme to produce an on-line bibliography (due to be launched in 2008) as a research training resource to contribute to capacity building in the field of teacher education. Boyd *et al*. (2007) identify the expectation that new teacher educators should engage in research and scholarly activity as an especially challenging aspect of their role.

In addition to the pressure on the individual, however, the impact of institutional research development strategies in the sector as a whole has also had significant structural effect upon education departments. The drive for increased research selectivity, particularly in research intensive universities, has made non research–active recruits from school less attractive to employ and more difficult to assimilate into the academic culture. The profile of staff in education departments who made a submission to the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) in 2001 shows that whilst research expertise was spread widely across these institutions the spectre of a growing dislocation between teacher education and research was a worrying trend. For example, 50 per cent of staff reported in the RAE were employed in institutions that no longer received core QR research funding (rated 3a and below). Increased selectivity can be deduced, however, from inspection of the research profile and character of the institutions that do and do not receive core QR research funding. Departments with no core research designated on average 35 per cent of staff as research-active,  attracted 22 per cent of the total UK external research grant income, focused their research on schools and directed it to the teacher audience. Those departments with core QR research funding also received nearly 80 per cent of total UK external research grant income, returned on average 70 per cent of staff as research active, researched areas such as curriculum, assessment, organisation, policy, management and inclusion and directed more of their research to other

researchers and policy makers (Oancea 2004a, b). Profiling teacher education in 2004, Dadds and Kynch (2003) found that 80 per cent of teachers were trained in education departments with no core research funding. No data is available regarding the proportion of dedicated teacher educators amongst staff designated research-active in education departments but one can surmise that this will be even less.

Considering the profile of education against comparable disciplines, Mills *et al*. (2005) conducted a Demographic Review of the UK Social Sciences for the ESRC and concluded that the field of education was significantly different. In terms of research activity, at 42.5 per cent it had the lowest proportion of staff entered in the 2001 RAE, compared to an average of 64 per cent in the social sciences as a whole, and only 25 per cent of staff had PhDs in education, compared, for example, to 60 per cent in psychology. Education was three times more likely to attract funding from government than research councils and, as a result, 'tends to lack the research autonomy to enable it to engage policy debates confidently and critically' (Mills *et al*. 2005: 44). Education is the second largest unit of assessment in the social sciences with some 5000 staff as compared to an average of less than 2000 in the social sciences as a whole (HESA staff record 2003/04). The age profile of education department staff is also older than that in the social sciences generally: In 2003-04 nearly 70 per cent of staff were over the age of 46, 50 per cent were over 50 and approximately 22 per cent over 56. One reason for this is that because of the need to appoint teacher education staff with QTS many enter HE later after a mid-career switch. In a survey of research interested/active BERA members conducted by the Research Capacity Building Network (Taylor 2002), just over a third of respondents began their research career aged over 38 years.

It is undoubted that the teacher education workforce succession planning will pose a very significant concern in the near future, and New Blood Schemes are under consideration (HEFCE/TDA). The reasons are complex as rehearsed above: the sheer scale of the problem in terms of the numbers involved; the age profile of the workforce; the age at which teacher educators typically commence their academic career; and the difficulty of recruitment of staff with QTS. Increasing research selectivity potentially poses even more of a threat if research/scholarly activity/doctoral studies are not seen as essential to underpin teaching and as a professional learning expectation for teacher educators. The HEFCE research-informed teaching funding has signaled that teacher educators in all institutions should be providing such an environment. In research intensive institutions the danger is that teacher education may be less attractive to research-active academics if conditions are not conducive to support them in undertaking research, and if teacher educators are not research-active then teacher education may not be valued sufficiently in such institutions to be sustained as core business.

## 3    CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD)

### 3.1    Introduction

Continuing professional development (CPD) is the current terminology for what has been described as in-service education, in-service training, professional development and lifelong learning.  The DCSF defines CPD as 'any activity that increases teachers' knowledge or understanding and their effectiveness in schools and can help raise children's standards and improve teachers' job satisfaction' (www.teachernet.gov.uk). However other definitions, such as that offered by Day (1997), interpret the nature and purpose of CPD much more widely and stress the crucial role of teachers in the transmission of values and the evaluation and development of educational policy for which they need the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to stimulate, sustain and develop professional thinking.

This section focuses predominantly on CPD from the perspectives and experiences of primary teachers. However, to set these in context a brief overview is provided of the trends that have given rise to current CPD provision in England. This is followed by a description of the centralisation of CPD under New Labour. Key issues are explored which relate to: the conceptualisation of CPD by the government and by teachers; the shifting focus from the needs of individual teachers to government priorities and system needs; the move to work-based learning in collaboration with others, culminating in the notion of schools as professional learning communities; and the relationship between CPD and teacher professionalism. Finally the factors constraining and facilitating future CPD development at the level of national policy, the school, and the individual teacher are identified and the implications of these examined.

## 3.2    Historical context

Since the James Report (DES 1972) emphasised the necessity for teachers to receive in-service education in order to develop their knowledge and skills, successive governments have increasingly recognised that not only is support for the ongoing education of teachers vital to the realisation of programmes of educational reform but it is also crucial for the educational, social and economic wellbeing of the country. From the 1960s to the early 1980s, initiatives and funding arrangements were geared predominantly to the pursuit by individual professionals of their own in-service interests and needs which were met predominantly through attendance at external courses provided by LEAs and HE institutions. As documented by Eraut and Seaborne (1984), who trace the changes in the structure, provision and conceptualisation of in-service teacher education over this period, provision was fragmented and uncoordinated, leading to an uneven distribution of opportunity. In the 1970s and early 1980s school-based curriculum development and school-focussed in-service training (INSET), such as that arising from government awarded Education Support Grants (ESGs), accorded greater attention to the needs of schools and the education system as a whole. However, teachers still retained responsibility for, and control of, their own development. Innovatory teacher-initiated INSET activities were developed in a few areas, such as those arising from curriculum development projects, but these activities were not available for the majority of teachers.

The Education Reform Act (ERA) (1988), which introduced the National Curriculum and its associated national testing, heralded considerable changes for CPD. The CPD agenda became increasingly determined by national priorities and the emphasis shifted from individual to school development. At the same time as central control tightened over the curriculum and assessment, the government decentralised through the delegation to schools and their governing bodies of school budgets, planning and management. Local management of schools (LMS) – initially involving primary schools of over 200 pupils but extended to all primary schools in 1991 – resulted in a substantial reduction in the capacity of local authorities to deliver training. It also brought about the demise of local teachers' centres and the redundancy and redeployment of advisory teachers – a professional group whose numbers expanded rapidly in the 1980s when such teachers played a major role in INSET provision (see, for example, Kinder & Harland 1991; Webb 1989).

Five compulsory training days for all teachers were introduced. Although these training days quickly evolved to provide opportunities for staff to work co-operatively and receive training on topics of importance to their schools, initially teachers were dissatisfied with their content which was generally unrelated to previous or subsequent training programmes and was not part of any long term strategy for either school or individual development (Cowan & Wright 1990). Curriculum coordinators (later known as managers and leaders) assumed a major role in the development of their subjects that included INSET provision for

their colleagues (Webb & Vulliamy 1996). This consisted mainly of disseminating information from courses that they had attended which varied in length from one-off 'twilight' sessions to attendance at DES 20 day courses in mathematics and science. However, the 'cascade' approach was fraught with problems and was perceived by staff as having minimal direct impact on classroom practice (Kinder & Harland 1991). Schools received annual funding through developments such as Teacher Related In-Service Training (TRIST), Grant Related In-Service Training (GRIST) and Grants for Educational Support and Training (GEST) to provide and buy training and consultancy services (see, for example Harland, *et al.* 1993). These changes in the funding of CPD also gave rise to a substantial increase in the number of professional associations and unions, private trainers, consultants and other commercial agencies entering the CPD market.

Traditional relationships between primary schools and local authorities began to break down. This process was hastened by the introduction of Ofsted inspections and the subsequent change of role for many LEA advisors to that of inspectors. Also, in response to the government's standards agenda, they assumed a hierarchical and authoritative role in driving up pupil attainment in schools in order to satisfy LEA accountability and maintain their position in the tables of LEA performance. For example, LEA consultants for the National Literacy and Numeracy Strategies (NLS and NNS) were regarded negatively by teachers for their role in policing the implementation of the content and pedagogy of the Strategies (Webb & Vulliamy 2006). As argued by Jeffrey (2002), 'the performativity discourse changed teacher-inspector relations from one of partnership to one of subjugation' (p.54). Nevertheless, some LEA (now LA) advisors have continued to act as mentors and critical friends to teachers, often over considerable periods of time (Holden 1997). LAs continue to provide CPD with in-school training – cited by LEA respondents in research by Brown *et al.* (2001) as the activity most frequently provided for teachers, followed by one-off conferences, seminars and workshops. LA initiatives also continue to provide opportunities for teachers' professional development through opportunities to work with teachers from other schools.

The role of higher education (HE) institutions in providing for teachers' professional development has also been subject to considerable change, with expansion throughout the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s followed by much-reduced provision for local teachers by universities over the last two decades. Eraut and Seaborne (1984) chart the demand for, and growth of, long course provision for teachers by HE, including the one year supplementary courses for those trained on courses shorter than the three year teaching certificate, retraining courses in shortage subjects, first degree courses for serving teachers as teaching became a graduate profession, diploma courses and higher degrees. Since the 1990s the structure and nature of long courses provided by universities has altered as universities have become increasingly market driven. This has given rise to flexible, modularised masters courses enabling credit transfer and accumulation, accreditation of prior learning and experience, professional development profiles, distance and open learning programmes and a substantial increase in taught doctorates – especially the Ed.D. (Bolam 2000).

According to a survey by Ofsted (2004), about £23.5 million is awarded annually by the government to support the postgraduate training of around 25,000 teachers. The funds are distributed to INSET providers, including HE, through a triennial bidding process with bids being assessed against national priorities and their likely impact on raising standards in schools. This funding supports a range of postgraduate certificates, diplomas and higher degrees where the focus of the training and assignments is on the participants' own schools and on practical action to bring about change in accord with government initiatives. However, the linking by the TTA of the funding for university award-bearing INSET to

national priorities has resulted in several programmes with different priorities losing funding. In addition, masters level provision in education, which often involved innovatory programmes of teacher research resulting in changes in teachers' attitudes and classroom practice (Vulliamy & Webb 1991), has lost out in the growing competition from vocational qualifications such as the NPQH. The fall in numbers of practitioners attending longer academic courses in HE can also be attributed to reduced opportunities for them to gain assistance with funding and lack of teacher time and energy owing to increased workloads. Universities have also increasingly turned to the provision of programmes recruiting overseas students or offering programmes in the students' own countries, both of which strategies are a great deal more financially lucrative than courses for local teachers studying part-time. In addition, HE staff under pressure to research and publish in an RAE dominated university economy have less time to devote to supporting teachers in research and development activities.

## 3.3    New Labour's CPD strategy

The policy document *Teachers: meeting the challenge of change* (DfEE 1998b) set out New Labour's intentions to 'modernise' the teaching profession and have it embrace a 'new professionalism'. This new professionalism required recognition that 'the time has long gone when isolated unaccountable professionals made curriculum and pedagogical decisions alone without reference to the outside world' (DfEE 1998b: 14). It also signalled the increase in central control and prescription, not only of the school curriculum but also of teaching methods (for discussion of the debate on the impact of government reform on primary teachers' professionalism and their perspectives on the issues, see Vulliamy 2006). In the 'new professionalism', participation in CPD is recognised as important – albeit with the predominant purpose of equipping teachers to implement government reforms, and tightly circumscribed within progression through standards and competences for QTS, induction, post-threshold, advanced skills teacher, excellent teacher status and headship. Government policy characterises career progression as a linear process but, as found by Poulson and Avramidis (2003) in relation to the career histories of effective teachers of literacy, many primary teachers follow multi-faceted, non-linear pathways through professional development rather than conforming to such straightforward career trajectories. This is particularly the case for women, who often take a career break to raise children and on return to teaching are likely to specialise in different age groups and/or take on the coordination of different curriculum subjects to those experienced previously.

In September 2000 the General Teaching Council (GTC) was formally established and given a specific remit to promote teachers' professional development. In March 2001 the government's strategy for CPD was introduced (DfEE 2001a). Designed in consultation with the GTC, its aims were: to promote the benefits of CPD; to help teachers make the most of the choices available to them; and to integrate CPD with performance management and school improvement, so building schools' capacity for effective professional development. The strategy was then relaunched to reflect additional CPD initiatives such as e-learning and networked learning communities, and the Virtual Teachers' Centre. The GTC contributed to the strategy with its Teachers' Professional Learning Framework (TPLF) that sets out teachers' entitlement and responsibilities in relation to CPD with a view to facilitating individual and school 'learning plans'. It also hosts a range of conferences and events for teachers and has set up the Teacher Learning Academy (TLA) to provide professional and public recognition through a national system of accreditation for the learning and development that teachers undertake as part of their professional work. This accreditation spans six stages, from 'Associate' (entry-level) to 'Senior Fellow' (equivalent to an education doctorate). An NFER evaluation of pilot phases 1 and 2 (Moor *et al.* 2006) found of the 1,267

teachers joining the TLA 48 per cent taught primary age children. The strongest impacts of participation were the perceived improvements to pupils' learning, enrolees' teaching and the enhanced contribution made to their colleagues and schools. In common with other forms of CPD lack of time was a constraint, but understanding the submission requirements and process was also a chief concern that threatened TLA project completion. However, for those who did submit their work (non-submitting enrolees exceeded submitters) Moor *et al.* (2006) concluded the venture 'was highly valued' and 'they derived significant outcomes from their involvement' (summary, xi).

In 2005 the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) assumed the responsibility from the DfES for the national coordination of CPD for all school staff. The CPD Partnership Project, which promoted the TPLF principles of collaboration, ownership, entitlement and responsibility, brought together the GTC, the TDA and schools and LEA personnel in the 26 participating LEAs to exert a positive coordinated influence on CPD provision (Moor *et al.* 2005). The Local Government Association (LGA) is also addressing what entitlement to CPD teachers should have throughout their careers and how the responsibility for this should be shared by individual teachers, schools, LAs and other institutions and agencies (Brown *et al.* 2001). Increasingly statements of CPD policy are posted on LA websites. At the level of policy rhetoric, teachers' CPD has a high profile.

The centralisation of CPD carried forward under New Labour was manifest particularly in the training of primary teachers to support the implementation of the NLS and the NNS, described by Earl *et al.* (2003) as 'the most ambitious large-scale educational reform initiative in the world' (p.11). An extensive infrastructure of regional directors and LEA staff for literacy and numeracy was set up to link schools to the central agencies and bring about change. Literacy and numeracy coordinators, following initial training, were responsible for disseminating the Strategies in their schools. In contrast to the situation when coordinators disseminated information on National Curriculum subjects, Earl *et al.* (2003) found many coordinators to be highly influential in supporting colleagues through assisting with planning, monitoring teaching and analysing assessment data. However, for coordinators to play a leading role successfully required support from the headteacher such as the provision of release time and opportunities to develop new skills.

Although primary teachers greatly resented the ways in which the Strategies were imposed on schools, their implementation resulted in greater consistency of practice in literacy and numeracy and across the curriculum, and brought about changes in practice that challenged teachers' beliefs and stimulated professional learning (Webb & Vulliamy 2006). However, such an approach to change is viewed as having important shortcomings because teachers may not develop adequate understanding of the rationale and principles underpinning the initiative in order to sustain and develop it. Thus Earl *et al.* (2003) conclude that 'some teachers may feel they have fully implemented the Strategies, but may lack awareness of the underlying principles', or owing to lack of subject knowledge 'will have made the easier changes required by the Strategies and may not recognise that many changes and more knowledge are still required' (Earl *et al.* 2003: 94). While research has identified considerable benefits for teaching and learning derived from the Strategies, it also substantiates Earl *et al.'s* (2003) conclusions by suggesting that, particularly in relation to the characteristics of interactive whole class teaching promoted by the Strategies, the changes are superficial (see, for example, Brown *et al.* 2003; Hargreaves, L. *et al.* 2003). In addition, Hargreaves, A. (2003: 189) warns that over time teachers who have become dependent on 'the external authority of bureaucrats, on scripted texts, or on "incontrovertible" results of research' will 'lose the capacity or desire to make professional judgements and become more reflective'.

## 3.4    Identifying and meeting CPD needs

In the third annual 2006 survey for the GTC (Hutchings *et al.* 2006) more than a third of the respondents identified CPD as a factor that had enhanced their career development while 12 per cent indicated that their career development had been constrained by insufficient or poor quality CPD. Responses differed according to the respondents' professional roles. Headteachers were the most satisfied that their needs were met, having engaged in the most different types of CPD activity. They were also the most confident that CPD was valued in their schools and taken into account in decision-making. By comparison, classteachers were less satisfied that their needs had been met, had experienced less variety in CPD activity, and were less confident that CPD was valued and taken into account in their schools. Supply teachers were the least satisfied group, especially those entering teaching in 2004-5.

A much higher proportion of teachers in each professional role in primary schools reported that their needs had been met (fully or to some extent) than in secondary. The generally more positive perception of CPD provision held by primary teachers in the GTC survey was consistent with the findings of Hustler *et al.* (2003) in a DfES funded survey of teachers' perceptions of CPD and teachers involved in the VITAE project (Day *et al.* 2006). Both studies found most teachers were satisfied with their CPD over the last five years.  Positive feelings about CPD for all but late career teachers were quite often associated with a sense of career progression possibilities to which CPD opportunities could be linked. Features of worthwhile CPD across all the studies drawn upon were that it should be focused, well-structured, presented by people with recent knowledge and including provision for active learning, and that it was relevant and applicable to school/classroom settings.  However, notions of what constitutes relevance differ.  Negative feelings were especially associated with 'one size fits all' standardised CPD provision (for example, much New Opportunities (NOF) ICT training), which did not take account of teachers' existing knowledge, experience and needs' (Hustler *et al*. 2003: ix).

Grundy and Robinson (2004) stress the importance of 'personal drivers' – the needs and concerns of teachers derived from life histories, personal circumstances and professional life trajectories which determine receptiveness to and enthusiasm for professional development – a finding which is echoed by Day *et al.* (2006). However, Hustler *et al.* (2003) found that most teachers felt that the principal drivers for CPD activity over the last five years had been school development needs and national priorities. Moreover, in many schools there appeared to be a compliant culture which discouraged teachers from pressing for CPD to meet their professional needs (Hustler *et al*. 2003).  As observed by Burns (2005) in his case study of CPD within a group of rural primary schools, teachers identify their own personal professional needs with school training needs. This is because the current managerialist system projects external pressures of government requirements, league tables and Ofsted inspections onto individual teachers through school development/improvement plans and performance management. These pressures were so strong that some teachers felt guilty about having personal goals and ambitions different from, or even at odds with, school needs. A bottom-up approach whereby a whole school focus and specific staff training were built into the school improvement plan as a result of weaknesses identified through staff performance management and individual requests appears to occur less frequently (Burns 2005). The DfEE (2000, para.8) states that 'existing practice in many schools demonstrates that these three strands (i.e. individual, school and national needs) reinforce rather than conflict with each other', which is hardly surprising if school and individual needs are determined by, and subsumed under, national needs. The intention to focus on 'more closely integrating CPD, performance management and school improvement as key components of

effective whole school policies on teaching and learning' ([www.teachernet.gov.uk](www.teachernet.gov.uk)) seems likely to exacerbate the situation.

Research has established the effectiveness of CPD where teachers have ownership over their professional development and scope for identifying their own CPD focus (for example Cordingly *et al.* 2003; Downing *et al.* 2004; Moor *et al.* 2005). In response, the DfEE (2000) has given some acknowledgement of the importance of balancing system and individual needs by increasing investment in CPD for individual teachers. Thus, for example, the ongoing Teachers' International Professional Development (TIPD) programmes launched in 2000 provide 2,500 short-term study visits abroad a year. However, the professional bursuries that were paid directly to teachers to help them achieve their individual career goals, the £3 million that was allocated for individual Best Practice Research Scholarships for teachers to carry out research in partnership with a university and/or other schools, and the sabbaticals for experienced teachers working in challenging schools have ceased. This is despite evidence that they were a valuable form of professional development (for example Furlong *et al.* 2003; Downing *et al.* 2004). Clearly there needs to be greater government recognition of the importance of opportunities for individual professional and career development.

### 3.5    The nature of CPD activities

Hustler *et al.* (2003) found that, although thinking about CPD varied in relation to school context and career stage, most teachers held a traditional view of CPD as consisting of courses, conferences and INSET days. Reflecting government policy, in 2001 most CPD focussed on teaching skills and subject knowledge and was predominantly led by school staff. Although CPD activities, such as research, secondments, award bearing courses and international visits were highly valued by respondents, few teachers took part in them. Similarly, in the GTC 2006 survey the most frequently reported CPD activities over the previous 12 months identified from a list of CPD activities were 'courses held on school INSET days' (90 per cent) followed by 'being observed by colleagues' (83 per cent); 'taking part in school self-evaluation processes' (81 per cent); and 'collaborative learning with colleagues in my school' (80 per cent) (Hutchings *et al.* 2006: 62). The VITAE teachers had similar experiences of CPD, leading Day *et al.* (2006) to identify two key messages. The first concerns teachers' apparent lack of experience of the relatively recent extensive CPD initiatives taken at policy level. The second is that their schools did not seem to offer a wide range of CPD opportunities which focussed on both their professional knowledge and skills and their socio-emotional (wellbeing) needs (p.141).

The GTC emphasises that 'Evidence from school improvement research and testimony from teachers highlights how important it is to move from individual to collective professional development' ([www.gtce.org.uk/TPLF](www.gtce.org.uk/TPLF)). Collaborative working involving teamwork in schools, networking between schools such as in the NCSL/DfES Network Learning Communities, and collaboration with the wider community are advocated as the way forward for raising standards and promoting innovation in primary schools (DfES 2003a). Since the ERA (1988), largely as a result of teachers working together to implement government reform, the individualised culture of primary schools has changed to one which emphasises collegiality, even though the pace of change and pressures of accountability mean that teachers may be 'collaborating under constraint' (Woods *et al.* 1997) and forced into 'contrived collegiality' (Hargreaves 1994). Collaborative CPD interventions such as peer support, observation with feedback, the use of external expertise in school-based activity and professional dialogue have been found to be beneficial for teachers and pupils (Cordingly *et al.* 2003). Boyle *et al.* (2005) also report that time and opportunities for teachers to reflect on their own practice and to share this with colleagues were the most popular longer-term professional development activities that had an impact on the change of one or more aspects

of a teacher's classroom practice. In the VITAE study, 'collaborative learning with colleagues within teachers' own schools as well as across schools was also rated as a highly important and useful form of CPD activity' (Day *et al.* 2006: 133). As shown by Webb and Vulliamy (forthcoming 2008), the introduction of planning, preparation and assessment (PPA) time in primary schools where teachers within a key stage or year group are released together has created additional opportunities for collaborative learning.

As argued by Clement and Vandenberghe (2000: 81) in relation to professional development and school improvement, collegiality has acquired the status of a panacea for all problems, whilst remaining ill-defined and underconceptualised. They suggest that autonomy and collegiality have tended to be polarised, with autonomy regarded negatively, whereas Poulson and Avramidis (2003) in their study of effective teachers of literacy found autonomous and collegial learning to be complementary. Their case-study teachers engaged in personal reading and study and solitary experimentation with the ideas encountered in their own classrooms and this often led to the sharing of their experiences with trusted colleagues and collaborative activity.

Day *et al.* (2006) found the need for collaboration and network support to be particularly important for teachers in small primary schools. The geographic isolation of some small rural primary schools, the small pool of within-school expertise on which to draw for school-based training, and little flexibility in deployment of the school budget can pose constraints on access to CPD. However, as argued by Wilson and McPake (2000), headteachers of small schools usually work closely with staff, are involved in planning and implementing change and so have heightened awareness of the issues. In some areas, clusters of primary schools and pyramids of secondary schools and feeder primaries have reduced potential isolation and created opportunities for joint CPD (Webb & Vulliamy, forthcoming 2008). However, such co-operation can be adversely affected by competition for pupils, reduced LEA support and the individual management of school budgets (Ribchester & Edwards 1998).

### 3.6    Professional learning communities

The term professional learning community (PLC) has become a globally fashionable one for describing schools, with its realisation viewed as essential for bringing about substantial and successful change in school policy and practice (Webb *et al.* 2006). The ideal professional learning community is one 'where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together' (Senge 1990: 3). Such communities value, promote and are sustained by teachers' CPD. However, 'professional', 'learning' and 'communities' are all contested concepts that lend themselves to a variety of interpretations and can be fitted into differing and potentially conflicting agendas from narrow government concerns to meet national attainment targets to the kinds of heightened political awareness that could give rise to 'an activist teaching profession' envisaged by Sachs (2003). The idea of a PLC overlaps with, and is informed by, earlier work on schools as learning organisations and school improvement research (Stoll *et al.* 2003). The New Labour government's CPD strategy (DfEE 2001a) encourages schools to become PLCs, and the notion is central to the DfES' Core Principles for Raising Standards in Teaching and Learning and the NCSL's revised National Standards for Headteachers. Guidance derived from DfES commissioned research (Bolam *et al.* 2005) on evaluating, planning and developing schools as PLCs and assessing their impact is available on the DfES Standards Site.

While PLCs put a premium on teachers working together, albeit for varying outcomes, Hargreaves states they must 'also insist that this joint work consistently focuses on improving teaching and learning, and uses evidence and data as a basis for informing

classroom improvement efforts and solving whole-school problems' (Hargreaves 2003: 184). The collection, analysis and use of attainment data, school-based self-evaluation and the use by teachers of externally generated research reflect the government's aspirations for evidence-based practice. The focus on teaching and learning is viewed as crucial to raising standards of pupil attainment. While as yet there is little research linking schools working as PLCs to student outcomes, there is evidence particularly from the USA that schools operating in the ways outlined above positively influence student achievement (for example Bryk *et al.* 1999).

An extended interpretation of a PLC is one incorporating not only members of the school staff but also pupils, parents and the local community, who all work together to identify for themselves shared aims, values and an agenda for action for their school. However, MacBeath's (2005) research on distributed leadership suggests that in many English schools there appears to be a considerable gap between these aspirations and reality, and that a major turn around in teacher attitudes will be required if parents and pupils are to become accepted contributors to school learning communities. Nevertheless, there are schools to point the way forward. Jeffrey and Woods in their in-depth study of Coombes Infant and Nursery school describe the involvement of the whole community in the school and argue that 'Coombes is a paradigm case of a learning community', and 'the heart of its success lies in that concept' (Jeffrey & Woods 2003: 123).

### 3.7    Factors promoting and constraining CPD

Ofsted (2006c) describes the CPD arrangements in schools with good practice in CPD management and use 'as a logical chain of procedures which entails identifying school and staff needs, planning to meet those needs, providing varied and relevant activities, involving support staff alongside teachers, monitoring progress and evaluating the impact of the professional development' (p.2). However, even in these schools concerns are raised regarding: the lack of rigour in identifying and meeting the CPD needs of individual teachers; inadequate identification at the planning stage of the intended outcomes of the CPD – and largely because of this few schools evaluated the impact of CPD successfully; and the inability of headteachers to evaluate the value for money of their CPD policy. Goodall *et al.* (2005) carried out a two year project to investigate the range of evaluative practices used by schools in relation to CPD, and to provide materials which could aid schools with evaluating CPD in the future. They found that the vast majority of evaluation practices were geared to collecting participants' reactions and views on their learning and on the use of new knowledge and skills. Surveys or questionnaires were the most widely used evaluation tool. In many cases the completion of a questionnaire was regarded as an end in itself. The most frequent second party means of evaluating the impact of CPD was observation of teaching, with only 25 per cent of schools engaging in practices to evaluate pupil learning outcomes such as pupil interviews and monitoring pupil work. Goodall *et al.* (2005) also discovered a high degree of confusion between dissemination (transference of knowledge to colleagues) and evaluation (including some attempted measurement of change as a result of that knowledge), resulting in a proliferation of low level dissemination that was equated with evaluation.  They conclude that many schools appeared to collect data that could have been used to evaluate the effect on pupils of changes in practice as a result of CPD but they lacked the opportunity to relate the information back to CPD in general or particular CPD events.

Brown *et al.* emphasise the fundamental role in teachers' CPD played by the headteacher and/or the CPD co-ordinator. They were identified as 'the gatekeepers to staff's participation in external CPD activities, receiving external CPD information; suggesting/recommending CPD to staff; and ultimately governing whether staff could participate in CPD' (Brown *et al.* 2001: iii).  It was their role 'to bridge the gap between

individual and CPD needs.' The CPD coordinator role, which appears crucial in balancing and inter-relating national, school and individual needs, and that of other senior staff involved in shaping CPD policy and practice is underdeveloped (see also, Hustler *et al.* 2003; Goodall *et al.* 2005). CPD coordinators and primary headteachers and deputies, who either assume or support this role, require guidance in identifying staff CPD needs, wider interpretations of CPD and greater awareness of the relationship of CPD to job satisfaction and career routes and the need to evaluate CPD in relation to a range of factors in addition to meeting government targets.

Lack of time, heavy workload, financial cost and distance from training opportunities were important constraints on access to CPD (Day *et al.* 2006; Goodall *et al.* 2005; Hustler *et al.* 2003). In the GTC 2006 survey (Hutchings *et al.* 2006), 31 per cent of teachers agreed with the statement that 'in my school, the budget for supply cover is adequate for teachers' CPD needs', but 41 per cent disagreed with it. This reflects the finding of other studies, such as Webb and Vulliamy (forthcoming 2008), that lack of funds was a major barrier to professional development.

In 2003 the government, employers and most trade unions (with the exception of the National Union of Teachers) signed up to the *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: a National Agreement* (DfES 2003b) that aimed to raise standards and reduce teachers' workloads over a three-year timescale. The resulting increase in the size and nature of the primary schools' workforce, particularly the expansion in the numbers of teaching assistants employed, means that primary schools are having to cater for an even wider range of CPD needs than previously and will require additional resources and support in order to do this effectively (Webb & Vulliamy 2006).

As illustrated by Webb (2005), exceptional primary headteachers can practise forms of transformational leadership that create school climates promoting individual and collective learning, risk taking and innovation. However, the current climate of central control, managerialism and performativity makes it exceedingly difficult for headteachers to develop school communities where teachers can engage in a range of initiatives and developments that simultaneously lead to personal development, improvements in classroom practice and pupil learning and the confidence and willingness to engage in debate on primary education at local and national level. The discourse of derision vented on primary teachers; the approach to bringing about reform whereby through incentives, systems, routines and inspections teachers are pressured to embrace central recommendations and adjust their practice accordingly; and the lack of attention paid to teachers' expertise and perspectives have undermined teacher confidence and made them wary or unwilling to challenge imposed initiatives.

The GTC 2006 survey concludes that owing to the diversity of needs and experience across the teaching population in relation to CPD 'there is certainly no "one size fits all" solution possible' (Hutchings *et al.* 2006: 80). Like pupils, teachers benefit from personalised learning and require access to a diversity of differentiated provision to facilitate and promote their learning and careers. Government actions need to match the possibilities espoused in policy rhetoric by disseminating and promoting the broader lifelong learning characteristics of CPD and by alerting teachers to the range of opportunities for them to pursue and develop specific interests within and outside school, both in this country and abroad. In addition, CPD needs to be concerned not only to update teachers' content knowledge and pedagogical skills and improve pupil learning but also with the moral purposes of teaching, the political context of teaching and the quality of teachers' thinking. It also has the potential to play a much greater role in maintaining motivation and commitment to teaching and boosting morale. Currently, the government CPD strategy fails to recognise that teachers need more

responsibility and control over the focus, structure and timing of their professional development and that this is fundamental to the development of professional learning communities that have the capacity to solve problems and to be creative. The 'new professionalism' requires a reconceptualisation of CPD.

## 4    SCHOOL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

### 4.1    Introduction

Recent decades have seen a growing interest in the ways in which schools are structured and administered as a method of enhancing pupil outcomes. Moreover, it is acknowledged widely that the shift to school-based systems of management, along with the increased regulatory and accountability requirements embodied in the 1988 Education Reform Act, created the need for enhanced leadership training for schools. During this period the term 'management' enjoyed dominance in the discourse on school administration, only to be replaced by the allied and sometimes overlapping conception embodied in the term 'leadership'. It is this latter term which is employed throughout this section. By far the most significant development in this field in the UK, and to some extent internationally, over this period has been the increasing intervention of national government agencies in the preparation and subsequent development of school leaders prior to appointment and post appointment to headship. However it is important to point out that the conception of school leadership has increasingly come to encompass a broader conceptualisation that views leadership as an important element in the work of teachers at all levels in schools, and there is also a developing notion of pupils as leaders in their own right. Nonetheless, limitations of space require that the focus in this section is primarily on training of the most senior leaders in schools, although section 4.6 attempts to outline the wider work of the National College for School Leadership (NCSL). The parameters of the overall review and the dramatic expansion of interest in this area, and the consequent expansion in the literature on the topic, necessitate that the discussion and main references are limited to British, and more specifically, English developments in this field. The central line of argument adopted is that the creation of national leadership programmes and the allied construction of a National College has been profoundly impressive but has brought with it inherent dangers of bureaucratic intervention by the state, with allied challenges to the role of more traditional providers of leadership research and development such as Higher Education Institutions and Local Education Authorities.

A number of accounts of the development of school leadership programmes in England have been offered (see, for instance, Bolam 1997, 2003; Brundrett 2000, 2001), one of the most persuasive of which is that by Bolam (2004) which sees the development as having three phases, including: 'ad hoc provision' in the 1960s and early 1970s; 'towards coherence and coordination' in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s; 'a national college' from 2002. Limitation of space precludes a detailed outline of all three phases and this analysis will concentrate on the period from the 1988 Act, especially the construction of a framework of 'national programmes' by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) and subsequently by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL). However, it is apposite to point out that a series of reports dating back to the 1960s, including those by Robbins (1963), Franks (1967), Plowden (1967), and James (1972), identified the emerging need for more effective in-service training throughout the education sector. The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM) and the British Educational Management and Administrative Society (now British Educational Leadership, Management and Administration Society) were founded in 1971 and 1972 respectively. Co-terminously with such developments, Master of Education degree programmes began to proliferate in the

1960s (Shanks 1987: 122-123) and higher degree programmes with elements of Educational Management began to appear in the 1970s (Bush 1999: 239). Moreover, central government agencies intervened in leadership development as early as the 1980s when Department of Education and Science (DES) Circular 3/83 identified educational management training as one of four priorities for teacher training and introduced 'One Term Training Opportunities' (OTTOs) for headteachers. The 1980s also witnessed the creation of a National Development Centre for School Management Training (NDC), established at the School of Education at the University of Bristol to stimulate management training and research. By the end of the 1980s, however, the National Development Centre had been closed down and the government had set up a School Management Task Force with a remit to report on a more effective national strategy for training headteachers and school staff with management roles. Although the work of these initiatives had come to an end by the early 1990s their work undoubtedly influenced the subsequent development of national training initiatives.

## 4.2    Creating national programmes for leadership development

From the mid-1990s, the focus shifted from local and regional initiatives, increasingly supported and co-ordinated by central co-ordination, to the progressively more influential 'national programmes' which changed the power relationship between the governmental and regulatory authorities and the providers of in-service training significantly (Brundrett 2001: 237). The remit for the development and management of these programmes originally fell to the TTA. It was held briefly under the direct control of DfES and subsequently transferred to the NCSL, which commenced its activities in temporary premises at the University of Nottingham in 2000 before moving to purpose-built premises on the same site in 2002. The NCSL was established to ensure that our current and future school leaders develop the skills, the capability and capacity to lead and transform the school education system into the best in the world (DfEE 2001). The NCSL has subsequently played a pivotal role in the co-ordination of national programmes of school leadership development and now oversees the development and delivery of courses and qualifications in England. It aims to combine the intellectual, professional and practical development of school leaders, drawing on best practice, while supporting an ongoing discourse about school leadership that will inform its work (Earley 2002). NCSL's corporate plan for 2002/06 put in place what was by 2004 the largest educational leadership development programme in the world (NCSL 2001b).

In 2001, NCSL produced the *Leadership Development Framework* which outlined five areas of leadership development linked to a series of core and extension programmes. These included: emergent leaders – for people who are beginning to take on formal leadership roles; established leaders – experienced deputy and assistant headteachers who have decided not to pursue headship; entry to headship – for those aspiring to or embarking on their first headship; advanced leaders – headteachers with four or more years' experience able to attend the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH); and consultant leaders – experienced headteachers and other leaders who wish to take on the responsibility for the future development of school leadership (NCSL 2001c). In essence this framework encapsulated and enlarged the construction that had emerged during the previous six years of development which had come to be based around preparatory, induction and further training for headteachers.

## 4.3    Early headship programmes

The Headteachers' Leadership and Management Programme (HEADLAMP) was the first of the headship development programmes to be introduced, and commenced operation in 1995. Its key aim was to provide funds 'to support the cost of developing the leadership and management abilities of headteachers appointed to their first permanent headship' (TTA 1995b). The HEADLAMP programme gave a considerable degree of flexibility to

headteachers and governors in their choice of training and training provider (Busher & Paxton 1997: 121). Nonetheless, it was LEAs who became the major HEADLAMP providers (Blandford & Squire 1999: 7) and thus the scheme never fulfilled the purpose of opening up leadership training to a range of trainers chosen in an open market. The impact of the initiative is not to be underestimated since it prefigured other programmes. It was a centrally-controlled initiative based on a set of generic standards that defined the required leadership and management capabilities of school leaders. The HEADLAMP scheme came under review in 1998, but a report was not completed until three years later when it was found that there was insufficient focus on leadership in context and variability in the quality of programmes (Newsome 2001).

During this period, the programme was evaluated by Ofsted (2003b) which, while reporting how few of the providers had effective quality assurance procedures in place (p.6), made a number of further observations. Candidates received little objective guidance or advice about the full range of training that was available, and so they frequently opted to select from what was available locally. Only one of the six providers examined was judged to have good or very good provision across all aspects inspected, although each provider exemplified good practice in at least one area. Weakest areas were deemed to be the identification of needs and quality assurance, though the overall quality of the training was good or very good in all of the providers and the impact of the provision was considered to be good in most. The needs identification process was most effective when it enabled headteachers to analyse their development needs accurately against the National Standards for Headteachers, while the quality of individual training sessions was mostly judged to be good though their content was often insufficiently based on the particular needs of participants and explicit links were very rarely made with the National Standards (p.5). Notably, the report indicated that there was little differentiation of the needs of headteachers from different sectors of education or from different contexts, such as those from small rural primary schools as opposed to those from large inner-city comprehensives (p.5). Nevertheless Ofsted indicated that HEADLAMP training was felt by most participants to have been effective in increasing their confidence, helping them to address specific issues in their schools and developing their knowledge and understanding of leadership styles and management strategies. However, the lack of systematic evidence checking impact made it difficult to assess fully the impact that HEADLAMP training had since its inception on improving participants' ability to manage change, improve teaching and learning, and raise standards in their schools (p.5).

The recommendations from the subsequent review were underpinned by the notion that programmes should be more tightly structured around a number of aims promoting clear links to National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) and the professional development of new heads within the context of school improvement. A 'blended learning' approach was also promoted as being consistent with the *Leadership Development Framework* (NCSL 2001c). The findings and recommendations of the review have contributed to the new framework for entry to headship. The decision about replacement programmes was publicly announced by the NCSL in 2003 and the Headteachers' Induction Programme (HIP), designed to replace HEADLAMP, commenced in that year. The programme was subject to further review and revision and was replaced by the 'Early Headship Programme' (EHP) in 2006, which was designed for a number of purposes. It was designed to support new headteachers in identifying and addressing their development needs as they followed their desired pathway through the early years of headship, providing access to a wide range of learning opportunities for new headteachers. It had to enable new headteachers to experience and understand the value of coaching and collaborative leadership learning and help them apply their learning in the contextual realities of their school and locality. It was meant to

bring new headteachers from the periphery of headship to full membership and help new headteachers to recognise the impact that their leadership behaviours have on others and ultimately on pupils' learning in their schools (NCSL 2007e).

## 4.4 Headship qualifications

The second element of the governmental strategy to improve school leadership arrived in 1997 and was styled the NPQH. In its early form it was a complex, centrally controlled but regionally delivered programme of training and development with an allied, but separate, system of assessment (Brundrett 2001). The initiative has been attacked for its reliance on a competency system (Revell 1997), for its daunting nature (Downes 1996: 27), and for its lack of a centralised 'staff college experience' (Bazalgette 1996: 17). Others felt that there was a danger that the qualification might become too academically- rather than practically-focused (Pountney 1997: 4). Moreover, Bush (1998) identified three particular areas for 'further consideration and review'. Firstly, a distinction was made between 'leadership' and 'management'. Secondly, 'best practice outside education' was emphasised. Thirdly, the weak links between NPQH and specialist masters' degrees in educational leadership and management (Bush 1998: 328) were pinpointed. In response to such robust criticisms the NPQH was completely restructured in 2000 following a major review, with new contractors being appointed to offer the revised scheme which commenced in 2001 (NCSL 2001a). The new scheme is much more competency-based and is more focused on schools with a school-based assessment process which is more challenging, individualised and focused on school improvement. It has been acknowledged that the new model transformed the programme and made it 'genuinely and internationally cutting-edge' (Tomlinson 2004: 231), while these transformations enabled the DfES to make the qualification mandatory for all headteachers from 2004. This move towards mandatory status has undoubtedly presented a challenge to ensure sufficient throughput on the programme, in order that the required numbers of graduates would exist to fill headship vacancies. Total numbers undertaking NPQH are indicated in Table 3 (below).

| Table 3  Numbers undertaking NPQH 1997-2003 | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | New Model | | Old Model | | Totals | |
| Phase | Status | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Primary | Completed | 2673 | 8883 | 654 | 2068 | 3327 | 10951 |
| Primary | In progress * | 1040 | 3332 | | | 1040 | 3332 |
| Primary | Withdrawn | 498 | 1471 | 515 | 1289 | 1013 | 2760 |
| Secondary | Completed | 4016 | 3492 | 1182 | 915 | 5198 | 4407 |
| Secondary | In progress* | 1737 | 1551 | | | 1737 | 1551 |
| Secondary | Withdrawn | 530 | 401 | 655 | 419 | 1185 | 820 |
| | | | | | | | *Source: National College for School Leadership* |

*in progress includes deferred, deferring, withdrawing, not started, frozen.

The programme is currently going through a further review with the aim of making it more specifically related to those intending to move into headship and linking it more closely to the Early Headship Programme. This revised version will be trialled during 2007.

## 4.5    Advanced leadership programmes

The third rung in the ladder of qualifications and programmes came with the introduction of the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH) (Green 1998). The LPSH scheme offered even tighter centralised control than had the NPQH programme. The contract to construct materials was awarded to the management consultancy firm Hay-McBer (with the NAHT and the Open University), although a number of consortia were successful in being permitted to deliver the resultant training package. The programme was designed to encompass a three-stage process. These included: self diagnosis; a four-day residential workshop; and follow-up support through Information and Communications Technologies (ICT), coaching and mentoring. Each headteacher was, somewhat contentiously, paired with a partner from business who contributed to the implementation of the action plan (Bush 1998: 330). The revised programme was underpinned by a Leadership Effectiveness Model, developed by the Hay Group, that encompassed the 'four circles': 'job requirements'; 'the context for school improvement'; 'leadership styles'; and 'individual characteristics'. The revised programme provided a very different model from the National Standards that underpin other NCSL activity. The model was one which concentrated on leadership effectiveness and performance, measuring leadership capacity through adapted psychological assessment techniques and 360 degree appraisal rather than by using the standards based model inherent in NPQH final assessment (Tomlinson 2004: 235). Total numbers undertaking the LPSH programme run into several thousands, as indicated in Table 4 (below).

| Table 4 LPSH 1997 – 2003 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | **MALE** | **FEMALE** |
| **PRIMARY** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 626 | 1595 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 15 | 29 |
| **SECONDARY** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 252 | 148 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 7 | 5 |
| **UNKNOWN** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 190 | 279 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 15 | 13 |
| | | | *Source: National College for School Leadership* |

The programme came under further review in 2006 and a new programme entitled Head for the Future (HftF) was created in that year. The new programme was designed collaboratively between NCSL and the Hay Group Consortium, and retains what are considered to be the best elements of LPSH including the feedback and diagnostics, the practical models of leadership and the debate with other headteachers. The new programme is designed to 'directly tackle emerging challenges for headship, particularly the need to collaborate with other schools and agencies' and 'asks each participant to challenge

perceptions about the change and outcomes they require, keeping a clear view of what their distinctive context demands' (NCSL 2007a).

### 4.6    Other leadership development programmes

The functions and activities of the NCSL include not only the preparation, induction and development of headship initiatives but also include a wide number of other programmes. The comparatively recent (2003) inclusion of 'Leading from the Middle' in the NCSL portfolio is a highly significant development since it targets middle leaders in schools and is thus emblematic of a commitment to the development of leadership capacity at all levels in the teaching profession. In terms of numbers this is a major initiative, as can be judged from Table 5 (below).

| Table 5 Leading from the middle 2003-2006 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | **MALE** | **FEMALE** |
| **PRIMARY** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 1577 | 7360 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 172 | 799 |
| **SECONDARY** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 7379 | 9153 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 867 | 1161 |
| **UNKNOWN** | **ENROLLED/COMPLETED** | 1464 | 1461 |
| | **WITHDRAWN/ DEFERRED** | 95 | 151 |
| *Source: National College for School Leadership* | | | |

Other NCSL activities include: online learning and network information including Talking Heads and Virtual Heads; research and development projects; and the Networked Learning Communities scheme (Bolam 2004: 260). The NCSL also operated 'affiliated regional centres', which no longer exist, but the 'Leadership Network' now takes responsibility for developing the College's regional links and involves over 2000 schools organised in nine regions. This rapid expansion in activity can be perceived as both an achievement and a weakness. An end to end review of the NCSL, presented in 2004, noted its 'very significant, even remarkable, achievements', but called for 'streamlining the NCSL's efforts to increase its impact through greater role clarity, outcome focus, goal clarity and efficiency' (DfES/NCSL 2004: 5). This was re-echoed by the Minister of Education, who called for 'greater precision, discipline, outcome-focus, and depth in the future work of the College' (Minister of State for Education 2004: 2). Nonetheless, at the time of writing, the NCSL website listed 29 programmes that address a diverse range of issues including Bursar development, developing the capacity for improvement, equality in promotion, the strategic leadership of ICT, and an influential research associates scheme that enables leadership practitioners to undertake systematic research funded by the College (NCSL 2007b).

For the purposes of this study it is notable that two of these programmes focus on primary school leadership specifically. The 'Leading Small Primary Schools' programme runs over two terms and involves four days of blended learning, including interactive workshops, a

two-day residential visit, a series of structured inter-school visits and access to a dedicated online community.

The programme 'offers opportunities for school leaders and local authorities to work collaboratively together at both regional and local levels' and 'a framework of support and advice is provided by a network of headteacher and lead facilitators' (NCSL 2007c). The Primary Strategy Leadership Programme involves a working partnership between the DCSF, Primary Strategy, NCSL and local authorities. Approximately 1,900 Primary Strategy Consultant Leaders were trained and then deployed to work with nearly 10,000 primary schools across England between May 2003 and the end of 2006. The programme had a number of aims, including the following. It was designed to:

- strengthen collaborative leadership and responsibility for teaching and learning within a school;

- provide time for the leadership team of a school;

- bring together the expert support and guidance available locally to help address the particular issues identified within a school;

- help schools realise the benefits of remodelling and primary learning networks to improve learning and teaching and raise standards;

- make further improvements in Foundation Stage outcomes and Key Stage 1 and 2 results in English and mathematics over the period 2006-08; and,

- include the 'Sustaining Success' programme from 2006, designed to analyse, embed and extend, successful activity (NCSL 2007d).

## 4.7    Critiques of leadership development programmes

An Ofsted review of leadership and management training for headteachers, published in 2002 (Ofsted 2002a), drew for its conclusions on inspections of all of the first seven cohorts of NPQH, inspection of the induction arrangements for headteachers in 43 LEAs, visits to 15 LPSH training events with follow-up visits to 33 course members in 23 LEAs, substantial evidence on the quality of leadership and management in schools from section 10 inspections, and focused surveys by HMI. The report thus provides some of the most detailed analysis of the efficacy of the main national programmes of leadership development. The report noted that leadership and management in schools was improving and that leadership and management were good or better in approximately three quarters of primary, special and secondary schools. However, there were still one in twelve primary schools, one in seventeen secondary schools and one in twenty special schools with unsatisfactory or poor leadership and management. In addition, even in schools where leadership and management were judged to be good overall, there were common areas of weakness across all phases to which training needed to respond. The report had a number of main findings. The quality of the NPQH programme improved significantly throughout the first seven cohorts. Much of the training was of good quality but there remained concerns about the selection of appropriate candidates and the capacity of the training to respond to a wide range of needs. There was inconsistency in the quality of support provided by LEAs for newly appointed headteachers and, while the quality of much of the LPSH training was good and was generally well received by headteachers, the programme did not always meet the needs of headteachers from a range of contexts and there was no effective monitoring of the outcomes. There was no clear progression in the content of the three national training programmes for headteachers. The various training programmes did not sufficiently meet the particular needs of participating headteachers, for example headteachers of schools facing particular challenges and headteachers of small rural primary schools. The monitoring

of the impact of national headteacher training programmes was not well established (Ofsted 2002a: 5-6).

The development of national programmes of school leadership development has been subjected to sustained critique on a number of counts. Firstly, the leadership development framework has been underpinned by the National Standards for Headteachers (TTA 2000; Great Britain 2000) thus establishing an emphasis on standards-based approaches in training and leadership development (Brundrett *et al*. 2006). Concerns exist that such a structure is too detailed, prescriptive and bureaucratic (Glatter 1997; Gronn 2003; Thrupp 2005). Secondly, the decline of university sector-accredited provision (Brundrett 1999) raises questions as to whether school leadership development may be impoverished by inadequate attention to explicit theoretical and conceptual groundings (Brundrett 1999, 2000, 2001; Ribbins 1997; Thrupp 2005). Thirdly, and finally, the sustainability of the leadership college model, which may be sensitive to political change, is open to question (Bolam 2004: 260). Nonetheless, the development of such a wide-ranging framework has meant that England has moved quickly towards coherent provision of leadership programmes in the period of a decade (Huber & West 2003).

A major review of school leadership conducted by PricewaterhouseCoopers (2007) concluded that there is a 'strong need to renew leadership capacity in the sector' in order to meet, embrace and deliver new policy objectives such as the ECM and 14-19 agendas – with one in ten heads claiming to have undertaken no professional development in the three years prior to the report (PricewaterhouseCoopers 2007: 148). Further, the report noted that there is mixed evidence from school leaders and stakeholders on the appropriateness of NCSL programmes such as NPQH and LPSH/Head for the Future and that aspects of these qualifications require reform in order to ensure that they are appropriate and fit-for-purpose (p.150). PricewaterhouseCoopers note that this suggests the need to widen the concept of leadership qualifications and draw on the best of what is already in the market in terms of other bespoke management and leadership qualifications for ongoing leadership development. Overall the report calls for the adoption of a new approach towards leadership qualifications with which the DCSF and NCSL should give consideration to reforming key aspects of NPQH and Head for the Future (formerly LPSH), including:

- ensuring that the key needs articulated by school leaders in this research are given further prominence, in particular financial management, extended services and the associated implications for team working and people management;

- modernising the delivery vehicle to include, for example, e-learning solutions;

- a greater element of modularisation and tailoring to individual need; cross-sectoral inputs and participation; and less emphasis on what often comes across as a formulaic 'tick box' approach;

- ensuring that NPQH is fully 'joined up' with the outputs from secondments, exchanges and other CPD initiatives, so that participation in these initiatives can provide significant accreditation towards modules of NPQH. Ensuring also that this is the case, and understood to be so, in relation to relevant elements of other professional qualifications including, for example, Masters degrees and MBAs;

- ensuring that NPQH and Head for the Future are widely understood across the sector *not* as being one-off exercises, but rather part of an ongoing development process;

- ensuring that leadership training for support staff and senior support staff leaders (for example the Bursar Development Programme, delivered by NCSL) is accepted across the sector as being as important as leadership training for teachers; and,

- promoting ongoing mentoring and support programmes in order to increase the successful number of NPQH candidates who take up headship or other leadership positions in schools.

No doubt the findings of this influential report will impact significantly on future policy development in this general area of school leadership. For those operating in traditional Higher Education settings the conclusion that some school leaders indicated that other qualifications such as MBAs and Masters degrees have proved, in their view, to be very useful in terms of helping them deal with leadership challenges, offers the possibility of a renewed role for the university sector (p.151).

For the purposes of this report it is also important to note that many of the plethora of national programmes in England, listed in the previous section, have developed as cross-phase initiatives and no specific provision has been developed for the particular professional requirements of primary school leaders. The individualised nature of many of the programmes, such as LfTM, HEADLAMP/ HIP/ EHP, and LPSH means that much of training is differentiated according to phase by means of personalised learning activities. Nonetheless, the question remains open as to whether primary leadership has developed a robust conceptual base in its own right. However, the most recent remit letter by the Secretary of State has asked the College to provide advice on the future leadership needs of those leading primary schools. This is a wholly welcome development. The Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools 2005/06 (Ofsted 2006a) noted that good leadership and management remain crucial to the quality of schools and that 'the very large majority of primary schools inspected are led and managed at least satisfactorily' (Ofsted 2006a: 23). In the one in 10 primary schools in which leadership is outstanding, the management team as a whole, including subject leaders, is highly effective. Nonetheless, monitoring and evaluation, including the work undertaken by subject leaders, remain the weakest elements of leadership and management (*ibid.*).

## 5    CONCLUDING COMMENTS

From this relatively brief, and necessarily selective, snapshot of the professional training landscape we have identified a number of examples of excellent practice but have also observed that they have been achieved at some cost to the respective sectors. We have organised our concluding comments thematically, identifying common issues that have emerged and where possible exemplifying them across the areas of initial training, in-service and leadership development.

1. Many examples of good and innovatory practice can be identified in England. In leadership development, for example, England is rapidly moving towards creating one of the most systematic portfolios of programmes for leadership in education in the world, a significant achievement in the period of a decade. The English model of ITE partnership has provoked much international interest, and there has been a qualitative improvement in the standard of provision and preparedness of newly qualified teachers and a refocusing of ITE to more closely engage with the curriculum as it is situated in primary classrooms. In the area of CPD significant initiatives include increased opportunity for accrediting teacher's professional learning through the framework offered by the Teacher Learning Academy and a wide variety of M Level qualifications and Professional Doctorates in Education grounded in work-based learning.

2. The education climate over the last two decades has been characterised by an increased level of centralisation, monitoring and accountability. This has established a common framework of professional expectations and assessment which is particularly apparent across the highly structured portfolio of programmes and qualifications in leadership development and in ITE. The degree of bureaucratisation and accountability, however, has engendered a 'technical rationalist' approach to education outcomes and processes that has tended to restrict the nature of professional engagement and create a 'culture of compliance' in both staff and students.

3. Juxtaposed with this micro-managed environment is a rapidly growing sector characterised by greater deregulation. This is exemplified in the context of in-service development where the regulation of HE provision, through the triennial bidding and monitoring processes, contrasts sharply with the lack of accountability for how the considerable sums allocated through standards funding for CPD are actually spent, how outcomes are evaluated and how value-for-money is measured. Although the involvement of external consultants can bring fresh ideas and widen horizons, quality assurance mechanisms and evaluative processes are often not in evidence. In ITE over the last two decades the highly regulated training outcomes and processes of 'traditional' HEI provision have unfolded hand in hand with a proliferation of 'alternative' school-centred and employment-based routes that have not been subject to the same regulations in terms of performance and process measures.

4. Relationships between institutions and their accrediting bodies are of crucial importance, and never more so than in the prevailing culture of audit and accountability where performance indicators are linked with resourcing. This is the case with some of the NCSL branded leadership programmes and TDA funded PPD and ITE courses. In such circumstances, inspection regimes can be punitive and we see instances of this in the context of ITE where the established principle is to downsize or close provision when judgements of inadequacy are made. Yet here again there are contradictions, such as the ideological commitment to the growth of EBITT even when historically inspection evidence has pointed to quality being compromised.

5. As noted, regulation has secured a good standard of provision and established a common framework of professional expectations and assessment. There remains, however, a lack of coherence, and at times transparency, in the educational principles underpinning developments across all three areas. The ITE sector, for example, despite working towards common outcome measures, has been subject to a number of contradictory ideological drivers and a lack of consistency is apparent in philosophies and models of professionalism. This is exemplified in the case of employment and school-based routes which are not required to work collaboratively in partnership with HEI. The same can be said of primary leadership, where we have pointed to the lack of coherent conceptual base apparent across individual programmes which display overlapping, but different, conceptual models. Stark contrasts have also been apparent in the past decade in the principles and values underpinning the government's CPD strategy. Tensions between individual and national priorities have been mirrored in the disparity between the tightly structured, large-scale, top-down training implemented for the National Strategies and the more informal coaching/mentoring, bursaries/ sabbaticals, Best Practice Scholarships and collaborative networks.

6. A problematic disarticulation exists between professional and academic qualifications across the sector and this has implications both in terms of the status of professional qualifications and the transferability of credentials. Weak links with specialist M Level degrees in leadership and management was a critique made of the prototype NPQH.

Concerns were raised in relation to the locatedness of NPQH in the academic framework which, it was felt, should be at M level. There is now some reciprocal accreditation in individual universities, but this remains a complex and problematic relationship. The disjunction is also exemplified in postgraduate initial training between professional QTS-only employment-based routes and academic PGCE and QTS certification. The PGCE itself has just diverged into the M Level Post Graduate Certificate of Education and the H Level Professional Graduate Certificate of Education, which will potentially cause confusion in the sector. In the context of in-service development the increase in opportunities for the accreditation of work-based learning though M level awards, the Teaching and Learning Academy and the expansion in the Professional Doctorate market is to be celebrated. However, here again the Level 3 qualification in the Teaching and Learning Academy framework has been aligned at M Level without any clarity about how this will be achieved.

7. A loss of capacity in HE has reduced its capability to engage fully in the quasi education market place and innovation, where it is occurring, is often incoherent. A number of factors impact upon this loss of corporate energy: the aging profile of staff in university education departments; the difficulty of recruitment in a labour market where the funding level of HEIs has been depressed for a number of years; and the effects of increased research selectivity determined by the research assessment exercise. There are additional contextual factors such as concerns about the continuing capacity of HEI to provide high quality research and academic programmes in the area of management and leadership, given the fierce competition from the NCSL suite of programmes linked more directly to career progression. The extensive professional development programmes that accompanied the implementation of the Numeracy and Literacy strategies had a similarly deflationary impact upon the uptake of award-bearing courses. In ITE, loss of capacity is again a serious threat although welcome strategies for capacity building are beginning to emerge.

8. Finally, the extent of the centralisation and politicisation in the three sectors has led to an inherent instability and uncertainty. Teacher education and development and leadership development are now subject to the vagaries of political whim, short-termism and change of ideology, leadership or government, resulting in vulnerability of organisations and programmes. In this respect the considerable cost of the NCSL central organisation and national infrastructure renders it especially vulnerable. In ITE the short-lived Fast Track route proved susceptible to a policy change, paradoxically at a time when succession planning for primary leadership was beginning to be seen as a significant concern.

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# APPENDIX 1

## THE PRIMARY REVIEW PERSPECTIVES, THEMES AND SUB THEMES

The Primary Review's enquiries are framed by three broad perspectives, the third of which, primary education, breaks down into ten themes and 23 sub-themes. Each of the latter then generates a number of questions. The full framework of review perspectives, themes and questions is at www.primaryreview.org.uk

**The Review Perspectives**

P1      Children and childhood
P2      Culture, society and the global context
P3      Primary education

**The Review Themes and Sub-themes**

**T1      Purposes and values**
      T1a      Values, beliefs and principles
      T1b      Aims

**T2      Learning and teaching**
      T2a      Children's development and learning
      T2b      Teaching

**T3      Curriculum and assessment**
      T3a      Curriculum
      T3b      Assessment

**T4      Quality and standards**
      T4a      Standards
      T4b      Quality assurance and inspection

**T5      Diversity and inclusion**
      T5a      Culture, gender, race, faith
      T5b      Special educational needs

**T6      Settings and professionals**
      T6a      Buildings and resources
      T6b      Teacher supply, training, deployment & development
      T6c      Other professionals
      T6d      School organisation, management & leadership
      T6e      School culture and ethos

**T7      Parenting, caring and educating**
      T7a      Parents and carers
      T7b      Home and school

**T8      Beyond the school**
      T8a      Children's lives beyond the school
      T8b      Schools and other agencies

**T9      Structures and phases**
      T9a      Within-school structures, stages, classes & groups
      T9b      System-level structures, phases & transitions

**T10      Funding and governance**
      T10a      Funding
      T10b      Governance

# APPENDIX 2

## THE EVIDENTIAL BASIS OF THE PRIMARY REVIEW

The Review has four evidential strands. These seek to balance opinion seeking with empirical data; non-interactive expressions of opinion with face-to-face discussion; official data with independent research; and material from England with that from other parts of the UK and from international sources. This enquiry, unlike some of its predecessors, looks outwards from primary schools to the wider society, and makes full though judicious use of international data and ideas from other countries.

**Submissions**

Following the convention in enquiries of this kind, submissions have been invited from all who wish to contribute. By June 2007, nearly 550 submissions had been received and more were arriving daily. The submissions range from brief single-issue expressions of opinion to substantial documents covering several or all of the themes and comprising both detailed evidence and recommendations for the future. A report on the submissions will be published in late 2007.

**Soundings**

This strand has two parts. The *Community Soundings* are a series of nine regionally based one to two day events, each comprising a sequence of meetings with representatives from schools and the communities they serve. The Community Soundings took place between January and March 2007, and entailed 87 witness sessions with groups of pupils, parents, governors, teachers, teaching assistants and heads, and with educational and community representatives from the areas in which the soundings took place. In all, there were over 700 witnesses. The *National Soundings* are a programme of more formal meetings with national organisations both inside and outside education. National Soundings A are for representatives of non-statutory national organisations, and they focus on educational policy. National Soundings B are for outstanding school practitioners; they focus on school and classroom practice. National Soundings C are variably-structured meetings with statutory and other bodies. National Soundings A and B will take place between January and March 2008. National Soundings C are outlined at 'other meetings' below.

**Surveys**

30 surveys of published research relating to the Review's ten themes have been commissioned from 70 academic consultants in universities in Britain and other countries. The surveys relate closely to the ten Review themes and the complete list appears in Appendix 3. Taken together, they will provide the most comprehensive review of research relating to primary education yet undertaken. They are being published in thematic groups from October 2007 onwards.

**Searches**

With the co-operation of DfES/DCSF, QCA, Ofsted, TDA and OECD, the Review is re-assessing a range of official data bearing on the primary phase. This will provide the necessary demographic, financial and statistical background to the Review and an important resource for its later consideration of policy options.

**Other meetings (now designated National Soundings C)**

In addition to the formal evidence-gathering procedures, the Review team meets members of various national bodies for the exchange of information and ideas: government and opposition representatives; officials at DfES/DCSF, QCA, Ofsted, TDA, GTC, NCSL and IRU; representatives of the teaching unions; and umbrella groups representing organisations involved in early years, primary education and teacher education. The first of three sessions with the House of Commons Education and Skills Committee took place in March 2007. Following the replacment of DfES by two separate departments, DCSF and DIUS, it is anticipated that there will be further meetings with this committee's successor.

**APPENDIX 3**

**THE PRIMARY REVIEW INTERIM REPORTS**

The interim reports, which are being released in stages from October 2007, include the 29 (initially 30) research surveys commissioned from external consultants together with reports on two of the Review's many public consultations: the community soundings (87 regional witness sessions held during 2007) and the submissions received from organisations and individuals in response to the invitation issued when the Review was launched in October 2006. The research surveys are listed below by Review theme, not by the order of their publication. Once published, each report, together with a briefing summarising its findings and overviews and press releases for each group of reports, may be downloaded from the Review website, www.primaryreview.org.uk.

**REPORTS ON PUBLIC CONSULTATIONS**

*Community soundings: the Primary Review regional witness sessions.*

*Submissions received by the Primary Review.*

**REPORTS ON THE SURVEYS OF RESEARCH AND OTHER PUBLISHED EVIDENCE**

THEME 1:        PURPOSES AND VALUES

1/1     *Aims as policy in English primary education*, by John White, University of London Institute of Education.

1/2     *Aims and values in primary education: England and other countries*, by Maha Shuayb and Sharon O'Donnell, National Foundation for Educational Research.

1/3     *Aims for primary education: the changing national context*, by Stephen Machin and Sandra McNally, University College London and London Schools of Economics and Political Science.

1/4     *Aims for primary education: changing global contexts*, by Hugh Lauder, John Lowe and Rita Chawla-Duggan, University of Bath.

THEME 2:        LEARNING AND TEACHING

2/1a    *Children's cognitive development and learning*, by Usha Goswami, University of Cambridge, and Peter Bryant, University of Oxford.

2/1b    *Children's social development, peer interaction and classroom learning*, by Christine Howe and Neil Mercer, University of Cambridge.

2/2     *Primary teaching and teachers*, by Robin Alexander and Maurice Galton, University of Cambridge.

2/4     *Learning and teaching in primary schools: insights from TLRP*, by Mary James and Andrew Pollard, University of London Institute of Education.

THEME 3:        CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT

3/1     *Curriculum and assessment policy: England and other countries*, by Kathy Hall, National University of Ireland, and Kamil Øzerk, University of Oslo.

3/2     *The trajectory and impact of national reform: curriculum and assessment in English primary schools*, by Dominic Wyse, University of Cambridge, and Elaine McCreery and Harry Torrance, Manchester Metropolitan University.

3/3     *Primary curriculum futures*, by James Conroy, Moira Hulme and Ian Menter, University of Glosgow.

3/4     *The quality of learning: assessment alternatives for primary education*, by Wynne Harlen, University of Bristol

THEME 4:        QUALITY AND STANDARDS

4/1     *Standards and quality in English primary schools over time: the national evidence*, by Peter Tymms and Christine Merrell, University of Durham.

4/2      *Standards in English primary education: the international evidence*, by Chris Whetton, Graham Ruddock and Liz Twist, National Foundation for Educational Research.

4/3      *Quality assurance in English primary education*, by Peter Cunningham and Philip Raymont, University of Cambridge.

THEME 5:      DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION

5/1      *Children in primary education: demography, culture, diversity and inclusion*, by Mel Ainscow, Alan Dyson and Frances Gallanaugh, University of Manchester, and Jean Conteh, University of Leeds.

5/2      *Learning needs and difficulties among children of primary school age: definition, identification, provision and issues*, by Harry Daniels and Jill Porter, University of Bath.

5/3      *Children and their primary schools: pupils' voices*, by Carol Robinson, University of Sussex, and Michael Fielding, University of London Institute of Education.

THEME 6:      SETTINGS AND PROFESSIONALS

6/1      *Primary schools: the built environment*, by Karl Wall, Julie Dockrell and Nick Peacey, University of London Institute of Education.

6/2      *Primary schools: the professional environment*, by Liz Jones, Andy Pickard and Ian Stronach, Manchester Metropolitan University.

6/3      *Primary teachers: initial teacher education, continuing professional development and school leadership development*, by Olwen McNamara and Rosemary Webb, Manchester University, and Mark Brundrett, Liverpool John Moores University.

6/4      *Primary workforce management and reform*, by Hilary Burgess, Open University.

THEME 7:      PARENTING, CARING AND EDUCATING

7/1      *Parenting, caring and educating*, by Yolande Muschamp, Felicity Wikeley, Tess Ridge and Maria Balarin, University of Bath.

THEME 8:      BEYOND THE SCHOOL

8/1      *Children's lives outside school and their educational impact*, by Berry Mayall, University of London Institute of Education.

8/2      *Primary schools and other agencies*, by Ian Barron, Rachel Holmes and Maggie MacLure, Manchester Metropolitan University, and Katherine Runswick-Cole, University of Sheffield.

THEME 9:      STRUCTURES AND PHASES

9/1      *The structure of primary education: England and other countries*, by Anna Riggall and Caroline Sharp, National Foundation for Educational Research.

9/2      *Classes, groups and transitions: structures for teaching and learning,* by Peter Blatchford, Susan Hallam and Judith Ireson, University of London Institute of Education, and Peter Kutnick, Kings College, University of London, with Andrea Creech, University of London Institute of Education.

THEME 10:      FUNDING AND GOVERNANCE

10/1      *The funding of English primary education*, by Philip Noden and Anne West, London School of Economics and Political Science.

10/2      *The governance and administration of English primary education*, by Maria Balarin and Hugh Lauder, University of Bath.

... children, their world, their education

The Primary Review is a wide-ranging independent enquiry into the condition and future
of  primary education in England. It is supported by Esmée Fairbairn Foundation,
based at the University of Cambridge and directed by Robin Alexander.
The Review was launched in October 2006 and aims to publish its final report in autumn 2008.

**FURTHER INFORMATION**

www.primaryreview.org.uk

General enquiries: enquiries@primaryreview.org.uk

Media enquiries: richard@margrave.co.uk