A Case Study of the Impact of Credit Bearing Programmes Relating to Teachers from One Institution of Higher Education.

Ian Terrell

A thesis in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of Leicester for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Submission Feb 2003
Abstract

A key component of school improvement initiatives has been the professional development of teachers. However, relatively little work has been undertaken to explore the contribution made by programmes in higher education in the professional development of teachers and their institutions. This is despite some considerable doubt raised by some writers and official policies.

This research focuses upon the evidence for impact, the conditions that contribute to that impact and an analysis of the role of HE in the professional development of teachers in the context of school improvement. The research is a case study of one institution. A naturalistic and interpretative approach is adopted, portraying the views of participants on the APU programme. Data is collected through semi structured interviews and supported by observation, documentary analysis and Ofsted reports.

The research concludes that impact is widespread and ubiquitous, and that conditions are found in individual motivations, within schools and within the HEI provider. This leads to a conclusion that care for the whole system of education, including the university sector is essential for developing continuous improvement. In particular, the way the profession values academic awards, and the inherent qualities of critical reflection, research, and analysis that the awards represent are shown to be an important factor or condition in assessing 'impact'.
Acknowledgements

This work would not have been possible without the support of many colleagues, collaborators, friends and my family. The latter particularly have endured many days without the dubious benefit of my presence. Will and Katie regretfully bore the brunt of my absence and their blossoming has been so quick yet so great. I regret missing any second of it. Kathryn has been the most dedicated and skilled of unpaid research proof-readers and editors. She has supported this long-term project without hesitation and a huge degree of encouragement.

I have worked with enjoyment and pleasure with many colleagues, collaborators and friends over several years all of whom I am in debt to in many ways. Their ideas, argument, encouragement and support have been a constant source of sustenance. My thanks and appreciation go to Dette, Ed, Gill, Stephen, Kate, Pete, Richard, Graham, Sandra, Marilyn, Malcolm, Karen and many more. I have been introduced to their special generosity and cannot express my appreciation warmly enough.

And to the many teachers, and managers who have supplied the materials for this work, please feel my gratitude. In particular, the special few who are anonymised yet worked closely in forming my ideas by articulating their voice.

What of Ultralab? There cannot be any better place to undertake research. The real acceptance of the need for giving people space does nothing to lighten the work-load, nor does it provide time, yet it is of such considerable value; such fun, such argument, so many ideas, such invention, such support. This is why you are a pleasure to work with. The ‘can do’ people.

The enduring practical support and encouragement of Dr Mark Brundrett deserves a special mention, as he has a rare quality in providing both clarity of purpose and feasible objectives, a quality that is much required in this area of work.
Table of Contents

| Title page | i |
| Abstract | ii |
| Acknowledgements | iii |
| Table of Contents | v |
| List of tables | ix |

1. Introduction and Context | 1 |

- The Context and Purpose of the Research | 5 |
- The Issue of Impact of Higher Education Programmes | 9 |
- The Key Questions and Structure of the Thesis | 15 |

2. The Impact of CPD on Teachers and their Institutions | 19 |

2.1 What is the Impact of CPD on teachers and their institutions? | 20 |
- TTA MORI Research | 22 |
- The TTA Survey of SEN training | 25 |
- Evidence from the effective teaching of numeracy and literacy research | 27 |
- The debate in the USA | 31 |
- How ‘impact’ is defined and ‘measured’? | 34 |
- Typology and hierarchy of outcomes | 35 |
- Objective measurement of standards of learning and teaching | 36 |
- Conclusion: The Evidence on impact of HE programmes | 37 |

2.2 What are the conditions under which impact is maximised? | 38 |

- The characteristics of effective CPD programmes | 39 |
- The components of training | 41 |
- The role of HE programmes in effective CPD for teachers | 43 |
- The characteristics of effective CPD in HE | 45 |
- Other conditions that affect the impact of CPD | 47 |

2.3 How does CPD in HE relate to school improvement and raising achievement? | 50 |

- Teacher Standards in the USA, Queensland and the UK | 60 |
- The role of HEIs in developing the school improvement professional | 68 |
- The claim for a body of knowledge | 76 |
- The claim for a profession based upon research and evidence | 76 |
- Claims and criticisms of the teacher research movement | 80 |
- The link between the teacher as researcher movement and accredited higher education awards | 83 |
The reflective practitioner
What is the role of theory in effective professional development?
The Creation of Knowledge through being 'critical'
Conceptions of professionalism, the State and Higher Education
Credit Bearing HE Programmes and school improvement
The New School Improvement agenda and the role of HEI
Conclusion: What the literature does and does not tell us.

3. Research Methodology and Methods

Introduction 103

3.1. A definition and purpose of research and this study. 104

3.2 A systematic naturalistic and interpretative multiple case study evaluation 105

Introduction 104

Naturalistic and interpretative research 108
Pre-structuring or grounding the data 111
Values in this form of research 112
The Research as case study 112
The advancement of knowledge 116
Trustworthiness: the nature of truth, reality, validity, and reliability in this research 117
Generalisation from this case study and the importance of context 123

3.3 Illuminative Evaluation as Research 124

The evaluation of Continuing Professional Development 128

3.4 The Methods used for Data Collection and Analysis 131

Phase One Enquiry: Semi-structured interviews of University based students 131
Phase Two Enquiry: Case study cohorts 134
1. Belfry cohort case study 135
2. Randall cohort case study 136
3. The Snowdon cohort case study 137
4. St Bede's cohort case study 137
5. Thorpe LEA programme case study 138
Phase Three Enquiry: the Headteacher interviews 138

3.5 Analysis through Progressive Focusing 139

Stage One: The use of Stakes matrix for descriptive data 140
Stage Two: Expansion of the matrix 140
Stage Three: Testing the validity of the representation 140
Stage Four: Refining the generalisations 140

3.6 The analysis of the data 141
3.7 Conclusion

4 The Empirical Results of the Enquiry:

4.1 The Phase One Enquiry: University Based Students on CPD Modules in Higher Education

4.1.2 Antecedents to impact
   The Teacher personal dimension
   The Higher Education dimension
   The school dimension

4.1.3 Processes that maximise the impact of CPD in Higher Education

4.1.4 Outcomes of the CPD Programme in Higher Education

Conclusion

4.2 Case Studies of Individual Teachers

4.2.2 A Case Study of JB

4.2.3 A Case Study of MB.

4.2.4 A Case Study of NO

4.2.5 A Case Study of LL

4.2.6 A Case Study of GQ

4.3 Conclusion of Phase One of the Research: University Based Programmes.

4. 4 Enquiry Phase Two School and LEA Case Studies

4.4.1 A case study of a CPD programme in Higher Education delivered at Belfry School.

4.4.2 A case Study of the impact of an HE Module at Randall School

4.4.3 A case Study of a school based module at Snowdon School

4.4.4 A case study of a programme in partnership with an LEA: St Bede’s School

4.4.5 A case study of a module delivered by Thorpe LEA in partnership with APU.

4.4.6 Conclusion and overview of Phase Two of the research: School and LEA based case studies.

4.5 Head Teachers Views
   Outcomes of CPD in Higher Education
   Conclusion and discussion
   Culture, level and discourse

vi
### 5 Analysis and Conclusions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Question One: What is the impact of CPD in HE?</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The learning of early and mid-career teachers</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An assessment of the data</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions about Impact of CPD in Higher Education</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Question Two: What are the conditions that maximise ‘impact’?</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions in the HE institution leading to impact</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3. What is the role of HE institutions in school improvement.</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6. Conclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1 The impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their institutions.</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 The conditions under which impact is maximised</td>
<td>272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3. The role of HE in school improvement.</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References 281
Appendix 1 Contextual Data and Permission Form 290
Appendix 2 The Interview Schedule 291
Appendix 3 Word Count 292
Appendix 4 Record of Interviews 293
List of Tables and Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>The MA and BA (Hons) Education pathway and awards</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Table 2. Level criteria for academic awards</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>A model locating the research within school improvement theory.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4</td>
<td>Table 4 The characteristics of CPD in Higher Education</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5</td>
<td>The Dreyfus model</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6</td>
<td>Mckernon's definition of a profession</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 7</td>
<td>The link between speed and mode of cognition.</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 1</td>
<td><em>Model of Experiential Learning</em></td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 2</td>
<td><em>Client-Centred Consultancy</em></td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 8</td>
<td>Conceptions of teaching (from Whitty et al 1988)</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 9</td>
<td>Three models of teacher education</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 10</td>
<td>Comparison of the key concepts of school improvement and goals of HEI.</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 11</td>
<td>Characteristics of this research in relation to Robson's criteria for qualitative research</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 12</td>
<td>Bassey's Conceptualisation of Case Study in Relation to this Research</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 13</td>
<td>Greene's four contemporary approaches to evaluation</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 14</td>
<td>Phase One interviews</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 15</td>
<td>Interview schedule</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 16</td>
<td>Headteacher interview record</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 17</td>
<td>Simplified model of CPD and impact</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 19</td>
<td>Teacher personal dimension</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 20</td>
<td>Practical outcomes of CPD in higher education.</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 21</td>
<td>Personal outcomes of CPD in higher education</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 22</td>
<td>Outcomes of CPD in HE for the institution</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 23</td>
<td>Excerpts of the 1996 Ofsted report</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 24</td>
<td>Extract from dissertation</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 25</td>
<td>Excerpts from the 1998 Ofsted report</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 26</td>
<td>Excerpts form the interviews</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 27</td>
<td>Summary Assessment of the case studies</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 28</td>
<td>Outcomes of CPD in higher education.</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 29  A development of the Dreyfus model 257
Table 30  Conditions for maximising the impact of CPD in Higher Education 260
Table 31  Processes that maximise impact of CPD in Higher Education 265
Table 32  The Impact of Programmes of CPD in HE. 272
Table 33  Model 2 273
Table 34  Adaptations to Brown and Earley 276
Table 35  School Improvement and the Goals of HE 277
Chapter One.
Introduction and Context

The research embodied in this submission is about the ‘impact’ of continuing professional development (CPD) on teachers and their institutions, and the conditions that lead to, and maximise that impact. There are many types of CPD. However, the focus here is on the kind of continuing professional development, delivered by higher education institutions (HEIs) and related to academic award bearing programmes at ‘master’s’ level.

The research arises from the studies associated with raising student achievement, school effectiveness and improvement in the field of education research and practice. The last 20-30 years have been marked by a concern for raising the attainment of pupils, for the development of more effective schools and by notions of ‘school improvement’. This concern has been addressed by the myriad of pieces of legislation, dating back to the so-called ‘Great Debate’ following James Callaghan’s Ruskin College speech in 1976. This includes the ‘Educational Reform Act (ERA) of 1988 and more recent legislation and government initiatives such as the DFES CPD strategy of 2001 (DFES 2001).

In the research literature, Mortimore et al (1988), Reynolds et al (1992), Rutter et al (1979) and others, have focused upon the characteristics of effective schools. These studies, and others have identified key components of ‘effectiveness’ including, as in Mortimore et al’ (1988) study, ‘purposeful leadership’, ‘consistency’, ‘a structured day’, ‘challenging teaching’, ‘thorough record keeping’ and ‘a positive climate’. Such research findings have been much criticised. (See for instance Hopkins et al 1994) Many of the early studies focused largely on a limited range of achievements through public examination, and thus, as a consequence were secondary education biased. Others merely reflected socio-economic differences in pupils and used only ‘‘free school meals’ as a surrogate indicator. Hopkins et al (1994) questioned how the characteristics were being defined, where the empirical data is to be found, and the notion of identifying factors, rather than a more holistic approach to culture. (Hopkins et al 1994:49). Nevertheless, there have been many attempts to replicate these
characteristics in schools that are deemed to be not so effective, indeed the Ofsted school inspection process is based upon this notion.

More recently there has been an interest in the philosophical and sociological grounding of this work in the exchange between Smyth and Dow (1998) and Hargreaves and Moore (2000). The former allege a fundamental shift in educational discourse to a focus on ‘outcomes’ and the key ideas of ‘vocationalism’, ‘managerialism’, instrumentalism, ‘surveillance’ ‘rational planning’ and ‘technocratic’ solutions.

Such an argument is not new. Goldby (1989) outlines the traditional tensions between the vocational, liberal and personal strands of the school curriculum. Evidence is found in Plowden (1963), Newsam (1964) and the earlier governmental reports and educational acts between 1870 and 1944 (Williams 1958). Whitaker (1993) characterises different perspectives on change including resorting to ‘authoritarian control’ and technocratic ‘hyper-expansionism’. Williams (1958) outlines the ‘long revolution’ without fundamental change in resolving these tensions in curriculum, organisation, control and structures.

Hargreaves (2000) criticises Smyth and Dow for holding a monolithic stance with regard to school improvement and effectiveness and for avoiding the complexities of the empirical evidence. He argues that the needs of industry and other social needs such as social justice and the pursuit of equitable social purposes are not mutually exclusive outcomes. Significantly, he alleges, that the Smyth and Dow analysis misses how teachers relate to and reinterpret the ‘outcomes’ movement to pursue more educative and egalitarian ends, not least in how they work with students and parents. This study will pursue an interest in how CPD in HE relates to such an engagement with this centralised management orientated approach to ‘outcomes’.

The legacy of the school effectiveness movement is that not least it shifted the discourse from ‘Schools Cannot Compensate for Society’ (Bernstein 1970) to a notion that ‘schools can make a difference’ and that some do more than others.
However, much of this debate between Smyth and Dow, Hargreaves and Moore and others, seems to have centred upon the ‘effectiveness’ movement even where they have adopted the generic term ‘improvement’ to mean any form of so called ‘improvement’. It would appear that few of these studies have referred back to Hopkins et al’s 1994 work, ‘School Improvement in an Era of Change’ which developed the notion of continuous improvement based upon building the school’s capacity for change. Using the International School Improvement Project (ISIP) definition, Hopkins et al regard school improvement as ‘a systematic sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools, with the ultimate aim of accomplishing goals more effectively’ (Hopkins et al (1994) citing van Velzen et al 1985). Later, Hopkins goes on to develop the notion that school improvement is a continuous process to build the internal conditions in schools so that they can cope with external pressures for change and to raise the educational achievements of all pupils.

Hopkins et al (1994) consider that the school is the centre of change. The central improvement ‘capacities’ are systems of effective ‘planning’, ‘leadership’ from across the school, the ‘involvement’ of staff and stakeholders and ‘coordination’. Two further components are of particular interest. ‘Staff development’ and teacher ‘reflection and enquiry’ would seem to be central to this study, although Hopkins, with other writers, such as Fullan and Bolam seem to be dismissive of programmes in universities (see page 39-42).

Others, including Fullan (1981, 1991), Dalin (1998), Louis and Miles (1990), Joyce et al (1999) have been keen exponents of the ‘school improvement movement’. This work sits firmly within a notion of continuous improvement and the building of ‘capacity’. However, there are some tensions, as will be seen. This work focuses upon one external agency (HEI), in its desire to build capacity through the knowledge and skills of teachers. As such, it relates rather more to analysis at system level rather than school level (as indeed does the work of Fullan 1991). In line with this, a notion of partnership between schools and external agencies, such as HEIs, is pursued.

In the recent past, both school effectiveness and school improvement literature has looked more closely at teaching and learning. Hence, Creemers (1994) Cullingford
(1995), Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997) and Muijs and Reynolds (2001) all focus upon the notion of effective teaching and learning processes. Much of this work began by identifying effective practice but relatively little, apart from the work of Joyce (e.g. Joyce and Showers 1988) and Hopkins (e.g. Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1997, 1999) say much about how these approaches are developed by teachers.

One area of enquiry, and one central to Hopkin’s notion of ‘capacity building’ has been the study of staff development, in-service education and training (INSET) or using its latest incarnation ‘continuous professional development’. The very myriad of terms used for education and training activities for teachers is perhaps evidence of both its development and its uncertain identity. Recently, there has been a renewed and significant interest in ‘professional development’, and particularly its impact on teachers and their schools (for example Easen (1985), Day (1999), Bradley et al (1994)). Interest and emphasis upon ‘staff development’ has culminated in the DFES CPD Strategy (2001) as a central plank of government policy described by Bolam (2001), as a major and significant opportunity.

While at government level CPD has become a major issue, it has brought with it government (indeed treasury) concern that there should be value for money and some signs of ‘impact’. Such recent interest has an earlier tradition in the Investors in People Standard (1993) and in the work of Joyce and Showers (1988). More recently the inspection of both LEAs and higher education CPD programmes have looked at the effectiveness of staff development programmes. A recent NFER study (Brown et al 2001) also looked at what forms of LEA support for staff development made a difference.

Hence, the study of CPD and its impact on teachers and their institutions is a legitimate area of enquiry within the school effectiveness and improvement areas of study. However, while something has been said of some forms of CPD little has been said of CPD in the context of higher education programmes, particularly those at ‘master’s’ level.
The Context and Purpose of the Research

The empirical work of the study is based upon the HE provision of CPD for teachers at Anglia Polytechnic University, where the author was Head of CPD, between 1998 and 2001. As HE provision across the country varies, it was decided to base the empirical work on one university CPD programme. This holds the variables to those that are pertinent to this one programme in an attempt to portray a rich picture of what conditions might lead to impact in other cases.

The programme selected is the Integrated Modular In-Service Course Scheme (IMICS), which is at the heart of this case study. This is a modular scheme where credits gained may lead to a number of different professional and academic awards for teachers and others working in education, including MA in Education, Post Graduate Certificate or Post Graduate Diploma. Undergraduate awards include the BA (Hons) Education, Graduate Certificate and Graduate Diploma. Table 1 outlines some of the details of credit and awards.

Participants choose modules from a bank of modules covering all aspects of the curriculum, teaching and management in Education. This enables modules to be delivered to meet local and national priorities for school improvement.

At the time of writing there are about 600 participants in the scheme who are currently active, 400 of them being in Suffolk, and the rest largely in Essex or the outer east London boroughs.

In some ways there is nothing particularly special in the design and delivery of credit bearing programmes in HE, since any provider can emulate what HE does. Teachers on any programme of CPD can be asked to look at theoretical models, read or be presented with relevant literature or research or undertake action enquiry. It is somewhat rare, but not unheard of to incorporate classroom observation and feedback, on such programmes.

Rather, ‘credit bearing programmes’ is short hand term for the generic learning outcomes of graduate and post-graduate programmes, and how they relate to
Table 1 The MA and BA (Hons) Education Pathway and Awards at APU.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pathway</th>
<th>Credits at Level</th>
<th>Comprising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MA (Education)</strong></td>
<td>180</td>
<td>60 credit compulsory Summative Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30 credit compulsory Research Methodology module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90 credits through modules and/or accreditation (90 maximum by accreditation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post Graduate Diploma in Education</strong></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120 credits through modules and/or accreditation (80 maximum by accreditation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post Graduate Certificate in Education</strong></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60 credits through modules (no accreditation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BA Pathway</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Entry to the BA Pathway is normally a Cert. Ed, or equivalent, for which we allow 240 credits (see below).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BA (Hons) Education</strong></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>30 credit compulsory Summative Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90 credits through modules (no accreditation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BA Education</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100 credits through modules (no accreditation and the Cert. Ed will be counted as 200 points)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Graduate Diploma Pathway</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate Diploma in Professional Studies in Education 120 credits at Level H, comprising:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Graduate Diploma in Professional Studies in Education</strong></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>30 credit compulsory Summative Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90 credits through modules and/or accreditation (60 maximum by accreditation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Graduate Certificate in Professional Studies in Education</strong></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60 credits through modules (no accreditation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

knowledge, skills and attitudes of teachers. However, the academic awards, the notion of level and assessment criteria are three distinguishing features that are not features of all CPD activities. What these represent to the participants and their aspirations will be seen in the study.
This detail illustrates a methodological problem. Students have both a free choice of modules and a choice of one of two levels/pathways. In addition, students do not necessarily have to complete pathways. This flexibility is designed into the programme to create student led coherence, enhance relevance and to promote impact. Hence, the content of study or the curriculum, amount, duration or even completion, are not constant variables in the study of impact. Largely then, our enquiry is centred upon impact of modules or within the individuals collection of modules (However far they have got), Hence, the importance outlined later of case studies of individuals or groups (See pages 116-118). This study is limited to the impact of credit bearing programmes for academic award. In this case study of one institutions programme this amounts to the BA (Hons) and MA Education pathways, and any staged awards. However, all respondents used in the work are on the master’s level pathway and this is the focus of the work.

Broadly, the study assumes that these are similar in all HE programmes. Since the work is a case study of one institution, (APU) there is no real issue here. In line with most programmes, credit is transferable from different HE programmes, in the case study HEIs case, up to a maximum of 2/3rds of the final award. Hence, some of the students have studies in different institutions and comparability is implied by the credit accumulation and transfer scheme (CATS)

The study also assumes that success on the programmes is a reliable indicator that these attributes have been acquired, since that position is validated by internal and external quality assurance procedures, and now Ofsted-TTA inspection. In short, those teachers involved in the study are achieving those learning outcomes.

The study looks at the value of the generic learning outcomes, which at APU are found in Table 2.
At the heart of this study, therefore, is the assumption that the participants of CPD programmes in HE have or are acquiring the knowledge, skills and attributes associated with those qualifications.

**Level H:**

(i) select, and negotiate where necessary, appropriate assessment tasks either individually or as a member of a group
(ii) demonstrate the possession of practical competences appropriate to their professional development.
(iii) demonstrate a knowledge and understanding of appropriate literature, and comment and of its relevance to current thinking and practice
(iv) show critical awareness in relating the theoretical and practical components of their professional development in a way which informs discussion and understanding of issues and problems.
(v) show their ability to reflect on and evaluate their own understanding and competence in a way which illuminates their individual strengths and weaknesses.
(vi) invoke and develop appropriate theoretical models in order to conceptualize and investigate their current and evolving practice.
(vii) evaluate established theory and practice through valid argument and appropriate evidence.
(viii) share their knowledge and understanding in writing or other medium in a form which is lucid, structured and logically consistent

**Level M Criteria:**

In addition to (i) - (viii) above, criteria at Level 4 require the ability to:

(ix) to propose and negotiate appropriate assessment tasks either individually or as a member of a group.
(x) propose their own alternatives to established theory and practice supported by valid argument and appropriate evidence.
(xi) demonstrate the ability to isolate significant theoretical and practical issues in their professional work and to propose their individually unique responses through synthesis of relevant practice and theory.

**Table 2 Criteria for Academic Award at APU.**

Going on from this is the question as to whether this affects their work in school improvement and raising achievement. This is connected, of course, with the work of the teacher and the profession of ‘teaching’ is conceptualised.

The reader may note, therefore, that there are a number of purposes emerging. Firstly there is the key purpose of exploring an area of school improvement literature and theory that has not been explored fully, indeed one might argue it has even been dismissed as unimportant, despite major activity by HEIs and a some considerable spending by government agencies. Second, the work seeks to explore whether HEI provision has impact for there are those that argue that there is little or no evidence that it does. Third, there is the practical purpose of seeking to find out what leads to impact so that conditions may be built to maximise it. Although focusing upon one
institution, any findings may be adaptable to, repeatable, ‘relateable to’, and applicable to other HEI provision, and indeed to some other similar forms of provision.

**The Issue of Impact of Higher Education Programmes**

This study then is focused upon the question of what ‘impact’ staff development/professional development centred on one HEI programme has on teachers and their institutions in the pursuit of effectiveness and school improvement. The study, rooted as it is in a ‘school improvement’ concern for ‘conditions’ and ‘capacity’, is also interested in the conditions that lead to and perhaps maximises that impact. This may be partly for the practical reasons of attempting to maximise impact but also because how impact is maximised is a ‘school improvement’ research question in itself.

In the area of CPD provided by HEIs, there has been growing and specific interest. The questions asked here are important for a number of reasons, however, the research was given special impetus by the interest of the Teacher Training Agency in the United Kingdom in evaluating the impact of HEI programmes and the more general desire to raise standards of education.

The removal of funding for CPD in HE from the HEFCE, its replacement by a TTA bidding system to meet ‘National Priorities’ in 1998, was but one sign of this interest. A TTA commissioned MORI survey had illustrated the unfocused use of CPD budgets and the lack of evaluation of its impact.

This interest culminated in the Ofsted/TTA evaluation of HEI provision, which reported in the summer of 2000. By way of introducing the notion of the Inspection, the TTA pointed out that the impact of such programmes was not clearly known. (TTA covering letter Geoffrey Parker, 26th July 1995).

Clearly, several assumptions underpin the interest in CPD in higher education, most notably that it can contribute to initiatives to raise achievement of pupils, to improve the teaching and learning in schools, to enhance the management of schools and be
part of a general ‘school improvement’ initiative. This is in contrast to the specific use of ‘school improvement’ in the work of Hopkins (1994) and the International School Improvement Project (ISIP). As was stated earlier, this is based upon the ability of schools to build internal conditions to take on external pressures for change and to turn them into a continuous improvement process, a definition used in this work.

The argument, therefore, was put that CPD programmes in HE may not have ‘impact’. Whether there was impact or not, it could be argued, was the responsibility of the funding agency of government to find out. However, many practitioners in HE interpreted the raising of the question of impact in these terms, as part of a general attack on the role HE in the education and training of teachers. For instance, the particular interest of the Agency in the less than 10% of professional development money that was spent in funding HE programmes was cited as evidence of an antipathy within the seat of government towards the HE sectors involvement in Education1.

It has been noted that other TTA initiatives such as the NPQH programme had sought to marginalise, if not minimise the role of HE institutions. (Bolam 2000)

The choice of the word impact is also interesting in these official documents, and one would imagine denote something in terms of the thinking of the government agencies involved. Earlier work such as Kinder et al (1991) concerned itself with the notion of effect and effectiveness. The choice seemed to indicate an expectation that CPD in HE had only the narrow instrumental focus of improving teaching and management competence, rather than any wider objectives to do with criticality, analysis or the development of new professional perspectives. Implied was the notion that government knew the secrets of effective teaching and managing and that public money should only be spent to deliver programmes that enabled teachers to acquire these known skills. Learning these skills and transferring them to the classroom can be achieved in cost efficient ways and measured, almost immediately.

---

1 Terrell UCET CPD Sub Committee Notes 1999
At one discussion of the University Committee for the Education and Training of Teachers (UCET) sub-committee for CPD, Myers, a well known author on school improvement, argued that the government should be told that 'we don't do impact'.

At that meeting it was proposed to outline (in theoretical or perhaps aspiration form) what 'UCET' thought the 'impact' of CPD in HE programmes were. Therefore, a core aim of this work is at least to provide some empirical evidence of the kinds of impact that HE programmes have.

'Kinds of impact', is important because the work explores a range of impacts in addition to changing practice, including knowledge of published research, the application of theoretical models, the development of critical reflective thinking and the promotion of practitioner research and enquiry.

However, the immediate interest in the Teacher Training Agency in the impact of programmes in HE on teachers was not the only stimulus for this research. There is also the practical interest in how best to develop the quality of the programme so that it does have demonstrable 'impact', not least because such a programme would be marketable and thereby sustainable. A further aim of attempting to address the issue of the relationship between schools and universities in the interest in building the conditions for impacting upon practice also stimulated the work. Clearly, underpinning these practical considerations was also a perceived weakness of the empirical and theoretical work on the impact of CPD programmes in HE, and its relationship with school improvement.

Easen’s (1985) work placed an emphasis upon school focused and school based in-service training. Kinder et al (1991) in their study for NFER, emphasises planning to meet school needs, in-class support and working alongside colleagues.

The review of effective staff development by Hopkins (1986), in which the work of authors including Joyce, Fullan, and Bolam, are used to emphasise that effective staff development was essentially school based and focused, long-term, and planned according to school need. The chapter, somewhat alarmingly is rather dismissive of

---

2 Contemporaneous Notes 1999
the higher education sector’s involvement, and explicitly does not deal with higher education programmes.

Such a view seems somewhat at odds with the experience of writers who lead CPD and school improvement programmes with teachers. Consider for example, the work of Hopkins at Cambridge University and latterly University of Nottingham, Fullan, at the University of Toronto, Bolam at the University of Cardiff, and Easen at the University of Newcastle. It seems illogical to suggest that HE has no role in school improvement through continuing professional development programmes for teachers. However, empirical work on the impact of this work is rare, and there is little that acknowledges the academic nature of the work (See pages 20-39). It is known, however, that at least some, if not many of the participants in their programmes are undertaking the programmes for academic award.

The programmes within the selected HEI were largely based upon the notion of school improvement outlined by Hopkins et al (1994), specifically geared to building the internal conditions within schools with the aim of enabling them to take on external pressures to raise the achievement of all pupils.

Specifically, the modules focused upon the topics that were Hopkins’ six conditions of leadership, staff development, enquiry and reflection, planning, involvement and co-ordination (Hopkins et al 1994). A particular emphasis was placed upon teaching and learning (particularly in the popular module, ‘Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning’), following Hopkins et al 1994, Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1997. The style of professional development borrowed as much as was practicable from Joyce and Showers (1988) and Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997).

Yet, both the literature and government agencies seemed to imply little involvement for higher education in this school improvement process, and at best only a ‘provider’ status, alongside any other providers such as LEAs or commercial agencies.

This research therefore, does not seek to contradict such theoretical and empirical work, but seeks to explore the gaps (See Table 3). For example, ‘accreditation’ as an influencing factor features little in current literature. Neither is much known
concerning the effect of reading, research and literature. The role of the tutor, the setting of assignments, and having assessed work, all seem to be unexplored avenues in the literature on the conditions for effective CPD. Similarly, the nature of the relationship between school and university seem to be missing factors in the current accounts.

Eraut remarks that universities have always had a weak role in the education of teachers and suggests the greater power of the professional organisations, the persistence of minority and elitism and the resultant lack of diversity in the HE sector. (Eraut 1994:8). He does however call for ‘a new relationship between the professions and higher education’ focusing upon joint responsibility for ‘knowledge creation, development and dissemination’.

It is not clear from Eraut’s work, which HEI programme he is basing his argument on. It is highly likely that different institutions may have different programmes. Certainly, some of his ideas seem to be portrayed from a rather dated, stereotypical view of HEI programmes and not current CPD practice with teachers. This work, therefore, seeks to make a case study of the conditions that lead to impact on teachers and the profession, yet also meet the knowledge creation and critical reflective requirements

School Improvement
‘building the internal conditions within schools with the aim of enabling them to take on external pressures to raise the achievement of all pupils.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions for School Improvement (Hopkins 1994)</th>
<th>Conditions for Effective Inset (Hopkins 1987) School focused School based Long term Planned and evaluated Involving trials, demonstration and feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Known</td>
<td>Known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their institutions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The conditions that lead to that impact.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The role of HE in school improvement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 A model locating the research within school improvement theory
As was said earlier, professional development of teachers in higher education and for academic award is under a substantial attack by central government, only matched by the continued assault on LEAs.

As the ex-Chief Inspector himself has said,

"Teachers should abandon their culture of dependency on experts in universities and town halls and learn how to teach better from their successful peers, Chris Woodhead, the chief inspector of schools said this week.” (Woodhead C reported in TES Feb 26th 1999).

and

“Good teaching was both an art and a craft, the chief inspector said. But good teachers did not need to be “expert in the latest theory of multiple intelligences”; they need not sit at the feet of the local authority adviser to learn how children learn or to travel to the nearest university to soak up the wisdom of the professor of professional development” (Woodhead C reported in TES Feb 26th 1999).

Attacks on the study of education and the development of theoretical knowledge within education are not new. Simon has raised the question, ‘why no pedagogy in the UK?’ (Simon in Dale 1988). In this account, he includes the influence of universities and public schools in militating against the study of pedagogy.

Eraut writes that,

‘In the international context, it is important to recognise that the process of incorporating significant parts of professional preparation into higher education has been much slower in Britain than in many other countries. Reasons include the greater power of the professional organisations in Britain, the persistence of elite rather than mass higher education and the concomitant lack of diversity in the higher-education system prior to the formation of the polytechnics.’ (Eraut 1994: 8)
The view that CPD programmes in HE might not have impact seemed, at the start of this research to be contrary to experience. Advertised programmes recruited teachers who paid fees, often from their own pockets. In my experience, many participants left saying how good the programme was. It would seem illogical to assume a large degree of professional dissatisfaction, yet of course little empirical work on what the impact had been was published.

Logically one might argue that a professional qualification for a graduate profession might imply graduate and post-graduate continuing professional development. There were also issues of professional leadership arising in ones thoughts, as it was noticeable that many educational leaders including HMI inspectors and headteachers have ‘master’s’ qualifications. Yet, again no empirical work seemed to have been undertaken looking at the impact of CPD in HE and the conditions that lead to such impact.

Furthermore the role of HE in the professional development of teachers and in efforts of school improvement has not been established. Barnett's work in the 1990s has developed the notion of the changing role of HE and key feature of ‘criticality’. Yet little has been written about the specific role in terms of teaching and education. It is clear however, from the above that government, from time to time, regards the role of HE in teacher education with some suspicion if not antipathy.

The Key Questions and Structure of the Thesis.

All of the above then, focuses attention on the three major questions of this study, which are:

1. What is the impact of continuing professional development (CPD) in higher education (HE) on teachers and their institutions?

2. What conditions maximise the impact of such programmes?

3. What, therefore, is the role of higher education in school improvement and the continuing professional development of teachers.
Clearly, these fundamental questions lead to other questions to be considered. The first leads us to consider:

- What do we know about the impact of CPD on teachers and their institutions?
- What do teachers say about the impact?
- How is impact defined and measured?

The second question seeks to find conditions in schools that teachers work in, in the programme of CPD in the HEI, and in the teachers themselves. Again, the focus of the empirical work will be on the views of teachers about what led to ‘impact’

The third question concerns both the existing relationship and future relationships that we might wish to build, in the cause of school improvement and the professional development of teachers. Having discovered that the nature and extent of the impact in question one, and the conditions that build impact, the third question looks at the relationship between universities, schools and practitioners. Hence, this research is a form of applied research in which the lessons learned are seen as important for building an improved future. (See pages 127-128)

The thesis is structured around six parts. In the review of the literature the key ideas and research of this field are identified. While focusing upon the three key questions the work will analyse more fully both the effectiveness and improvement movements. Attention will focus upon the limited available evidence that CPD has to offer more effective and improving schools. There will be an analysis of the conception of improvement and the underpinning notion of ‘teachers and the profession of teaching’. Key notions about reflective practice and the ‘reflective practitioner’ are explored and the contribution of HEI programmes are examined.

The seminal work of Hopkins (1986) on effective staff development is reviewed and the growth of the school based-school focused notion are documented. Gaps in the school improvement/staff development movement literature will be revealed, particularly with regard to the specific role and impact of programmes led by HEIs and that the lack of attention to forms of accreditation, awards or levels, in the writing about CPD and school improvement.
The research methodology chapter outlines in detail the kind of research that is being undertaken here. The research deliberately chooses a case study approach looking at the ‘impact’ on students (teachers) and institutions from one HEI programme. This is not mere convenience but rather a deliberate attempt to construct a case study on one programme.

The richness of the stories told by the students has been pursued in a naturalistic research style, conducted as a practitioner-participant enquiry. In addition, therefore, there is a strong evaluative element leading to attempts to develop the quality of the programme. The particular strengths of this approach are outlined in this chapter.

Hence, much of the data is derived from semi-structured interviews but is enhanced by observation, accounts of work and assignments, evaluation tools. Like much research of this kind there is a wealth of data, over many years, which also forms a background to this account but is not reported here.

An essential characteristic, therefore, of this study of impact, is the perceptions of the teachers involved in the programme, rather than, for example, some measurement of assessed learning outcomes. This is appropriate because the programmes of CPD do not specifically relate to specific subjects and cohorts where assessment data can be derived. Rather, as was said earlier, the programmes relate to building conditions for continuous improvement. Therefore, an approach has been adopted that values the perceptions of the participants in informing us the extent to which the conditions for improvement have been promoted and in what ways.

The ‘Empirical Results of the Enquiry’ (Chapter 4 page 145) of this work is written in the form an overview of the interviews and of several case studies of individuals and their institutions. The informants are drawn from one case study example institution (APU). This leads to a further analysis of the general role of HEIs in school improvement. The study explores the need for a wider focus on system wide conditions including a partnership between HEIs, LEAs and schools. In addition, the emphasis upon the critical reflective practitioner teacher is emphasised and developed.
Chapters five and six concentrate upon an analysis and discussion of the major findings followed by some conclusions that might be drawn.

However, the first task is to review what is already known about the impact of CPD on teachers and their institutions, and to particularly focus upon our knowledge of programmes in higher education. The study will seek to explore more fully, the connection between school effectiveness and improvement research and the role of staff development/professional development activities.
Chapter Two
The Impact of CPD on Teachers and their Institutions

This account has located this research in the field of 'school improvement', rather than the 'effective school' movement or the narrower area of simple 'improvement' strategies. In the introduction and context, it was established that within this tradition there is already a considerable literature on 'staff development' and associated notions of 'learning organisations'. Indeed, these concepts can be regarded as keys to 'building the capacity to improve'. However, the specific context of programmes at master's level in higher education has not been explored well in the literature and theory of school improvement (See table 3). Indeed, some authors have suggested that effective CPD is not the sort that takes place in universities and others have neglected to mention any HEI involvement in school improvement.

The structure of this chapter is built around the literature and research that answers the three key questions of this work raised on page 15. We, therefore, consider in turn what we know of the impact of CPD in HE, the conditions that maximise such impact and the role of HE in school improvement and the professional development of teachers.

In the first section of this chapter, the literature and research concerning the impact of CPD in higher education is reviewed. The suspicion, particularly from UK government agencies, that CPD, particularly associated with universities does not provide value for money is outlined, despite the sparse but sometimes contradictory evidence of research studies. (See 2.1 page 20)

The chapter moves on to consider, the second major question of this study, what is known about the conditions that maximise impact (See 2.2 Page 38). Given that many studies have dismissed the role of HE, the focus is necessarily upon other types of CPD in schools. Indeed, a tenet of much of the literature has been 'school based and school focused work is a central condition. Similarly, the notion that the only conditions that are important are effective school based management of CPD (or 'managerialism') focused upon school improvement initiatives is considered. The
room for programmes in HE is explored and some of the conditions that might be important in these circumstances is explored.

Lastly, the chapter moves on to the role of higher education in school improvement and the professional development of teachers. Central to this discussion are a number of other issues including the conception of ‘teacher’ that is the goal of professional development, and the nature of their knowledge and practice. (See 2.3 Page 52)

2.1 What is the impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their institutions?

The central and starting question to this enquiry is the question, ‘What is the impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their institutions? This chapter is an analysis of what we know about the impact of CPD, how this is defined and may be ‘measured’ or assessed.

There is not a considerable body of research on the effects of CPD. Indeed, the OECD report on eight countries reveals that they had not made ‘real progress’ in evaluating their CPD. (OECD 1999)

“Evaluation is difficult but that should not prevent attempts to determine how successful, or otherwise, particular courses or initiatives are” (OECD 1999:58)

If nothing else, this provides some justification for this study in determining how successful, or otherwise, HE programmes are in achieving ‘impact’, and what that might mean. However, it also serves as a warning that empirical evidence may be sparse.

According to the OFSTED Annual Report 1995/96,

“In almost three-quarters of the schools visited there was some positive effects of INSET, but only in half of them was there a clearly discernible improvement in the quality of pupils’ learning and the standards they achieved” (Ofsted 1995-6: 39-40)

However, the comment is ambiguous and raises the question as to what sort of effect there is in the other half where positive effects that are ‘not clearly discernible’. The
comment implies a longitudinal research method but Ofsted school inspection visits, from which the data is presumably drawn, last only a few days. The author does not define what is meant by 'clearly discernible' and one suspects a narrow 'effectiveness' focus in terms of only student learning outcomes.

The Ofsted report goes on to note weaknesses in the evaluation of the impact of INSET activities particularly with regard to student achievement and teacher performance, although the growing sophistication in the ability of management teams to identify needs, to plan inset and to select competent providers is also noted.

The report provides some evidence that ‘INSET’ does have an effect in some schools and the emphasis is on the ability of the school to make it work. However, little is revealed about the nature of the inset. Indeed, the choice of the term, INSET, rather than ‘staff development’ or ‘CPD’ is interesting, if not revealing. Implied, by the neglect of details, is that the inset being surveyed is both school-focused and school-based (see page 40). More specifically nothing is revealed about credit bearing inset in HE, although some of the school inset inspected may be of this kind. The report noted however that,

‘...individual INSET activities including those at HEIs were mostly taught well and received positively....however, the quality of planning was not always good enough to ensure that INSET actually improved teachers’ performance.’ (Ofsted 1995-6)

One suspects that this refers to the planning within the school, although Ofsted inspectors were able to reveal some of the impact of INSET and concluded that,

“The effects were often relatively small, but some benefits, such as increased knowledge, the acquisition or reinforcement of teaching skills, and greater confidence, were observed. Other positive consequences were improved school and subject documents, the more effective use of resources, and better subject co-ordination”

This finding is significant, as Ofsted are at least here acknowledging, however seemingly begrudgingly, ‘some benefits’ of INSET. They seem to recognise a ‘knowledge’ component as an impact and indeed also identify ‘confidence’ as an
outcome. Wider school impact is noted in terms of school documentation, and use of resources rather than seeing impact as purely something than can be observed in classrooms.

The TTA/MORI Research

It is widely held by CPD practitioners, that much of the recent debate about the impact of CPD stems from the research commissioned by the Teacher Training Agency in June 1995 and conducted by MORI, which suggest that,

‘Part of this review was to involve a survey closely examining the cost and nature of current continuing professional development. The two other aspects of the review involved identifying priorities and strategies for targeting funds and formulating longer term strategic approaches for managing the continuing professional development of teachers.’

(TTA/MORI 1995: i)

The survey was based upon 1,698 questionnaires from Headteachers/INSET Coordinators and 2,313 from teachers drawn from a stratified random selection of schools of various types. Providers of in-service training were also sampled with 212 contributors.

The report found that CPD in most cases is ad hoc with no real linkage with school or personal development planning or appraisal. This is a finding somewhat at odds with Ofsted (1995-6) and Brown et al (2001). Not all schools were using the five school closure days for CPD activities, as they were originally intended. The authors noted that there was little consistency in how much any school spends on CPD.

Although the vast majority of teachers say that their CPD is useful, only a quarter of teachers say that CPD has impact on their work in the classroom and 18% of teachers say that CPD has had little impact on classroom practice. Concurring with Ofsted (1995-6) and Kinder et al (1991), they report that few schools have any systematic means of planning, monitoring and evaluating CPD activities.
The MORI survey collected returns from only 7% of schools. Headteachers and Inset Co-ordinators completed the forms at a time when, the authors admit, people were pressurised by workloads and similar surveys. Data was not collected from participants of CPD programmes directly. An assumption was made that CPD should be about classroom practice but it could be just as likely to be about how to conduct administrative tasks for the DFEE/TTA, or about management. Providers were grouped as being all the same and award-bearing programmes were not specifically identified. However, a year later award-bearing programmes were the subject of a review of the funding mechanism from the TTA.

The research does not reveal why so many teachers found the CPD ‘useful’ or what that means. Clearly, there are some difficulties in self reporting of ‘impact’ on classroom practice, particularly via Inset Co-ordinators and Headteachers, who are reported to have poor systems to make such a judgement.

It may be that much CPD confirmed or developed ideas that were already being established. How respondents might answer in such circumstances is unclear. The research used a postal survey of teachers, managers and providers to report on impact. This is clearly not the same as measuring teacher performance or student learning outcomes as data, although does provide a precedent for this research.

Partial although the TTA/MORI research is, it has been noted and used as the basis for government policy. DFEE internal documents continued to use the MORI results as part of the review of CPD in 2001 where, despite very close scrutiny of several pieces of research, there is little criticism of the MORI research. (Notes from confidential unpublished memoranda, documents and private conversations). In a covering letter in 1995, concerning bidding for TTA funding, from the Chair of the Teacher Training Agency, Geoffrey Parker, to the Secretary of State said,

‘Our advice takes into account our fundamental review of in-service training, involving extensive consultation with schools, a series of national and regional conferences, and a MORI survey of the cost, nature and perceived effectiveness of current
continuing professional development.’ (Geoffrey Parker 26th July 1995)

The summary of the current state of affairs concluded that resources for CPD are often not targeted to best effect, and that professional development needs are not sufficiently targeted to meet needs. There is, the report suggested, insufficient planning, monitoring and follow up of professional development activities to ensure that they are having a direct impact on improving teaching and learning. (Advice to the Secretary of State on the Continuing Professional Development of Teachers. Annex A July 1995).

The advice was responded to on October 1995 by the Secretary of State who agreed that the TTA could implement their plans for targeting support of national priorities, producing a framework of national standards, and reviewing of the arrangement for teacher appraisal.

By September 1996, the TTA was able to present its proposals for future use of TTA Inset Funding. This outlined how the TTA had been asked by the Secretary of State in 1994 to consider the content and use of the HEFCE fund category ‘Other Education’ (ASC 1.2) which had been used to fund award bearing in service training for teachers. The review amounted to transfer 47% of this fund to the TTA. This amounted to £27.18 million pounds. The proposals, which were later implemented, were for the development of a bidding system for providers, with the allocation being based upon national priorities and identified development needs. Institutions that had mechanisms for monitoring the impact of provision on professional practice in schools were to be favoured. Significantly, and underpinning the rationale for this research, was an emphasis upon programmes that lead to academic or professional awards.

This all appears to amount to an official DFEE/TTA conclusion that CPD in HE was not having much impact and that to improve it there would need to be better planning and evaluation based upon school and national needs, and improved provision, stimulated by evaluation.
The TTA Survey of SEN Training Provided by Higher Education.

One further account is provided by the TTA, who conducted a survey of SEN provision in HEIs in January 1997. The findings of the report were based upon returns from 68 English and two Welsh HEIs. The survey concluded that, 'HEIs in England and Wales make a significant contribution to the provision of SEN training' (TTA 1997:19).

The report went on to note that, this contribution included many different aspects. Listed in the report were: offering SEN training courses and modules both on campus and off site; servicing or supporting SEN course provision organised and taught by school or LEA providers; acting as a conduit for teachers to access higher degrees in SEN related areas and research expertise in fields of SEN enquiry; making and monitoring quality assurance arrangements on their own training provision and that delivered by others; providing access for teachers and other professionals to SEN resource centres, libraries and research facilities; being innovative in the development of distance learning and learning through and with the new technology, and commissioning conferences and reviews at local, regional and national level to encourage thinking about SEN-related teacher education. (TTA 1997:19)

These conclusions are quite startling in their fulsome support for the contribution of HEIs and the complexity of the analysis, suggesting as it does a contribution to the infrastructure, and the development of knowledge about SEN, rather than a more simple contribution to the impact on practice. That is a contribution to capacity building and school improvement in its wider definition, as discussed in the introduction and context. Key features mentioned here are ‘growing links with HEI staff and school staff in other countries’ (p12), and ‘increasing collaboration or partnership with LEAs (p12).

The notion of ‘research’ plays a key part in the report, which states that, 64% of HEI tutors are involved in aspects of research into SEN, some of it being commissioned by ‘UNESCO, DfEE, national agencies and SEN organisations, Health Trusts, LEAs and voluntary organisations’ (TTA 1997:15).
The survey adds that,
‘A significant proportion of the research being done in or through HEIs links directly with evaluating effects of school policies, classroom practices and teaching. (TTA 1997:16)’

The survey reported that, in the 70 HEIs, there were 441 teachers involved in aspects of SEN related research. HEIs were involved in the dissemination the findings of their research work in SEN through a number of strategies including publication in academic and professional journals, or in educational newspapers and popular magazines (40 indications). SEN research findings were being presented through conference papers to regional, national and international audiences (28 indications) as well as through directly incorporating the nature of any research work and outcomes into ITT and CPD courses and teaching (22 indications).

In addition, dissemination was through book authorship (13 indications) or HEI or locally based research seminars (8 indications). Newsletters or the publication of collections of articles from an HEIs’ own SEN research centre (7 indications) contributed to dissemination of research. It was also reported that there was dissemination in the course of running workshops and courses for national and regional bodies (6 indications) and through reports to Funding Agencies (5 indications). Ideas were being disseminated through publication editing and editorial boards (3 indications), and through national and international (especially European) SEN research networks (3 indications). The survey also notes that dissemination of research was also through the development of in-house research journals (distributed free or at near cost) to teachers and other students attending courses (4 indications) and the preparation of summary papers for discussion with partner LEAs and schools (4 indications);

A number of other dissemination strategies were noted, including: - the presentation of features of research work at school development days (4 indications); the research outcomes being used in the course of developing video and other teaching materials (4 indications); dissemination through consultancy work and media interviews (3 indications); findings used in helping students to prepare papers for publication (2 indications).
This is a significant and exhaustive list of the way in which school practice is influenced by research and HEI involvement in CPD in the field of SEN. It is conjecture as to how much of the list might be repeated for many other aspects of teaching and learning or managing schools.

The report, therefore, sees the impact as positive, wide reaching and complex, including ‘discussion of SEN issues’. There is in the document some sympathy with the notion of teachers as knowledge creators and developers through diversity of ideas. One section reports that,

‘An examination of the content of the training currently on offer in or through HEIs suggests that course participants be not confined to a particular viewpoint or SEN ideology.... a balance is sought between the teacher as a receiver of knowledge and ideas, and the teacher as active problem solver and change agent.’ (TTA 1997: 20)

However, the notion of ‘training’ is explicit in the study, including in the title, although this may be for the want of an encompassing other term, since ‘consultancy’ and ‘dissemination’ are also used in the report. The report also alludes to the conditions for maximising impact, in that it reports on the constraints of changing priorities and budgets, resource pressures and staffing issues in HEI, and school staff development planning issues.

Evidence from the Effective Teachers of Numeracy and Literacy Research

Despite, or perhaps as a result of, the apparently official DfEE/TTA line that CPD in HE was suspiciously lacking in evidence of impact, a number of research accounts have began to appear that countered this view. One such is by Askew et al who conducted a report for the TTA into the ‘Effective Teaching of Numeracy’. (Askew, M. Brown, M, Rhodes, V. Johnson, D. Wiliam, D. 1997). They concluded that

‘Highly effective teachers were much more likely than other teachers to have undertaken mathematics-specific continuing
professional development over an extended period, and generally perceived this to be a significant factor in their development.’

and,

‘Teachers described such courses as having led to major shifts in their thinking, achieved by discussions with other teachers and by talking to individual pupils in their own school as part of an assignment. These teachers displayed very positive attitudes to mathematics, in contrast to many of the teachers who had specialist mathematical qualifications.’ (Askew, M. Brown, M, Rhodes, V. Johnson, D. Wiliam, D. (1997) from the summary of findings.)

The authors compared learning gains for the teachers who had undertaken extended CPD with those who had not. They found that: Pupils who were taught by the 7 teachers who had had extended CPD in Maths in the previous year had higher value added than the pupils taught by 81 other teachers. Pupils taught by the 16 teachers who had extended CPD but not in maths had value added only marginally above that for the 65 teachers who had not had any extended CPD in any subject. This, the authors concluded, suggested that long maths courses lead to high ‘value added’ in maths.

The research makes a special case for in depth programmes rather than short ones. Only those who had at least 15 days maths CPD in the previous year were ‘highly effective’. Clearly implied is a link with HEI type programmes. Teachers who had had one, two or three days CPD were shown to have performed no better than those who had no CPD.

Extended CPD maths courses (20 days GEST) were seen by teachers to be highly influential in developing their beliefs and practice of maths teaching. Interviewing pupils, discussing different mathematical strategies for mental calculations and more generally for problem solving, and appreciating research findings, were all cited by
the authors as key ingredients of such programmes. Teachers were encouraged to reflect upon their own beliefs.

A second area of impact that was noted was in developing the enthusiasm for and confidence in maths. Even highly effective teachers who had not been on such programmes had less positive attitudes than those who had been. By contrast short programmes and extended non-maths programmes had little effect on beliefs and practice in teaching numeracy.

Initial training was perceived, by the authors, to have had little influence on effectiveness, in some cases because this was sometimes a long time ago, and because of the severe shortage of time available for primary maths in initial teacher training.

However, it should be noted that this research was based on only 7 teachers that had extended CPD in maths. The sample was selected from schools known to be 'effective' at maths. Other factors are not given in this research, such as the initial qualifications of the teachers, or the type of schools that the pupils were drawn from (especially for the high achieving group). These may have been the real influences on pupil attainment. The authors concede that causality might be reversed and that very effective or experienced teachers could be chosen to go on long courses (1997: 75).

Neither does the study make explicit mention of credit bearing modules or of the 'academic' level of the programmes.

Similar findings were reported by Medwell et al. in their study on 'Effective Teachers of Literacy'. They concluded that effective teachers,

‘...have had considerable experience of in-service activities in literacy, both as learners and, often, having themselves planned and led such activities for their colleagues’ (Medwell J, Wray D, Poulton, P., Fox, R. May 1998:8)

Eighty one per cent of the effective teachers of literacy had experienced literacy CPD in the previous year and again it was noted that over 5 days training seemed to be more effective. The authors note that effective teachers are more likely to have trained
outside the school. Over ninety per cent of teachers reported that the training had been ‘very useful’ or ‘useful’

However, the research noted that English co-ordinators seemed to receive a disproportionate amount of CPD and suggested almost a vicious circle with less good English teachers getting less CPD and effective teachers getting more. One of the foundation concepts of the school improvement literature outlined in the introduction and context (page 13) is the rational planning model and to schools it seems entirely rational that specialists receive the limited resource of specialist training. Whereas relevance and coherence in modular HEI programmes is based upon the individuals needs.

Medwell et al (1998) suggest that longer programmes provided the opportunity for teachers to construct over a period of time, their own views about teaching their subject. Activities such as action research or involvement with projects such as the National Writing Project could emerge as significant catalysts in the development of effective teachers of literacy.

It might be concluded that the evidence suggests that there is some but fairly limited evidence that any form of CPD has ‘impact’, in the UK. It could be argued that there is some, perhaps growing evidence that longer programmes have more impact and there is even a hint that HEI based programmes have some impact. However, there are relatively few studies and the extent to which they can be regarded as objective measurements of impact can be questioned. Within such studies the contribution of HEI forms such a small or sometimes non-existent part of the account. Hence, we know relatively little about the contribution of programmes that work at master’s level in the UK.

In such circumstances it is unsurprising that American literature and research has been used to inform the question of, ‘What is the impact of CPD?’ In turn, this literature ought to be informative about the impact and role of HEI based CPD. Not least this literature has been used to inform DfEE policy (confidential notes and memoranda including private conversations)
The Debate in the United States of America.

In a study of 900 Texas School Districts by Ferguson (1991). Teacher expertise, as measured by licensing exam, master's degrees and experience, was the most important set of factors explaining students' reading and mathematics in grade 1 through to 11. (Ferguson, 1991:465-498)

These measures of teacher quality, Ferguson suggests, have significant impact distinguishable form other effects such as 'having educated parents'. (Ferguson 1991:1) The argument for Ferguson counters claims found in earlier research by Coleman (1996) that 'schools bring little influence on a child's achievement.

Furthermore it is claimed that,

'Master's degrees produce moderately higher scores in grades one through seven. The percentage of teachers who have master's degree accounts for about five percent of the variation in student scores across districts for grades one through seven. Master's degrees have no predictive power after the seventh grade' (Ferguson 1991:7)

This debate largely echoes the early 1970's debate, in the UK between the school effectiveness movement of Rutter, Mortimore, Reynolds and others and Bernstein's notion that 'education cannot compensate for society' as reported on page 2. Its publication in the Harvard Journal of Legislation, rather than an educational journal, emphasises that in the US context this debate is more about federal and state control of teacher education and its cost-benefit.

A second contextual difference with the UK is that 'teacher quality' includes both initial qualifications, and a performance on Texas re-certification tests ("TECATS"). As we shall confirm later, having any initial teacher qualification appears to be rare and much more problematic in the US than in the UK. Indeed, some reference is made to poor standards of general (i.e. pre undergraduate) education of some teachers at levels below what we would expect in the UK with its rigorous entry requirements (traditionally of 5 GCE passes plus, including English and Mathematics).
Policy in the UK appears to have been based upon, or at least mirrored, some of these ideas if one considers the pressure to increase entry qualifications, the attraction of better degree class candidates into the profession, the imposition of additional literacy and numeracy tests in ITT and so on. This is very surprising given the major contextual differences between the UK and the US. However, the UK response is also interesting in the relative lack of initiative, save ‘the standards’ in what teachers should know and understand. (See page 60 for a discussion of ‘standards’)

The Ferguson study supplies no details on what ‘master’s qualifications are. The use of the word ‘degree’ suggests an academic equivalent of what we would call a master’s in the UK. Clearly, such qualification could be in subjects related or unrelated to the subject being taught. By contrast, in this study, the master’s degree is specifically in Education but the curriculum content is to a large degree selected by the student to create coherence and relevance to their work in teaching and managing in schools. (See page 5)

While the research may have a larger degree of descriptive validity, its explanation could be reversed. It may be that teachers with master’s degrees get better students in better schools. Such problems occur through the aggregation of teachers and student characteristics at the level of the school district, rather than matching individual teachers and the achievements of their students. If one considers mobility and ageing it is likely therefore that the teachers are not being matched with student performance.

Ferguson, however, has supported this work with a further study in Alabama, which found sizeable influences of teacher qualifications on student achievement gains in mathematics and reading (Ferguson and Ladd 1996). Ferguson and Ladd claim,

‘Although the fraction of teachers with master’s degrees appears to have little or no effect on reading scores, it exerts a small positive effect on maths scores’ (Ferguson and Ladd 1996:278).

However, they point out that a one standard deviation in the fraction of teachers with a master’s degree would increase student test scores by 0.026 standard deviations. This
would appear to be small gain, for such large scale and expensive input, and less than other improvement strategies.

However, the research has been used as support for improving teacher qualifications and education, most notably in the National Commission on Teaching and America Future report (NCTAF 1997). In addition, the commission used a meta-analysis of 60 education production function studies by Greenwood, Hedges and Lain (1996) which found that teacher education, ability, and experience were associated with significant increases in student achievement. Further evidence was drawn from unpublished research by Armour-Thomas et al (1990) comparing high and low achieving schools in New York city in which teacher qualifications accounted for 90% of the variation in student achievement in reading and mathematics.

Using this and other research the commission makes a number of far reaching proposals concerning the recruitment training and retention of high quality teachers. The proposals relating to professional development include, devoting more money to high quality professional development, and to establishing teacher academies, school-university partnerships, professional development schools, and networks for learning across schools.

The commission argues strongly for ‘master’ teachers by which it means teachers meeting standards of the National Board. It noted that,

‘75% of America’s teachers can be considered as qualified, that is, having studied child development, learning and teaching methods, holding degrees in their subject areas; and having passed state licensure requirements. Twenty eight percent of teachers whose main assignments are in the core academic subjects do not have even a college minor in these fields.’ (www.ed.gov)

This suggests that the use of evidence drawn from an American context should be undertaken with care since conditions appear to be so different. In the UK, there are relatively few unqualified teachers and a much tighter control over being qualified to enter the profession. It is therefore, surprising as to how
much this American literature has been used by central government and other agencies to inform policy and practice in the UK.

**How is ‘impact’ defined and ‘measured’?**

The TTA/Ofsted inspection of HEI provision of CPD outlined four principles for bidding for TTA funding which were:

- That provision is designed to support teachers in raising standards of pupils’ achievement;
- That provision is challenging and differentiated;
- That provision must have a demonstrable and positive influence on classroom practice and/or whole school performance;
- That quality assurance strategies are fit for purpose and lead to rigorous review and improved impact.

*(TTA Funded Inset Inspection Documentation 1998)*

Through bidding for TTA funding, HEIs were in fact engaging themselves in a contract to deliver programmes that met these principles. Clearly, embedded in the principles is the notion of ‘impact’, to raise standards of pupil achievement, and to improve practice and performance. Hence, CPD is seen as a central ‘improvement’ strategy, even where providers are HEIs. However, one might acceptably conclude that this is improvement not in the specific sense that it was defined on page 3, by ISIP (in Hopkins et al 1994) but simply in terms of pupil learning outcomes or standards.

The use by the TTA of ‘impact’ is an interesting and a recent development. Impact suggests the noun associated with force, a body striking. It suggests that an impression is made and is derived from the Latin ‘impingere’ for thrusting and ‘pangere’, to drive in. The image of knocking teachers into shape, with some force is central to the notion of measuring impact. We are led to believe that measuring the size of the dent is a key part of the evaluation. However, dent is much too destructive in this, because clearly the idea of impact is more constructive when associated with school reform. There is an implied intent, a purpose, a ‘masterplan’, or a blueprint to be achieved.
Reform is about correcting the wrongs of the past and ‘knocking into shape’. That is knocking into a ‘proper’ shape. ‘Proper’, presumably as defined by the TTA, relates to the achievement of TTA notions of effective practice.

Earlier DES publications used the notion of ‘Inset Effectiveness’ rather than impact. Steadman, Eraut, Fielding and Horton (1992) assessed effectiveness by noting the closeness of fit between development aims (school group and individual) and identified inset needs. They also considered whether observed INSET activities related to outcomes and whether events achieved their intended aims. In their account, they were interested in the range of actual outcomes and how these related to subsequent events. (Steadman, Eraut, Fielding and Horton 1992:vi) In this sense they used the word ‘effective’ as capable of producing a result. It could be argued, therefore, that there appears to have been a hardening of terminology between 1992 and 1998 in DES/TTA language. This may perhaps imply a greater knowledge of how to achieve impact or at least a greater impetus to achieve it.

**Typology and Hierarchy of Outcomes**

The hardening of terminology also reflects a narrowing of the learning outcomes for provision. A typology of INSET outcomes might include, personal, professional and school outcomes, as well as those more widespread in the education system as a whole, such as knowledge of research, illustrated in the TTA SEN research above.

Kinder, Harland and Wootten (1991) create their own typology of INSET outcomes and list:-

a. Material and provisionary outcomes
b. Information outcomes
c. New awareness
d. Value congruence outcomes
e. Affective outcomes
f. Motivational and attitudinal outcomes
g. Knowledge and skills
h. Institutional outcomes
i. Impact on practice.
This taxonomy they categorise in terms of level and likelihood of impact on practice. Provision, information and awareness are less likely to have impact on practice if the motivational, affective and institutional outcomes are not achieved or already exist. Impact on practice is maximised, they argue, by value congruence and 'knowledge and skills' outcomes. This latter category seems to involve 'deeper levels of understanding, critical reflexivity and theoretical rationales, with regard to both curriculum content and teaching/learning processes.' (Kinder et al 1991:58)

The model is useful in that outcomes are described in a more complex hierarchy, which may lead to impact. It links values, affective outcomes and motivation. An underpinning assumption is critical reflection, although what this is not clearly articulated. At face value the model appears to support the kind of knowledge and general education that HE programmes are supposed to be about. It is certainly not a skills based /technical rational competence model (see the discussion on page 50-65). Kinder et al goes on to propose using the typology to evaluate the outcome of Inset.

**Objective measurement of standards of learning and teaching.**

Many of the definitions and learning outcomes of professional development require largely subjective measures of effectiveness in the form of, for instance, assessments of motivation or awareness.

Joyce and Showers (1988) take a different view and seek to measure what they call ‘Effect Size’ on pupil learning. They argue, that through assessing pupil learning and producing marks as a set of curves of distribution (or bell curves), it is possible to note both mean scores for groups and standard deviations from the mean. Thus, testing the same group after a period of staff development will show ‘the effect’ of training, as an improvement of mean scores and standard deviations. Alternatively, comparisons could be made with control groups.

The method has the quality of measuring student learning. However, Joyce and Showers have used the method extensively to measure training programmes in a set of
specific teaching and learning models. One may assume that the assessment is
directly related to the intended outcomes of the teaching models (although no details
appear in Joyce and Showers 1988 or Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1997). It is easy to
demonstrate, (and Joyce does) that if you want a class to memorise the curriculum
content better, then you should teach the teacher to use mnemonics, and then measure
how much more the children have memorised. It is not clear (and Joyce does not
demonstrate) how more complex understanding of concepts or how more subjective
assessment of, for instance 'creativity', is carried out. Furthermore, assessment of
non-classroom based professional development, such as management training, cannot
be assessed so easily by this method. Joyce argues however, that if school
improvement is getting all pupils to pass the examination, then his model
demonstrates clearly the 'effect size' of the contribution of his training.

Conclusion: The Evidence on Impact of HE Programmes

The theory of school improvement (and indeed school effectiveness literature) has, as
a central element, the importance of staff development. This was established in the
introduction and context (see page 1-4). More often than not, this is regarded as a
planned programme to meet school needs that is well evaluated by the school for
'impact'.

However, the literature and research published to date suggests that we do not know
very much about the impact of staff development activities and specifically
programmes that are HEI 'CPD activities'. One position, suggested by the MORI
study of CPD in general, may be pessimistic about the quality and impact of CPD.
This suspicion appears to have been picked up by government agencies both in the
UK and the United States, particularly with regard to HEI based work.

However, the SEN survey of higher education provision was more optimistic and
suggested a significant contribution to practice policy development and the
dissemination of research.

In the last section we have explored a variety of different definitions of 'impact',
including knowledge, skills and attitudes. By considering the school improvement
agenda we may also see that 'impact' is defined as effects on individuals and
groups within schools (if not beyond). However, the more narrow definition in terms
of the 'impact' on children's classroom performance has been outlined as a central
goal.

Little has been revealed as to how 'impact' can be maximised and to use the 'school
improvement' terminology (derived from the discussion on page 3) the 'conditions'
under which impact can be maximised. It is to this question that this research now
turns.

2.2 What are the conditions under which impact occurs and is maximised?

It has been established that in the school improvement literature the concept of staff
development is central (See page 3). However, we have suggested that there is little
empirical evidence for such trust in the power of CPD.

There are many reasons for this. They include the variety of purposes of CPD, which
ranges across subject and activities, and through awareness raising and skill
development and so on. There is a multitude of different CPD delivery methods. We
have shown the variety of potential outcomes, effects or impacts. There is then the
question of the poor quality of the CPD impact measuring tools even when focusing
only upon student learning.

Yet there is an enduring logic to the argument that better trained and informed
teachers 'must' surely lead to more effective teaching and learning and indeed better
conditions for school improvement (see page 3). Helping teachers to update their
awareness on different approaches to teaching and learning derived from recent
research and literature ought to be beneficial. Similarly, the development and
dissemination of materials and the inspiration derived from working with experts and
colleagues must logically be a major component of school effectiveness and school
improvement initiatives. (Derived from unpublished private conversations and notes)

Having little published empirical evidence and resting on the power of the logical
argument this account turns to consider what is known about effective continuing
professional development for teachers and the question of under what conditions can the variety of impacts be maximised.

Much of this section of this work looks at the characteristics of effective staff development or inset programmes, derived from and used by school improvement literature, following the theoretical model outlined earlier (see page 3). There follows a discussion concerning the characteristics of effective programmes in HE.

The Characteristics of Effective Continuing Professional Development Programmes.

Bolam (in Hopkins 1986) refers to the work of the Rand Corporation, and McLaughlin and Marsh (1977). They argue that teachers possess important 'clinical expertise' by which we may interpret that, in their view, teachers' expertise is both precise and scientifically based. Yet, they go on to suggest that professional learning is an 'adaptive' and 'heuristic' process suggesting guiding principles rather than a thoroughly worked theory of practice. Hence, they argue for a long term and non-linear process of professional development. However, they appreciate that effective change may only happen where both physical resources such as buildings and the organisation as a whole can support the change process.

These assumptions support a view of staff development emphasising learning for professionals as part of long-term programme and operating within an organisational context. Fullan's (1981) guidelines for planning in-service training included 'the need for in-service to be integrated with and be part and parcel of concrete programme change and problems experienced at the classroom and school level.'

Fullan (1981) also suggests that within these change programmes, in-service professional development activities should be both intensive and ongoing. Although Fullan suggests that in-service training should be simultaneously directed at skill specific and conceptual development over time, he also goes on to suggest that teachers are likely to be the best source of skill and practical training. He does admit that the use of external consultants may be useful for particular purposes, although he does not go into details.
A key notion here, and one that seems often to be missed in school effectiveness literature, is the underpinning notion of ‘organisational development’ and capacity building (as discussed in the Introduction and Context on page 3). This alludes to notions derived from the ‘OD’ model of development and its notions of building healthy organisations with the internal capacities to change. Put starkly, it suggests that it would be pointless teaching teachers anything if was not connected to developing the internal capacity of the school to take on the changes required.

Fullan notes the reasons for the failure of professional development activities. He says that one-shot workshops are widespread and ineffective and that people other than those for whom the in-service is intended frequently select topics. Follow-up support for using ideas and practices experienced in in-service is rare and evaluation infrequent. He notes that, in-service programmes rarely address the different individual needs of participating teachers. The majority of programmes involve teachers from different schools with little or no recognition of the impact of the positive and negative factors within the organisational systems into which they must return to use the ideas from the programmes. (From Fullan 1981:316)

The conditions for effective inset provided by Fullan would seem to offers some hope for accredited programmes in higher education. He does support programmes ‘of longer duration’. With modular programmes, individual students more often select topics, and choice and specialisation can address the needs of individuals (see page 5). However, accredited higher education programmes do not emphasize several of the characteristics listed.

However, when the positive characteristics of effective inset are looked at by Hopkins (1986), there is explicit mention of the dangers of HEI involvement in situations where complex teacher behaviours are the focus. Fullan (in Hopkins 1986) concludes bluntly that school based programmes are more effective than university based programmes.

The work goes on to suggest that programmes based on demonstrations, supervised trials and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programmes
which are based on theory and/or teachers being expected to store up ideas and practices for future use.

It is noted that teachers contend that they learn best from other teachers concerning job related skills and practices, but also contend that they need some outside help from consultants who are capable of providing activities. It is asserted that programmes in which teachers interact, share, and provide assistance to each other are more likely to accomplish their objectives.

Effective inset programmes provide different training experience for different teachers. That is, they are individualised. Yet they need to be planned by teachers and part of a process of improvement within the school.

The Components of Training

The theoretical model of Joyce and Showers (1988) is central to the Hopkins account of effective inset. Indeed, Hopkins has gone on to incorporate their model in his later works, ‘Models of learning, Tools for Teaching’ (Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1997) and ‘The New Structure of School Improvement’ (Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1999).

Joyce and Showers (1988) argue that you have to distinguish between different training components and outcomes. The outcomes expected of training are:

1. The knowledge or awareness of educational theories and practices, new curriculums, or academic content.
2. Changes in attitude
   E.g. towards self (role perception changes),
   towards children such as minorities, the disabled, or the gifted,
   towards academic content i.e. attitudes towards science or E2L.
3. The development of skill.
4. The transfer of training to everyday classroom work.

(Joyce and Showers 1988).
Clearly the ‘training’ outcomes are directly related to Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives, distinguishing between knowledge, attitude and skills (Bloom 1956). However, Joyce and Showers add the fourth element of transfer of training, so that the teacher takes "executive control", and applies the training to their classroom practice.

Executive control is an unusual term for them to use because quite correctly they refer to their model as training, and not education. Their objectives are to secure in participants a known set of behaviours concerned with delivering, what they call, in this work and later ones, ‘models of teaching’. (See Joyce, Hopkins and Calhoun, 1997). Such executive control seems limited, therefore, to something akin to the pilot of an aeroplane following a set of procedures with limited variation.

Joyce and Showers admit to the need for an exploration of theory as the basis for training, through readings, lectures and discussion, and they emphasise the importance of understanding the rationale behind a skill or strategy, and the principles that govern its use. However, there seems little room in Joyce and Showers’ for critical evaluative analysis, or some of the higher order learning objectives (to use Bloom). Creating new perspectives on theory and practice and generating new knowledge, the objectives of master’s programmes, is not a clear part of the agenda.

Furthermore, Joyce and Showers draw attention to the fact that ‘teachers have frequently complained that their training has over-emphasised ‘theory’ and neglected practical or clinical aspects of teaching’. (1988). However they do admit that,

‘It is probable, however, that without a thorough or deep understanding, that teachers will be unable to use new skills and strategies in any but a most superficial manner. Understanding of the theory underlying specific behaviours in multiple situations prevents the often ludicrous following of ‘recipes’ for teaching.’

If Joyce and Showers do not want teachers to create new knowledge about their models of teaching, there does appear, in this section of their work at least, some room for application and adaptation of theory to different contextual demands. At first sight, it would appear that the Joyce and Showers model has something akin to the criteria
for undergraduate studies, if not that for master’s, an issue we will pick up in our discussion of the role of HE.

The Role of Higher Education Programmes in Effective CPD for Teachers.

Much of the argument put forward above seems to suggest a diminished role for higher education as school based and school focused CPD, it is argued, is the effective model. Building the schools ‘capacity’ and its internal arrangements for improvement rather than working with individuals is central. Practice, observation of practice, coaching and feedback on practice are the key components of effective staff development. Skill development and the application of those skills to classroom contexts are the major goal.

This all leaves little room for university based work, theory, critical and analytical based programmes such as one would expect on accredited programmes in higher education. Such a conclusion is also supported in the work of Eraut (1994).

Brown and Earley (1990) support this movement to school focused and school based professional development and list the characteristics of effective inset as:-

- Planning
- Needs Identification
- In class support
- Daytime not twilight.
- Working alongside a colleague
- Curriculum support and advisory teachers

Brown and Earley (1990) support the Management Task forces view that there should be a move:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tutor directed learning</td>
<td>support for self directed learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off site</td>
<td>in school/near school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predetermined times</td>
<td>flexible study times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral presentation</td>
<td>distance learning, information packs and projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, this seems to belie the fact that so many of the authors are currently or have been associated with HEI institutions, and continue to support CPD and school improvement projects. For example, note that,

- Hopkins previously Dean of Education, Nottingham University, UK.
- Joyce currently Director of Booksend Laboratories, California.
- Fullan Dean of the Faculty of Education University of Toronto.
- Bolam University of Cardiff.
- Easen University of Newcastle.
- Earley Oxford Brookes University.

While, Brown and Earley (1990) report that,

‘The move towards school-based and school focused inset had led to a growing number of higher education institutions to modify their provision, become more flexible, and accredit classroom-based study.’

This may be a reversal of cause and effect. It may be argued that HEI institutions have been at the forefront of developing school based and school focused programmes, and have disseminated this model to LEAs, schools and practitioners. (See page 5-7)

Yet, arguably, little explicit mention of ‘accreditation’ or academic award is made in any of these accounts of effective inset and neither is there any information concerning the qualities supposedly promoted by HEIs in terms of critical analysis, the use of research or the development of knowledge. Rarely do we find any explicit mention that teachers on school improvement programmes are receiving academic credit for their work. However, we can surmise that at least some of the Hopkins-IQEA participants at Cambridge, and latterly Nottingham, and most of the Christ College Canterbury/Frost programme are undertaking credit-bearing awards. (See page 103). This seems to indicate a neglect of some key components of effectiveness
where programmes are explicitly accredited. To put this another way, what is the added value of accredited programmes in higher education?

The Characteristics of Effective CPD in Higher Education.

The TTA-Ofsted inspection programme makes clear the process of making impact thorough its areas of interest, namely:

1. Identification of needs
2. High quality provision that meets those needs
3. Quality assurance procedures that ensure and improve 1 and 2 above.

(Ofsted/TTA Inspection Documentation 1999).

Impact of provision, a fourth area, is measured by the question that is posed for inspectors:

‘In their contributions or from the materials are participants able, for example, to:

Analysis and evaluate of their work?
Create and articulate a clear vision of how the quality of their performance and, where appropriate, that of their pupils can be raised?
Apply professional knowledge, understanding and skills to school based issues?’

(TTA Inspection Notepad 1999).

The TTA notion derived from its documentation could be put even more simply as the formula:

TN+II=SR

Where, Teacher Needs (TN), plus In-service Input (II) results in standards raised (SR)
(Original formulation by the author derived from the TTA document)

Also explicit in the TTA/Ofsted documentation, is that the concept of ‘needs’ contain the three components of national needs and priorities, school needs and individual teacher’s needs. However, there appears to be some weighting within this ‘need formula’, as there are only 14 categories of national need which attract funding.
There is much here that relates to the government’s policy for defining the competences of teachers as a set of standards (see page 55) achieved by a simplistic managerialist/instrumentalist approach to teacher development. However, at this point number of criticisms may be made of the simplicity of this model concerning the treatment of needs, the assumptions about in-service input, and the nature of the standards:

A teacher’s individual needs may well be more important influences on the receptivity of teachers. As outlined earlier, Fullan (1981) suggested this. Individual teacher needs are likely to have many different components such as, perceived career development, professional development needs, those related to their stage of career and life cycle as well as interests and motivations.

In terms of school needs, the model implies that the school has articulated its needs rationally and correctly. The model assumes for HE that the school has a planned process of improvement involving staff development and, as we saw earlier, this cannot be assumed.

As has been pointed out by Hopkins (1986) and Fullan (1981 and 1991), conditions within the school need to exist before there can be effective implementation of CPD activities into practice. In this respect the TTA version suggest that there are no other important variables affecting impact between needs and quality provision and impact.

The pursuit of ‘standards’ raises the issue of the nature of ‘standards’. Implied by the use of the word is the argument that, the standards are incontestable and the only outcomes of the curriculum, and that their measurement is simple and accurate. This returns us to the differences in definition discussed earlier between the effective schools literature and the school improvement literature. (See page 2-3).

Further criticism of the simplistic notion has come from university providers who are apt to point to the complex nature of CPD in higher education, in relation to the question of impact. (See table 4, below). Such programmes operate, often on a modular basis, for between three and nine years. During this period it would be
expected for participants to be encouraged to achieve a number of outcomes, both personally and professionally, but not merely focused specifically upon the learning of children. Many HEI programmes are focused upon the individual yet some seek to share in both planning and delivery with partners in schools (Following Byrd and McIntyre 1999, Frost 2000).

**Table 4 The Characteristics of CPD in Higher Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long time scales</td>
<td>i.e. carried out over a number of years (sometimes between 2 and 9 years) and may have impact much later than this when opportunity exists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progression</td>
<td>i.e. students beginning programmes work at a different level to those at the end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A variety of outcomes</td>
<td>HE programmes involve the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes, values and beliefs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet individual needs</td>
<td>Programmes and awards are for individual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A variety of partnerships</td>
<td>Partnerships with institutions such as schools and LEA’s are dynamic, involve compromise, change, and growth over long periods of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diverse delivery</td>
<td>In terms of venues, structure, teaching arrangements. Such diversity is both across institutions and within institutions. Diversity is partly based upon historical development of programmes and changing responses to need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared responsibility</td>
<td>HE, Schools, LEAs and National Government share responsibility for the creating the conditions where impact can be maximised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly able students</td>
<td>Teachers are intellectually able and well qualified.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Other Conditions that affect the Impact of CPD**

The preceding section has dealt with the conditions that contribute to the impact of CPD and has focused upon the institution and the nature of the programme itself. The
account has tentatively explored the relationship between these two factors and HE programmes for award bearing credit.

A third dimension must be the characteristics of the individuals themselves. Attention to this aspect has been underdeveloped since interest in the rational-managerialist-technicist model has focused upon institutional needs. (See page 2, 37 and 45). There is strong evidence to suggest that the characteristics of the individual teachers are a strong influence on the impact of professional development and school improvement initiatives. Fullan opens his chapter on ‘The Teacher’ with, ‘Educational change depends upon what teachers do and think-its as simple and as complex as that’ (Fullan 1991:117).

Ball and Goodson (1985), using the work of Lacey (1985), Nias (in Ball 1985), Woods (1981) seek to understand the influence of ‘Teachers Lives and Careers’ on their thinking and practice. They cite as important influences the decline in status of the teacher in society and low levels of self-esteem and self-respect. They go on to explore sources of teacher identity, commitment and allegiance in the subject and subcultural groupings that teachers belong to.

Huberman (in Hargreaves and Fullan 1992) raises the question of what constitutes a satisfactory or fulfilled career. He turns to life cycle research to identify sequences or phases that describe the career path of individual teachers. His model is a somewhat pessimistic one starting with ‘survival and discovery’ in the early years, moving to stabilisation, then experimentation leading to ‘taking stock, self doubt, serenity and conservatism in the later years. Were this account to be true one might expect HE programmes to be attractive to those in the early mid-years of their career only.

Little appears to have been written about the needs of teachers early in their mid career according to Eraut (1994). Ball and Goodson (1985) note the ‘struggle for survival’ and the socialisation into the culture of the teaching profession. However, citing Woods (1981), they also explore what happens to the ideas of ‘radical’ teachers who wish to change and improve the system. The prognosis is again pessimistic concluding that such radicals are either eventually pragmatic and form a niche or moderate their views. Alternatively they become marginalised.
Clearly the characteristics of the individual, their identity and their life and career have some effect on their orientation towards professional development activity. Despite some limited reference in the school improvement literature, beyond accepting its overriding importance, as Fullan does, little seems to have been explored in this area. Rather, the instrumentalism of the school effectiveness and improvement movement has focused upon managerialist notions such as planning, needs identification, accountability and review. This is not more so than in the literature on professional development which seemingly ignores the motivation, aspirations and attitudes of the individual teachers themselves. (See page 41, 43 and 45)

In the empirical work, later one strand of investigation will be the conditions related to the individual that help to maximise the impact of CPD in HE. In particular, the career and aspirations of the teachers is one avenue to be explored (See chapter 4.).

Little appears to have been written about the needs of teachers early in their mid-career. The standard literature reference is the Dreyfus model as outlined by Eraut (1994)(see Table 5).

Eraut, while accepting a place for the Dreyfus model, highlights its limitations with:

"We can note that the Dreyfus model provides an analysis of skilled behaviour under conditions of rapid interpretation and decision-making, in which the logically distinct processes of acquiring information, following routines and making decisions are fully integrated." (Eraut 1994:128)
Table 5 The Dreyfus Model

Level 1 Novice
- Rigid adherence to taught rules or plans
- Little situational perception
- No discretionary judgment

Level 2 Advanced Beginner
- Guidelines for action based on attributes or aspects.
- (aspects are global characteristics of situations recognizable only after some prior experience).
- Situational perception still limited
- All attributes and aspects are treated separately and given equal importance.

Level 3 Competent
- Coping with crowdedness
- Now sees actions at least partially in terms of longer-term goals.
- Conscious deliberate planning.
- Standardized and routinized procedures.

Level 4 Proficient
- See situations holistically rather than in terms of aspects.
- See what is most important in a situation.
- Perceives deviations from the normal pattern.
- Decision-making less laboured.
- Uses maxims for guidance, whose meaning varies according to the situation.

Level 5 Expert
- No longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims.
- Intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding.
- Analytic approaches used only in novel situation or when problems occur.
- Vision of what is possible.

2.3 How does CPD in Higher Education Relate to School Improvement and Raising Achievement?

The introduction and context of this work discussed the debate between the school effectiveness movement and ‘school improvement’ research based upon building capacity for continuous change (see page 3). The key conditions for building capacity
were reviewed, leading to a closer consideration of the issue of staff and professional development.

In the first section of this review (2.1), the evidence that professional and staff development has ‘an effect’ was reviewed and this led to a consideration of some of the factors that have been identified as conditions for maximising the impact of these activities. It was suggested that we knew very little about the impact of any form of professional development. However, suspicion of the lack of impact of university based programmes was explored in both official government publications and those of eminent writers in the field.

Section 2.2 turned to what is known about the conditions that lead to impact. Much of this work has broadly focused upon school-based and school-focused ‘management’ issues, such as planning, observation, review and evaluation. This is the so called instrumentalist/managerialist view. (Frost (2000:7). However, there is considerable further literature, which is important, that points to conditions found in the motivations and interests and concerns of individual teachers. The relevance of their life and career has been shown to be important here.

The third question of this work, dealt with here in 2.3, is concerned with the role of one higher education programme in the school improvement project. This is largely the focus of the empirical work later (see page 104). Here, the question of what higher education claims to develop needs to be explored. The claim of higher education to be centres of research, to be agents for knowledge creation and development, the centres of reflection and criticality will be explored. Indeed, what is meant by these terms will be examined, thus leaving the empirical work to look at whether these aims are actually achieved, in what ways and under which conditions.

The work seeks to explore a possible tension between the school improvement notions of empowerment, partnership, collaboration, enquiry, professional development, learning and learning organisations with its focus on a narrower model of training and school based development, and ‘managerialism’ (See Table 3 Page 13).
It should be remembered at this point that one argument is that HEIs have no role. Woodhead argued as much in 1999 (see page 14 some weeks before an Ofsted inspection of CPD), and Hopkins (1987) based upon the work of Fullan, Bolam and others is also dismissive.

It should also be stated that the emphasis in this research is not on HE itself. That is, the work is not an argument simply for the retention of an HE sector or HE involvement in the professional development and school improvement work of teachers. Rather, the work is more concerned with the idea and place of programmes which have theory inputs, knowledge creation components, or act as stimulators of critical reflection and research. (See the criteria on page 8)

Before that discussion commences there is the question of, 'What is the nature of professional competence and how is it best developed? In other words, how do the claims for higher education relate to different conceptions of what makes a good teacher? The question gets to the nub of the comment made in the introduction and context that H.E., 'does not do impact' (see page 10) The terms ‘competence’, ‘standards’, and ‘skills’ have dominated the professional development and school effectiveness and improvement debate. Indeed, the work of Creemers (1994), Muijs and Reynolds (2001) and others has approached the notion of ‘the effective teacher’, in a way similar to that of the ‘effective schools research (see page 1). That is that we should look at the effective teacher to identify those characteristics that the rest should develop.

Yet these terms are also related to a conception of teaching as a profession, and this concept needs some examination. One view is of the professional as ‘competent and effective’ operator. But what of conceptions of professional as ‘the continuous improver’, or the reflective practitioner? However, as we have seen (page 12), a cherished condition of school improvement is involvement or the articulation of the voices of all stakeholders and not just teachers and the profession. This notion may be at odds with ‘the professional as higher education student’ who is the subject of the empirical work.
Lastly, by way of introduction to this section, we should emphasise that these questions are central to government policy for teacher development and underline the important connection between the state and teacher professionalism (following McCullogh et al 2001, and Whitty et al 1998). It was the TTA that admitted that, ‘TTA INSET funds should be targeted at the *long term development of the profession* and in particular should form an investment in the *experts of the future*’ (Proposal paper for future use of TTA INSET funding September 1996:3)

This account will explore what might be meant by ‘expert’s and how they might be developed in the ‘profession’ of teaching.

While the original documentation for TTA funding of INSET embodied the ideas of professionalism and expertise, as outlined above, the TTA/Ofsted inspection process focused much more on the following ‘principles of high quality INSET:

- that provision is designed to support teachers in raising standards of pupils' achievement;
- that provision is challenging and differentiated;
- that provision must have a demonstrable and positive influence on classroom practice and/or whole school performance;
- that quality assurance strategies are fit for purpose and lead to rigorous review and improved impact.

(TTA/Ofsted Inspection Notebook (Undated))

Absent, from this TTA documentation is any drawing out of the kind of teacher ‘expert’ and ‘profession’ that CPD provision should be evaluated against. However, one outline, it might be assumed ‘the TTA standards’ (TTA 1998). However, at the time of writing, the TTA has not yet published ‘standards’ other than those for Headteachers, SENCOs, Subject Leaders and Newly Qualified Teachers.
The content of these TTA standards in the UK is not outlined here. Suffice to say that heavily implied is the set of standards and a notion of expertise, and hence a concept of 'profession'. The question, which is discussed here, is the extent to which the UK version is but one version of what is possible. The origins of the standards movement is worthy of consideration here, for it relates centrally to the school effectiveness and school improvement debate outlined in the introduction and context (page 2-3).

The Ruskin College speech of James Callaghan in 1976, we have shown launched renewed interest in the performance of schools and teachers, shown in the effective schools movement of the early 1980's, and the 'school improvement' research of the 1990's. (See page 1).

One strand of this discourse has been an ongoing debate about what we mean by 'a competent teacher'. In reviewing the role of accredited programmes in HE in terms of school improvement, there must be some discussion about what we define as 'effective' or what is 'competence' in teaching, as well as how these qualities might be developed.

Brundrett has shown how during the 1990's the TTA committed itself to a model of training and development that adopted large elements of the 'competence' model. (Brundrett 2000:353). Citing Glatter (1997:190) and Bush (1998:327), he traces a history that includes the development of Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers, the Headlamp programme and the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers. This movement has also revealed itself in the production of TTA standards for Initial Teacher Training and for Subject Leaders and SEN Co-ordinators.

Ramsey (1993) and Brundrett (2000) show how the competency movement influenced Management Charter Initiative 1988 and its related initiative, the School Management South Project (Earley 1991, 1992). Brundrett argues that the movement has been supported by both Labour and Conservative governments and is now, it would seem according to recent documents, being just as vigorously pursued by the National College for School Leadership. (NCSL 2001)
Ashworth and Saxton (1990) trace the origins of the competence movement to the turn of the century, when concern for a more rational, cost effective and practically useful curriculum began to emerge (Ashworth and Saxton 1990:1). Brundrett draws the origins of the recent movement to work by McClelland in the USA and the creation of the Hay McBer consultancy. Hay McBer, in 2001 completed a £6m contract for the DfES to outline what effective teachers did, illustrating the point of how influential this model has become in government policy towards teachers and their training.

McClelland suggested that ‘traditional academic examinations did not predict job performance or success in life, and were often biased against minorities such as women and others (Brundrett citing Adams 1996:44). Another McBer consultant, Boyatzis, has been widely quoted as the definer of competency with the definition:

'An underlying characteristic of an individual which is crucially related to effective or superior performance...' (Boyatzis 1982:64)

Or later,

'Those characteristics that differentiate superior performance from average and poor performance.' (Boyatzis 1982:66)

However, Leat (1993), quoting Norris (1991) shows how particularly in the UK there has been ‘a wealth of meanings’ including ‘a personal attribute’, ‘an act, and ‘an outcome of a behaviour’ (Leat 1993:35)

Ramsey (1993) shows the connection between the competence movement and the NVQ movement in the UK outside of education. It should be remembered that at the time, the Department for Education and Employment was a newly created department merging two different traditions. It was not unexpected, therefore, that, as all other sectors had training lead bodies, based upon the competency models, being drawn up by vocational sector lead bodies, education should also be included in the development.
However, Brundrett identifies three differences in the movement in the UK compared to the USA. Firstly, Brundrett argues McClelland’s work focused upon the characteristics of people whereas in the UK the movement was focused upon the characteristics of the job.

Second, the McClelland/Boyatzis definition is concerned with ‘superior’ performance, whereas in the UK NVQ and TTA standards work the emphasis has been upon minimal thresholds required.

Lastly, these two differences are emphasised in the notable difference in language. In the US the noun and its plural are competency/competencies. In the UK, this has been translated and widely used as ‘competence’ and its plural 'competences'.

From the outset, both within vocational area of education and in other vocational areas, the adoption of the behaviourist model of competence has been widely criticised. Chown and Last (1993:10) citing an Institute of Manpower Studies report of 1992, argue that there had been a narrowing of the curriculum and a deskilling effect.

Ashworth and Saxton (1990) describe the ‘atomisation’ of behaviours in competence lists and show how the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. For instance, Brundrett refers to ‘Laundry lists with little incentive to be creative’ (citing Edwards 1993). The treatment of ‘knowledge and understanding’ has also been shown to be a weakness in the competence movement by Brundrett (2000), Wolf (1990) and Hyland (1993).

Melton (1994) traces the history of this movement to 1960’s, the USA and the behavioural objectives movement. He outlines the major difficulties of the movement and argues that it is wrongly perceived as scientific and diminishes human judgement and freedom of choice. He suggests that setting ‘standards’, on its own is not sufficient and does not motivate. Assessment becomes atomised, focused upon isolated skills rather than the integrated whole, too large a task and impractical. Significantly, in this work on school improvement he shows that standards are fixed.
and do not cope with change and that they underplay the importance of knowledge and understanding particularly in the change process.

Wolf, however, argues that there is 'no bifurcation between competence and education'. The approach is perfectly compatible with the learning of higher level skills, the acquisition of generalizable knowledge (and understanding) and with broad-based courses' (Wolf 1990:39). She argues that competence is dependent upon 'knowledge' and knowledge of 'in what circumstances to use knowledge'. Adaptability is dependent upon knowledge of alternatives. Her argument concludes that knowledge and understanding are the basis for performance but also that they are 'best learned' in use' in a variety of contexts (Wolf 1990:45).

This approach seems to be a response to the competence movement criticism for not mentioning 'knowledge' and treating it as little more than a structure underpinning behaviour or performance.

Hyland (1993), however, concludes that,

'Competence based approaches to education have a weak and confused conceptual base, are founded on dubious and largely discredited behaviourist principles, and display systematic ambiguity in their treatment of knowledge and understanding. It would be a great pity if such an impoverished conception of the educational endeavour came to influence the work of teachers and students simply because of the superficial appeal of the popular educational slogan.' (Hyland 1993:6)

Brundrett (2000) catalogues two types of criticism of the competence movement. Firstly he identifies those that hold that the movement is 'inappropriate and reductivist educationally and philosophically inadequate' (citing Everard (1990), Barth (1986) Vaill (1991), Stewart and Hamlin (1992) and Chown (1994)). Part of the 'inadequacy' is the lack of real discussion of how 'competence' is developed. (Ramsey 1993 following Whitty and Willmott 1991).
Brundrett (2000) notes three different competence models. The first is the
behaviourist where knowledge is subsumed into behaviour. The second is a where
competence is a process where there is the use of understanding in changing
situations. Lastly, there is the cognitive definition of competence, where personally
understood and developed knowledge is used to recognise situation and to act in
similar but different situations and contexts.

Brundrett’s second category is where the competence movement is seen to be ‘morally
repugnant because it denies notions of professional autonomy’. He cites Ribbins
(1990), the ‘bureaucratic surveillance’ mentioned by Ecclestone (1994), and issues of
power and accountability’ raised by Graham (1996).

It should be noted that, at the height of the NVQ movement the TTA/DfEE did not
develop a truly competence based NVQ for teachers. Rather they developed ‘the
standards’ for Headteachers, for initial qualification, for subject leaders and SENCOs.
One might conclude that they were unable to ‘NVQ education’, either politically or
practically or that they lost the desire to. There could be many reasons for this
including the complexity of the NVQ assessment process that was developed.

Despite the many criticisms, the TTA and Department for Education used the
competence idea to develop ‘the standards’, defining what teachers and managers
should do and also their training programmes. Meanwhile, however, in the
Employment Department, there appears to have been some disquiet with the approach.
This is evident in ‘Competence and Assessment’, a Department of Employment
journal,

‘It is a curious irony of education and training that some of the most valued
abilities in life seem to be among the most difficult to describe in a clear cut way.
(Parker L 1991)

Parker goes on to promote the notion of ‘personal competence’ and outlines a model
developed from the Management Charter Initiative (1991). This work, he suggests,
concluded that there could be no minimum standard of personal competence for
managers because there were so many different ways for managers to perform
competently’ (Parker 1991:5). Instead, he outlines their model, which includes 15 personal competences, later to be developed into areas of ‘Personal Effectiveness’.

These are interesting because they not only contain ideas about management such as action planning and getting people to work together but also emphasise ‘identifying ideas and finding ways of using them’ and ‘deciding on values and working within these’.

In an earlier strand of thinking from the same journal, Fleming argues for a consideration of the concept of ‘meta-competence’ that is competences that work on other competences. In this he is concerned with reflection, ‘disputation’, as well as the abilities to work in different contexts and in coping with changing circumstances. He argues that ‘all university education is concerned with meta-competence’ (Fleming 1991:10).

As a response to some of the criticism, shifts have occurred in the competence movement, to the extent that Brundrett distinguishes ‘the modern’ movement. He quotes the view that competence can be developed by assessment, a development programme, support, planning, exploration and experiment as outlined by Boyatzis et al (1996). Cheetham and Chivers (1996 cited by Brundrett 2000) call for a ‘holistic model’ focused upon both an ‘outcomes approach’ and ‘the reflective practitioner’ notion of Schon. (See page 86)

Leat (1993) goes further and suggests room for a conceptualisation of competence that has three components, behaviour, knowledge and feelings and that these may be developed by reflection on experience.

Winter and Maisch (1996) regard the tensions between the competence movement and higher education as part of an ancient debate about how education, is, can be or whether it should be ‘relevant to practical life’. (Winter et al 1996)

The establishment of TTA standards for teachers is not a local phenomenon. Standards have been developed in several states of Australia, and in New Zealand. In the US, there have been attempts to establish standards in a very large number of
states based upon either the National Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) of the National Board for Professional Standards.

While not a local phenomenon, there are differences in interpretation and emphasis in what these standards refer to. This will be explored and related to the question of what the higher education programmes at the centre of this research are trying to achieve.

**Teacher Standards in the USA, Queensland and the UK.**

In the USA, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards has established its own list of standards:

"The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards is an independent, no profit, non-partisan organisation governed by a 63-member board of directors. Most of our directors are classroom teachers. The others are school administrators, school board leaders, governors and state legislators, higher education officials, teacher union leaders, and business community leaders." (NBTS at http://www.nbts.org/nbpts/about-nbpts.html 3 March 1999: 1)

The board explains that:

‘Our goal is to improve student learning by strengthening teaching. But until recently the teaching profession had never defined the knowledge skills and accomplishments that add up to teaching excellence. In contrast, physicians, architects and other professionals work under clear and objective standards for accomplished practice and must demonstrate their accomplishments on challenging sets of assessments.’ (NBTS at http://www.nbts.org/nbpts/about-nbpts.html 3 March 1999:2)

The NBTS has produced a policy statement, “What Teachers Should Know and Be Able to Do” and are setting “advanced standards” in 30 certificated fields. These are “structured around student developmental levels (early childhood, middle childhood, early adolescence, adolescence and young adulthood) as well as by subject area.

---

60
The difference here with the TTA standards is that there is a central core policy and then each subject and age grouping has a different set of “advanced” standards and certification.

“Five propositions of Accomplished Teaching” forms the core of the professional standards. They are:

1. Teachers are committed to student learning
2. Teachers know the subject they teach and how to teach those subjects.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

Each of the propositions is described in detail. In their commitment, teachers are:

“ deduced to making knowledge accessible to all students. They act on the belief that all students can learn….They adjust their practise based on observation and knowledge of their students’ interest, abilities, skills, knowledge, family circumstances and peer relationships.”

This view emphasizes teaching as a craft, which has principles as a guide but is about making complex and diverse decisions to meet the needs of specific situations. Fundamental to the principle, however, is the belief and value that all students can learn. The description goes on to say that,

“intelligence is culturally defined. That is, what is considered intelligent behaviour is largely determined by the values and beliefs of the culture in which that behaviour is being judged.”

Other aspects to this ideology of teaching include, “Behaviour always takes place within a particular setting that to some extent defines the behaviour”. Furthermore, “teachers do not treat all students alike, for similar treatment is not necessarily equivalent to equitable education”, and, “Teachers are concerned with their students’
self concept, with their motivation, with the effects of their learning on peer relationships, and with the development of character, aspiration and civic virtues.

In terms of teaching their subject,

“Accomplished teachers have a rich understanding of the subject(s) they teach”, however they also “develop the critical and analytical capacities of their students”.

Yet there is also clear appreciation of pedagogic content knowledge,

“Accomplished teachers...are aware of the preconception and background knowledge that students typically bring to each subject and of strategies and instructional materials that can be of assistance”

In terms of continuing professional development, the standards are explicit both about its need, the process and the relationship between teacher learning and student learning. The guidance outlines that,

“Accomplished teachers are models of educated persons, exemplifying the virtues they seek to inspire in students—curiosity, tolerance, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity and appreciation of cultural differences - and the capacities that are prerequisites for intellectual growth; the ability to reason and take multiple perspectives; to be creative and take risks, and to adopt an experimental and problem solving orientation.”

The idea of role modeling is an interesting one, based upon a clear belief in the importance of intellectual growth. The idea might be considered to be an important one striving for larger numbers to be educated in tertiary education (National Commission on Education 1993). The standards include both knowledge and critical judgment about the use of that knowledge in practice. Theory of learning, of child development and so on are applied and sharpened through application in practice.

“Striving to strengthen their teaching, accomplished teachers critically examine their practice, seek to expand their repertoire, deepen their
knowledge, sharpen their judgement and adapt their teaching to new findings, ideas and theories.”

In conclusion, the standards produced by NBPTS have similarities and differences in the conception of effective teaching in comparison with the UK. In particular, the NBPTS propositions emphasise that teaching is a diverse and complex activity that is about making choices. Teaching, for them is based upon an explicit and implicit ideology, which is different to the UK, and is based upon key concepts and values of equality, multiple intelligence, nurture, care, achievement, and cultural diversity. The notion of the craft of teaching through the flexible application of underpinning knowledge and theory, in different contextual situations, and the critical evaluation of theory in practice, is central to this model. Furthermore, there is an acceptance of the nature of teaching as a dynamic activity and in need of continuous development. The development of teacher knowledge is essential ‘role modelling’ for students.

One might add that this conception is somewhat at odds with that derived from the TTA in the UK.

Another example of ‘standards’ is drawn from Australia and will add to this debate concerning the creation of national standards as a world phenomena with local variation depending on the conceptualization of ‘teaching’. Draft standards have been written to describe effective and excellent practice for teachers in Queensland. (Available at http://www.queensland.gov.au)

The Queensland document introduces the policy with:

“Education Queensland is committed to the promotion of excellence in education. It is also committed to the support of teachers; that is, all personnel who hold teaching related positions, such as classroom teachers, support teachers, visiting teachers and guidance officers. It is acknowledged that these officers play a critical part in the provision of quality schooling. The purpose of the Standards Framework for Teachers is to promote excellence in teaching practice, as well as to acknowledge and value the diversity of the skills that teachers bring to teaching roles. In addition, the Framework will enable teachers to
identify their professional strengths and needs and thus their professional development and training requirements. The Framework has the potential to become a key means of achieving the best educational outcomes for every student in our schools.”

The promotion of excellence is a universal goal of educational systems. The acceptance that a number of “personnel who hold teacher related positions, such a classroom teachers, support teachers, visiting teachers and guidance officers” seems to recognise a wider range of staff who promote learning in the classroom. In the UK, despite the development of support staff, teaching assistants and others, this diversity is not acknowledged in the standards. Perhaps its acknowledgment would obscure the attempt at making individual teachers solely accountable for the quality of what goes on in the classroom, despite the obvious complexity.

“The Standards Framework for Teachers has been developed by the Centre for Teaching Excellence in collaboration with teachers and administrators.” (Education Queensland undated p1)

The notion of collaboration is central to the creation of the standards, as is the idea that teaching will be different in different contexts. While in the UK the teacher standards are deemed to be generalisable to all schools, whether they are applied to inner-city multi-racial comprehensives or rural grammar schools, in Queensland the complexity of excellence in different contexts acknowledged with:

“What is teaching excellence?
Queensland schools offer great richness and diversity. The challenges and opportunities for improving student outcomes vary from site to site, as do teachers’ definitions of what teaching excellence means. Teachers at a large metropolitan school with a high percentage of students from non-English speaking backgrounds will develop a different repertoire of knowledge and skills than will teachers responding to their school population in a remote, rural area of Queensland. This is not to say that standards will be lower or higher at a particular site compared to another, but that the critical elements of teaching will be exemplified differently in order to accommodate the local context. Therefore,
teaching excellence involves the professional decision-making of teachers to provide the most appropriate learning experiences for particular students in particular contexts.”

In the UK, teacher standards were drafted by the TTA for qualified teacher status, subject leaders, SENCO and for Headteachers. At a later stage standards were developed for the end of the probationary year and for the award of the status of Advanced Skills Teacher, which can be applied for. This therefore, appears to have been an afterthought to be developed from the original model.

In Queensland, the model has built phases of development based upon career development, presumably recognising the Dreyfus model discussed on page 49. They argue for:

**Phase A: Beginning**

These indicators represent the range of knowledge, skills and attitudes that teachers require to operate effectively when beginning in a teaching role.

**Phase B: Established**

These indicators illustrate the higher degree of expertise that teachers should have achieved after they have operated in the role for 2 or 3 years. This is the benchmark level, that is, the level it is expected that all teachers will achieve.

**Phase C: Leading**

These indicators illustrate the type of knowledge, skills and commitment that highly proficient teachers possess.

In contrast to the TTA view, and that promoted by Ofsted in the UK, the Queensland approach has a clear commitment to continuing learning, reflection, professional, critical dialogue. Change and innovation are explicit in this model. For example, section 5 outlines that teachers should commit themselves to lifelong learning, and that they should:
5.1 Demonstrate a commitment to personal lifelong learning, reflection and sharing.

5.2 Promote and encourage collegial reflection, sharing and dialogue.

5.3 Foster public awareness and understanding of issues pertinent to children’s development and learning.

5.4 Develop and model innovative learning and teaching.

Reflection is mentioned thirty three times in the document. This amounts to nearly 7 times in every 2000 words. In the UK the TTA standards document for Newly Qualified Teachers mentions ‘reflection’ once in nearly 4000 words.

Similarly, the word “critical is used 100 times in the Queensland document, amounting to 10 times for every thousand words. In Queensland teachers are expected to:

Engage in critical self-reflection of professional practices to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

In the TTA document, “critical” is used once. Newly qualified teachers are required to:

“evaluate their own teaching critically and use this to improve their effectiveness.”

Pedagogy, the study of pedagogy and the “critical appreciation” of pedagogy are at the heart of the Queensland standards. This is shown, at phase b, for instance:

‘Excellent teachers

• Share with colleagues a critical appreciation of knowledge and research in the area of learning theory and major areas of current investigation.
• Model for colleagues a rich understanding of the importance of students’ prior knowledge and experiences in the development of new understandings and the implementation of appropriate strategies.
• Engage in challenging and supportive dialogue with critical friend/s and or mentors to examine own understanding of major aspects of the learning process and the implications for teaching.
• Act in mentoring roles for colleagues to support their understanding of the learning process and the implications for teaching.’

The wording in the TTA document is less explicit although it requires the NQT to take responsibility for their professional development, yet there is the hint that this means the passive acceptance of the received wisdom of others rather than the creation of knowledge through critical analysis. For example the TTA document says the NQT should:

"understand the need to take responsibility for their own professional development and to keep up to date with research and developments in pedagogy and in the subjects they teach;"  

The word theory cannot be found in the TTA document and neither can “analyse”. The notion of teacher learning through critical reflection, professional dialogue and action research is central to the Queensland standards. However, the notion of “collegiality” does not compromise the leading role in the dialogue that experienced teachers should take because of their knowledge and experience. For example at phase c:

“Excellent teachers

• Initiate and participate in a range of school-wide activities which support own and others’ commitment to personal lifelong learning, reflection and sharing.

• Initiate and participate in school-wide or team-wide dialogue with teachers working as or with critical friend/s and or mentors to examine own and others’ commitment to personal lifelong learning, reflection and sharing.

• Provide support through mentoring for beginning teachers and other colleagues as required.

• Encourage colleagues to share effective practice within and across school sites.

• Conduct professional development and training activities for colleagues in which collegial reflection, sharing and dialogue is embedded.
• Provide scaffolding for colleagues' critical reflection of practice through the use of negotiated strategies, which lead to improved student learning outcomes."
• Lead colleagues in design, development, implementation and evaluation of action research projects that enhance learning outcomes.
• Initiate and participate in school-wide or team-wide dialogue with teachers working as or with critical friend/s and or mentors to examine own and others' promotion and encouragement of collegial reflection, sharing and dialogue.”

Through looking at standards developed in the USA, Australia and the UK it has been suggested that there is a world movement with major local differences in the conceptualisation of what makes an effective teacher. The place of theory, the role and dynamics of reflection and the working of a teacher as a member of a group seem relatively under emphasised in the UK.

It could, therefore, be argued that much of the HE model of professional development is based upon, knowledge of theory research and literature, and critical reflection on theory and practice. However, the notion of level (Winter 1996) is absent from any of the conceptualisations. When reflection, analysis and so on are referred to there appears to be no linkage with the depth of understanding or reflection that is proposed. (See page 87)

The Role of HEIs in Developing the School Improvement Professional.

This section considers what we mean by the term professional when considering the continuing professional development of teachers and how that conceptualisation relates to the notion of school improvement. The section is central to determining ‘impact’ since it should reveal the criteria by which we are able to judge whether we are creating what we intend.

McKernon (1991), in a typical approach, lists ten characteristics of teaching as a
profession. (See Table 6). While McKernon claims for teachers having ‘deep knowledge of the theoretical foundation’, he accepts that ‘Teachers do not easily take on board educational literature, ideas and theories’, yet sees action research as a means of addressing this through teachers grounding their theorising in practical experiments. There is some confusion here as to whose theories are to be ‘grounded’. (Mckernon 1991). Again these ideas will be looked at further.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6 McKernon’s Definition of a Profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The basis for the claim for teaching to be a profession are:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Theoretical knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. An association with restrictive entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Commitment to continuing education and training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Code of ethics/practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Commitment to service function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Commitment to the caring-helping function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Self autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Commitment to ground theory in teaching practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. A commitment to research one’s practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Collins Concise Dictionary (1990) states that a profession is ‘An occupation requiring special training in the liberal arts or sciences especially one of the three learned professions, law, theology or medicine.’

The Latin root of professional is 'profiteri' or to confess openly, and this suggests a noble, if not religious interpretation. One notion of professional is behave ethically and morally as though entry was guided by a set of vows, as in the case for medicine (although not as explicitly for education). The ability to ‘choose wisely’ a course of
action is another aspect as indeed is the notion to profess, affirm and acknowledge a set of beliefs. Lastly there is the mere belonging to an order.

Eraut (1994) shows a traditional link between higher education and the professions. It may be argued that initial preparation for a true profession has to be undertaken within higher education, partly because of the academic knowledge base required for practice and, no doubt because of the status of those institutions. Hence, lawyers, doctors, architects and the clergy have undertaken training in higher education and are, therefore, professions.

Hoyle (1972 cited by Stenhouse, 1975:143-144) offers a conception of the 'restricted' and 'extended' professional. The restricted professional has the following characteristics:

1. A high level of classroom competence.
3. A high level of skill in handling children and in understanding them.
4. Derives a lot of satisfaction from personal relationships with pupils.
5. Evaluates performance in terms of own perceptions of changes in pupil behaviour and achievement.
6. Attends short courses of a practical nature.

On the other hand, Hoyle argues that the ‘extended professional’ has all the qualities of the ‘restricted professional’, but has additional characteristics. The latter views work in the wider context of school, community and society. They participate in a wide range of professional activities (such as subject panels, in teachers' centres, and at conferences. The extended professional, Hoyle suggests, has a concern to link theory and practice and has a commitment to some form of curriculum theory of evaluation.

Stenhouse is critical of Hoyle’s conceptualization and asks why ‘child centredness’ is included but ‘autonomy’ not. His own characteristics would includes the commitment to systematic questioning of one’s own teaching as a basis of development; the skills
to study one's own teaching; and a concern to question and to test theory in practice by the use of those skills.

His definition of an extended professional would therefore be based upon the notion of an:

'Autonomous professional self-development through systematic self study, through the study of the work of other teachers and through the testing of ideas by classroom research procedures' (Stenhouse 1975:144)

Both Hoyle and Stenhouse appear to be describing the professional as continuous school improver. Yet both seem to be at odds with a system that seems to have more external and centralising prescription following 'the great debate' (see introduction and context page 1 and the work of Graham (1998), Hopkins et al (1994)).

McCulloch G, Helsby G, Knight, P. (2000) suggest that the so-called 'Golden Age' of teacher professionalism may well always have been more of a myth than a reality. Their argument is that, on the one hand, teachers were never that free of restraint, while on the other, are now still having ample room for professional judgement in areas as complex as approaches to teaching, and organisation of the curriculum.

They criticise simple definitions of 'professionalism' like that outlined by Mckernon, Hoyle and Stenhouse above, which see professionalism as a set of attributes and over emphasis on a simplistic notion of 'autonomy'. They note that 'far from being an absolute', professionalism, 'is a social construct that, because of its connotations of power and privilege, is subject to constant contestation' (McCulloch et al 2000:63).

Following Lawn and Ozga (1986), they note how government employs 'the ideology of professionalism as a means of indirect rule over the teaching force. The term is also used by occupational groups as part of a strategy to enhance their position in the labour market' (McCulloch et al 2000:63). Much of the debate concerning the professional development of teachers, particularly that associated with university programmes and awards, seems, perhaps inevitably, clearly linked to the contestation of 'professionalism'. However, there are further aspects about the nature of that discourse revealed in the nature of autonomy in the public services.
McCullogh et al (2000) emphasise that occupational autonomy is problematic in public services (McCulloch et al 2000:63) ‘whose employees are licensed to practice by the state’. Inevitably there is a need for a state policy on training, professional conduct and standards, as well as outcomes. Either explicitly or implicitly, through legislation or socialisation, the state grants a form of ‘relative autonomy’.

This relative autonomy is, it is argued all the more inevitable in areas such as Education where there is a need for complex and non-routine behaviours on the part of teachers and schools. They argue that work cannot be closely ‘specified, organised and monitored’ through central policies leaving ample room for professional choice. (McCulloch et al 2000:64). Fullan (1991) supports this view that policy rarely specifies the nature of change in ‘loosely coupled’ systems such as education.

Later, McCullogh et al (2000) suggest a key factor in the construct of professionalism is teacher confidence.

Professional confidence implies a belief both in one’s authority and in one’s capacity to make important decisions about the conduct of one’s work (and) the feeling of coping with the work in hand and being ‘in control’: this implies that the individual is not confronted with excessive and overwhelming work demands which necessitate constant ‘corner cutting’ and ill considered activity, but rather there is some scope to reflect upon, and decide between, alternative approaches or courses of action. (McCullogh et al 2000:107 citing Helsby 1995, pp 324)

This link with professional confidence to enable teachers to make professional decisions about the application of school effectiveness and improvement initiatives seems to be a key concept that will be explored in the empirical work later. (See page 145 and 268)

McCullogh et al (2000) go on to suggest that teacher professional development ought to give priority to the needs of the clients (2000:78). The notion of collaboration with stakeholders is key to the school improvement model (see page 2). However, there is
little discussion of the complexity of the word ‘client’ in the McCullogh account since it may refer to the individual child, individual parents, collection of parents, the community, state or whatever. It would seem, in the narrative, to allude to an interpretation more or less as ‘government policy’.

Even more controversially, perhaps, McCullogh et al come to the conclusion that, the best place for professional learning is the ‘department’, ‘sustained by good departmental leadership, (78). The question therefore, becomes for them, one of how ‘learning departments can be embedded in the educational system’. (78)

This links very much with the school improvement and effective staff development literature quoted on page 2 and underpins the argument that has been made concerning the acceptance of the notion of school based- school focused improvement. Indeed, the idea of the centrality of the department in professional learning was outlined by Leask and Terrell (1996), and is not unknown. However, unlike that text, which is essentially secondary school practice focused, McCullogh et al seeks to provide an academic treatise on the politics of professionalism. It is, therefore, astounding that they conclude in favour of a structure, ‘the department’ that only really exists in secondary education, and in some versions of the curriculum alone. Even the TTA standards refer to ‘subject leadership’ as opposed to ‘department’ leadership (See page 60).

The McCullogh et al model seems to be built upon a notion of professionalism centred upon the workplace. They do include in their definition of professional learning the exploration of values, attitudes and ethical questions. They accept the need for knowledge about learning, pedagogy and management. However, the account fails to clearly support research and critical engagement and there is no mention of the role of the professional in the creation and development of knowledge. These are key aspects of HEI provision.

However, the authors complain that in their survey of professional development

'We heard little about formal departmental management and leadership.
We observed a lack of formal opportunities for teachers to learn to work
in teams, to clarify purposes and values and to develop collegial, non-threatening work place cultures' (McCullogh 2000:86).

This is somewhat at odds with their conclusion that professional development should be centred within the department. One argument to explain this ‘lack ‘would be that, the source of these ideas is primarily in the research literature and theory of school management and school improvement, as disseminated through higher education programmes, and is not widespread in the discussions of ‘the department’ or of practitioners. Indeed the account of Ball and Goodson (1985) and others, referred to on page 46, illustrates how practice can provide a conservative hegemony working against improvement initiatives. It could clearly be argued that the challenges of tackling ethical issues, of meeting the challenge of working with the variety of stakeholders and of building confidence for action might sometimes be best begun at least away from social pressures of the workplace.

However, their conclusion is that ‘Professional learning is situated, specific and practical in character’ that, ‘Most professional learning takes place in the normal workings of activity systems, such as departments and that, ‘The main form of professional learning is not through courses and conferences, although they have their place’. (McCullogh et al 2000:90). Indeed, they go on to suggest a connection between ‘formal’ provision and the empowered professional.

‘ Concentration upon formal provision can be seen as an extension of the technicist agenda, while promotion of the learning department inclines power to the teachers and implies a different notion of professionalism from that of those whose thinking assumes top-down, centre periphery control of teachers’ work.’ (McCullogh et al 2000:95)

We can only conclude, surely that 'this ain't necessarily so'. While some formal provision, perhaps predominantly that organised by LEAs to deliver central initiatives, might well be ‘technicist’, some, for example, that in HE, could be anti-technicist. Indeed, this form is often criticised for not focusing specifically on the technical aspects of what to do next in practice (See pages 1-15). Rather, the department, under severe pressures from parents, management, and inspection may well focus readily on
low level technical issues. These are clearly important such as how to mark books, or how to plan lessons. However, the department cannot be shown to be the natural seat of dialogue concerning larger, deeper issues such as whether we can use the theory of learning styles in practice, the implications of brain based learning research on year eight geography, or the socio-economic and ethical importance of social inclusion.

However, it should be remembered that the argument here is not simply school based professional development versus HE based, despite the large amount of literature supporting solely the former (See page 38). Rather, it is about some balance and relationship between the two, the effective contribution of each, and here specifically, about the nature of professionalism that is desired and needs to be worked for.

Goodson (1999 cited by McCullugh et al 2000: 115) has new meanings for new professionalism, given the socio-economic and political change facing us. He argues for increased opportunity and responsibility to exercise professional judgement. It might be suggested that increased responsibility might be built upon increased knowledge and high level critical abilities (following Barnett 1997)

Collaboration and shared expertise is central to this notion of the new professionalism, as is ‘teacher working authoritatively yet openly with partners in the wider community’. In this notion, Goodson touches upon the tension between authoritative expertise and partnership with all stakeholders. This relates to the school improvement notion of collegiality and involvement discussed on page 2. A tension here may be that the more authoritative the professional is, the less likelihood of partnership, not least due to the ready availability of the skills of critical argument, powerful knowledge, technical language and what Fullan (1991) calls ‘brute sanity’. However, logic suggest that little can best be achieved in the realm of collaboration by the professional using low level argument, fuzzy ideas, incomplete grasp of theory and perhaps brute insanity. Rather it might be argued that the critical analytical, knowledgeable professional can empower such collaboration and involvement to be effective in the pursuit of school improvement.
This professional authority, Goodson argues, needs to be subject to continuous learning to meet the obligations of endless change and deal with ‘high task complexity’. Goodson does not go on to suggest that a professional requirement would also be, in the light of the noted rapid socio-economic and political change, the ability to create and share new knowledge about the theory and practice of education. That is, the kind of capacity associated with HEI programmes (see page 8). This is surely a surprising omission if one is arguing for genuine partnership with all stakeholders and an interface between policy and provision. Such a stance, it might be argued, is centred upon the ability to create new ways of working and the exploration of the theoretical underpinnings. This is not to mention the skill of engagement in educational discourse to develop such new knowledge.

**The claim for a body of knowledge**

If the professional teacher lays claim to a body of knowledge, as Hoyle, Mckernon, McCullogh and others have argued, we may question as to what precisely is that body of knowledge. Many, including some undergraduate teachers dispute the claim to knowledge arguing that teaching is common sense’ (Terrell and Venn 1996), and that good teachers are born not made.

Bruner cited in Leach et al (1999) argues that,

‘Knowledge, is after all justified belief’

Justification would seem to be offered through evidence, common acceptance or by reference to authority. Whether knowledge can be justified without continuous challenge, is reasonably thought to be a condition of western thinking.

**The claim for a profession based upon research and evidence**

In this analysis of the notion of professional, and in seeking to assess the impact of professional development through accredited programmes in higher education, the claim for knowledge has been explored and has suggested a balance is found between
'propositional knowledge' and 'knowledge gained through practice'. One form of propositional knowledge would be that derived from research.

Hargreaves' view is that teaching in schools would be substantially improved if teaching were a research led profession. However, he concludes that it is not and that researchers are to blame for large amounts of low quality research which is not sufficiently cumulative or relevant to the practical concerns of teachers.

'there are few areas which have yielded a corpus of research evidence regarded as scientifically sound and as a worthwhile resource to guide professional action' (Hargreaves p.2 cited by Hammersley 1997:143)

He goes on to add that,

Few successful practising teachers use the knowledge provided by foundation disciplines (psychology, sociology, philosophy and history) or think it important for practice. Indeed, 'teachers are able to be effective in their work in almost total ignorance of this infrastructure'.

(Hargreaves cited by Hammersley 1997:143)

As a result,

'The disciplines of education are seen to consist of theory, which is strongly separated from practice. Trainee teachers soon spot the yawning gap between theory and practice and the low value of research as a guide to the solution of practical problems' (Hargreaves p2 cited by Hammersley 1997:143)

It may be argued, based upon the experience of working with teachers, that they may feel the first point to be true, although so much of teaching and managing in schools is the use of tacit knowledge, it is hard to assess how close to reality this view is. Teachers simply do not know much about where they base their knowledge and
understanding of their job. Hammersley reminds us that once Hargreaves held this view, quoting from ‘Interpersonal Relations and Education’, (Hargreaves 1967)

Secondly, in relation to this research, the question is surely, not about the impact of the research but the quality of the teacher education programmes. More specifically, whether engagement with the theory of teaching and managing have an impact upon the quality of education being provided.

Thirdly, Hammersley makes the point that Hargreaves’ view of research seems to be a commitment to positivism despite his central role in the 1960’s in the movement from positivist research to more qualitative research because of the failure to provide cumulative answers. Hammersley retorts that this is ‘not just a matter of fashion but a serious dispute about philosophical and methodological issues’, and lists the problems faced such as:

- effect measurement;
- standardising treatments;
- operationalising the concept of learning;
- the ethical and practical problems with experimenting;
- symbolic interaction involved in the learning process;
- scope for multiple perspectives;
- multiple goals;
- meaning is open to debate.

Citing, Schwab (1969), Hirst (1983), Carr (1987), and Olson (1992), Hammersley suggests that,

‘Teaching is a matter of making judgements rather than following technical rules’

and that Hargreaves himself contributed to this line of thinking as suggested by the comment that
‘...decisions are made partly on the basis of social skills, partly on the basis of certain value commitments’ (Hargreaves 1979 cited by Hammersley 1997).

Hammersley proposes a return to ‘an enlightenment’ view of research to
‘...shed light on old problems as well as throwing up new problems or at least problems that are not sufficiently acknowledged, formulated or discussed’ (Hargreaves 1972 p2 cited by Hammersley 1997:148).

A final attack on the Hargreaves’ view is made concerning the analogy with medicine. Hammersley asks why this profession was chosen above others, such as law, quoting research into medical practice. Hammersley illustrates that the clinician is as much a pragmatist. They make practical choices, rather than use theory and research, and that such choices are based, just as much on ‘prejudice, dogma and ideology’. In effect, Doctors have a non-rational approach to medicine where there is imperfect knowledge of problems, causes, treatments or their effects.

Some argue that evidence based practice is equated with more accountability and less professional judgement, however,

It seems unlikely that any clinician would deny the value of research evidence. What is at issue is the degree and nature of its use.
(Hammersley 1997:153)

In conclusion, if teaching is to be a research based profession, then we must ask what definition and model of research is at the heart of this model? Then we may be able to assess the extent to which accredited higher education programmes achieve this goal with individuals or collectively. However, we find no real consensus about what it means to be a research based profession, or what research is. Yet, the issue raised about the extent to which theory and research evidence can be promoted for use by accredited programmes in higher education must surely be central to the research.
Claims and Criticisms of the Teacher as Researcher Movement.

One development of the ‘teaching as a research led profession’ movement is the ‘teacher as researcher’ movement. Though the theoretical rationales for teacher research have been well argued by its major academic advocates including, Stenhouse, (1975); Whitehead, (1985), (1987); Carr & Kemmis, (1986); Winter, (1987) and Elliott, (1991,1995).

Elliott et al (1995) provides a lengthy list of claims for the ‘Teacher as researcher movement’ including the argument that it enables teachers to bring about fundamental changes in pedagogy and curriculum and thereby significantly improves the quality of students’ learning experiences in educational institutions (Elliott 1995). Practitioner-research, he argues, improves the quality of professional discourse in schools about educational problems and issues and enables teachers collaboratively to develop the curriculum. It improves the utilisation of research findings in educational institutions yet improves upon the findings of outsider researchers and enables teachers to make original contributions to the development of educational knowledge.

Elliott argues that the involvement of the teacher as a researcher forges new methodological directions for educational research, which transcends those developed in the context of outsider research and generates new methods of collecting, analysing, and reporting data. It also enables teachers to improve the theories, which underpin their practices, and to contribute to the development of educational theory.

Elliot also claims that, as a form of professional development, teacher led research impacts upon the longer-term professional development and careers of individual practitioners, after their involvement in projects, courses, or research vision has been discontinued. He suggests that, this form of research impacts upon the development of educational institutions and agencies as learning organisations for the teachers who work in them as well as the students. It also improves the capacity of teachers and schools to manage, creatively, external educational change in ways that are consistent with their professional values. This appears to be an argument placing the teacher as researcher movement centrally at the heart of the school improvement model (see
Yet, Elliott also suggests, it enhances the capacity of teachers to account for their practices in ways, which open them up to public scrutiny and debate.

But Elliott et al also list a number of criticisms of teacher authored accounts, including:

- the status of the claims to knowledge contained in these accounts;
- the validity of insider research methods and the possibility of ever being able to develop a methodology for insider research;
- the division of labour between teacher researchers and their academic supervisors and facilitators. Some teachers' accounts appear to display an over-dependence on the latter for theoretical analysis;
- the dominance of description over analysis in many accounts;
- the apparent inability of teacher researchers to use the conventional research and theoretical literature in their accounts;
- the emphasis in many accounts on incremental and gradual refinements to practice rather than effecting radical and politically consequential change;
- the tendency in many accounts to adopt a narrowly technicist stance to the problems of pedagogical change and to ignore the wider institutional and social processes which influence the locus of change;
- the adequacy of the research training teacher researchers appear to have received; and
- the hidden costs of teacher research for HE staff and sponsors, e.g. in support to teachers and schools, research training, trouble shooting for teacher researchers, and providing support for writing up.

While not explicit in either TTA documentation regarding bidding for CPD funding, nor in any documentation regarding the inspection of the TTA CPD programmes in higher education, the TTA has published promotional materials on the topic of “Teaching as a Research-Based Profession”.

“The TTA believes that teaching can and should be informed by high quality research in order to extend pupil achievements and that
teachers have an essential part to play in making this happen” (TTA Document Undated)

The TTA has supported this belief in establishing funded teacher research projects and sees its role as improving the accessibility of the existing stock of knowledge, improving the quality and relevance of research and in helping teachers to play a more active role in conceiving, implementing, evaluating and disseminating research. (TTA Document 1997)

The support for ‘teaching as a research based profession’ does not stretch to any mention of accredited higher education programmes. This is somewhat startling considering that research, particularly in the form of dissertations, but also in the form of assignments for modules, is central to higher education work, and especially at APU. This includes both reading and conducting research. Even more surprising is this at a time when the buzzword is ‘joined up government’. If we accept that accredited programmes in higher education are supposed to support teaching as a research based profession, a second problem here, however, is the definition of ‘research’ being used here.

Despite later acolytes of the ‘action research’ movement (see McNiff 1988), one of the originators, Stenhouse, sometimes seen as the father of the movement, was clear that he meant research based upon critically analysing and developing key concepts and building theory.

Stenhouse argued for teachers to be able to evaluate their own teaching through research saying,

'It is important to make the point that the teacher in this situation is concerned to understand better his own classroom. Consequently, he is not faced with the problems of generalizing beyond his experience. In his context, theory is simply a systematic structuring of his understanding of his work.' (Stenhouse 1975:156-7).

However, he went on to describe knowledge creation with,
'Concepts which are carefully related to one another are needed both to capture and to express that understanding. The adequacy of such concepts should be treated as provisional. The utility and appropriateness of the theoretical framework of concepts should be testable; and the theory should be rich enough to throw up new and profitable questions.' (Stenhouse 1975:156-7).

Stenhouse also pursued the collaborative nature of teacher research with,
'Each classroom should not be an island. Teachers working in such a tradition need to communicate with one another. They should report their work. Thus, a common vocabulary of concepts and a syntax of theory need to be developed. Where that language proves inadequate, teachers would need to propose new concepts and new theory. The first level of generalization is thus the development of a general theoretical language. In this, professional research workers should be able to help.' (Stenhouse 1975:156-7).

However, it was Stenhouse's ambition that the movement should build theoretical knowledge about practice in partnership with HEIs, or at least with what he called professional researchers.

'If teachers report their own work in such a tradition, case studies will accumulate, just as they do in medicine. Professional research workers will have to master this material and scrutinize it for general trends. It is out of this synthetic task that general propositional theory can be developed.' (Stenhouse 1975:156-7).

**The Link Between the Teacher as Researcher Movement and Accredited Higher Education Awards**

We have seen there is little consensus about the nature of research and its role in teaching among academics, and none-too little confusion concerning models of research from Government agencies. We do know however, that higher education can
base its existence on research, either conducting and disseminating it or requiring its participants to undertake forms of enquiry for dissertations and assignments. This is particularly so in the case study institution where research frequently forms the basis of assignments.

Having said that care must be taken to distinguish teacher research either as the production of new knowledge or new insights on existing knowledge, as a learning process developing the conceptual understanding of key concepts and as a process of school improvement or effectiveness (however, that may be defined). The first version bridges the assessment criteria for master’s and PhD work in higher education. The second concerns itself with a learning process and the third may sometimes meet the Ofsted/TTA criteria for impact, without necessarily involving the first two conceptions.

The last characterisation might see ‘action research’ as yet another mechanistic, instrumentalist ‘management tool’ (following Griffiths in Lomax 1990). The tension here is the extent to which research, and by implication the higher education programme, can claim to empower teachers when it is merely part of the process of implementing top down projects. Teachers, who may feel to be empowered by this model, may in fact be saying that they felt powerful by being able to achieve the external demands made of them, rather than empowered to challenge those external demands and create new perspectives on knowledge about teaching. (This again relates to the issues discussed by Barnett on being ‘critical’ on page 89.)

*The Reflective Practitioner.*

Another conception of the teaching professional, and one clearly linked to the ‘teacher as researcher’ and school improvement agenda is the concept of the reflective practitioner.

The term ‘The Reflective Practitioner’ was popularised by Schon (1983 and 1987) and its key concept, ‘reflection’ has been the subject of much dispute. Bengtsson (1995) asserts that reflection hides a variety of ideas on the nature of reflection and its implications for teaching as a profession, thus echoing Sparks (1991) who regards
reflection as 'a myriad of things'. Bengtsson (1995) suggests definitions based upon reflection as being self-reflection, reflection as thinking or refection as self-understanding.

Eraut is highly critical of the work of Schon, despite the assertion that, *The Reflective Practitioner* has probably been the most quoted book on professional expertise in the last ten years (Eraut 1994). His criticisms are that Schon uses selected cases to prove his point, overemphasises reflection in action, and fails to recognise the time element in reflection.

Eraut proposes a development of Schon's model by distinguishing three dimensions of reflection comprised of a. reflection in, b. reflection on, and c. reflection for action.

*Reflection in* action is about the context of where the reflection is taking place, while *reflection on action* identifies the focus. *Reflection for* identifies the purpose. While much of Schon relates to action, the purpose of reflection, according to Kolb is learning. Eraut also makes much of the time difference in different forms of reflection. *Reflection in action* being particularly time bound and dealing with instant solutions. He uses table 7 below to illustrate this point about time/speed and differences in reflection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Instant recognition</th>
<th>Rapid Interpretation</th>
<th>Deliberative Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decision</td>
<td>Instant Response</td>
<td>Rapid Decisions</td>
<td>Deliberative Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Routinized unreflective action</td>
<td>Action Monitored by Reflection</td>
<td>Action following a period of deliberation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 The link between speed and mode of cognition. (From Eraut 1994 pl49)

Eraut goes on to suggest that creating time for deliberation is extremely difficult for the professional. This could not be any more true for the NQT in the first year of
teaching, when survival and the mere pressure of new work loads and new situations causes its own pressures on time. Yet, after the first year, the novice teacher may well be able to start to learn more about their work as a teacher, begin to learn about areas which had not been covered in initial training and strategies to think about their career development. (See page 46)

In some conceptions of the reflective practitioner, there seems to be a view that practical experience is a replacement for theoretical knowledge. Kolb's cycle of experiential learning, which is much used, especially by the exponents of learning through the practice teaching (see page 38), does not involve a stage where theoretical knowledge is used to analyse experience (Kolb 1984 in Thorpe et al 1993))

Fig 1 Model of Experiential Learning by Kolb 1984 in Thorpe et al 1993

McNiff (1988), in her introduction to her book on action research, reveals that in searching for answers to questions about her own practice asserts that:

Nobody told me, and I was not confident to realise that I had all the answers all the time within my own practice and my own tacit knowledge.’

And further in her choice of a university who said
‘We will support you in your enquiry, as you will find its solution through your own practice. Your thesis will be written version of your experience in working towards a solution...’ (McNiff 1985:xv)

Such a view is in contrast with Bennett, for example, who suggests that,
‘Just because one starts from a practical problem or issue does not mean that we ignore theory. On the contrary, it is the potential which theory has to provide alternative ways of looking at a problem that permits the development of reflective practice.’ (Bennett 1995:142)

Such a view is contrast to Cockman, Evans and Reynolds (1992) whose model of client centred consulting is based upon Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle. However, they introduce a number of important concepts including a ‘theory input’ phase in the reflective learning cycle (Terrell 1995).

**What is the role of theory in effective professional development?**

The place of theory in professional development is a central question to this investigation into the impact of credit bearing HE programmes. ‘Theory’ it is argued,
is central to the APU programme and indeed forms part of the assessment criteria (See page 8). In looking at what is effective CPD we need to consider the use and purpose of theory in such programmes. Candidates at master's level, at APU are expected to know and apply appropriate theoretical models to educational problems, they are to critically analyse and evaluate theories and concepts, and develop new perspectives (see page 8).

Fig 2 Client–Centred Consultancy (Cockman et al 1992:21)

Hirst (1966 cited by Grenfall et al 1998) suggest that 'Theory is 'knowledge that is organised for determining some practical activity' i.e. the way that we make practical choices to effect and determine education in the first place. Hopkins and others are keen to use the maxim, ‘There is nothing so practical as good theory’ (Lewin cited by Hopkins 1994).
However, some see even this practical use of theory as in some ways diminishing the claim of teachers to be practically competent.

**The creation of knowledge through being ‘critical’?**

The notion of reflection has already been raised. Some would argue that reflection is not enough without being ‘critically reflective’. The major contribution of higher education is that element of criticality therefore, that enables the frontier of knowledge to be moved forward. Barnett, in his analysis of higher education as a critical business (Barnett 1997) argues that there are different levels of criticality including critical thinking skills, critical thought and critique. The last mode, he argues, ‘opens the possibility of entirely different and even contrasting modes of understanding’.

He goes on to argue that there are different dimensions, which he lists as, criticism of knowledge, of self, and of the world. Barnett argues that three forms of critical being are possible. The first is centred upon critical reason, the second on critical self-reflection and the third, and most important for him, is critical action.

Barnett challenges higher education not just to produce thinkers but action takers, not just to see higher education as the pursuit of a narrowly defined academic excellence but also to develop critical persons.

‘Critical persons are more than just critical thinkers. They are able critically to engage with the world and with themselves as well as with knowledge. It follows that we have to displace critical thinking as a core concept. The concept that I am proposing is that of critical being, which embraces critical thinking, critical action and critical self-deception.’ (Barnett 1997:1).

He argues that in a rapidly changing ‘supercomplex world’ these qualities are essential for the professional. This case matches the argument put forward by the ‘school improvers’ (See page 4) concerning the need to step out of the bounds of existing theories and assumptions about learning and ability to dramatically re-conceptualise achievement and excellence in schools as being attainable by all students. It could be
argued therefore that this is as much a ‘school improvement’ notion as anything else. (See page 3)

However, as Barnett argues that,

‘Critical self-reflection and critical action have hardly appeared as components of higher education. The emancipatory potential of critical being-in thought, in self-understanding and in action - is being vitiated.’ (Barnett 1997:2)

Conceptions of Professionalism, the State and Higher Education

This analysis has been focused upon the role of CPD in Higher education in ‘school improvement’. In looking at the contested nature of what makes an effective professional the account has inevitably needed to analyse notions of professionalism and its relationship to the state. Tensions have been highlighted between the ‘effectiveness’ and the ‘improvement’ agenda (See pages 1-3), between the ‘competence’ and ‘extended professional’ movements, and the instrumentalist and critical reflection movements. This issue is further explored by reference to the work of Whitty et al (1998) and Elliott (1993).

Whitty et al (1998) detects different conceptions of teaching and quotes the work of Codd 1995. (See table 8). This suggests different role models, criteria for effective practice, aims and administrative contexts. It has been argued, by Graham (Seminar notes 2000 SCETT) that the movement has been towards the technocratic reductionism model from a professional-contextualist model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role model</th>
<th>Skilled technician</th>
<th>Reflexive practitioner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criterion of good practice</td>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical aim</td>
<td>Attainment of specific learning outcomes</td>
<td>Development of diverse human capabilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Administrative context | Efficient management (hierarchical) | Professional leadership (collaborative)
---|---|---
Type of motivation | Extrinsic | Intrinsic
Form of accountability | Contractual compliance | Professional commitment

Table 8 Conceptions of Teaching (from Whitty et al 1988)

Source After Codd (1995: 27)

The debate about the kind of training and professional development deemed appropriate for teachers is similarly outlined by the work of Elliott in his analysis of the history of teacher education. Elliott divides teacher education into three models: ‘The Rational Model’, ‘The Social Market Model’ and ‘The Practical Science Model’ (Elliott 1993). (See Table 9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model One: The Rational Model</th>
<th>Model Two: The Social Market Model</th>
<th>Model Three The Practical Science</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initial Training</strong></td>
<td><strong>Initial Training</strong></td>
<td><strong>Initial Training</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training based on Theory into Practice in One Year</td>
<td>Training by a variety of providers</td>
<td>A basic curriculum emphasising analytic case studies in the light of relevant theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGCE or a four-year B.Ed.</td>
<td>Largely based on practice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominance of H.E. Institutions.</td>
<td>Competence Based</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Induction</strong></td>
<td><strong>Induction</strong></td>
<td><strong>Induction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak Induction during Probation as a safety net.</td>
<td>Probationary Year is unnecessary.</td>
<td>An emphasis on diagnostic reflection to enable them to clarify problems and possibilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In-Service Training
Voluntary and Individual
Assumption of autonomous professional able to make own choices concerning inset.

In-service
School based and focused according to ‘market need’ as identified by the individual school.

In-service
Career Long Learning involving discursive reflection and evaluation

Table 9. Three Models of Teacher Education (derived from Elliott 1993)

Elliott calls for reconstructing teacher education as a practical science (Elliott 1993). The key features of this are that teaching:

- Is responsive to discontinuous and fragmented social change;
- Deals with problematic, complex value laden issues and concerns;
- Requires teachers to exercise practical wisdom;
- Puts an emphasis on situational understanding;
- Demands that situational understanding is conditioned by practical interest in realising values;
- Suggests that knowledge consists of experience of cases;
- Makes judgements that are both ethical and technical;
- Ensures that systematic reflection by practitioners plays a central role;
- Is learned through discussion with experienced peers, and clients.

The central role of reflection and analysis of practice is emphasised by Elliott. Further, Elliott says, such reflection should focus on developing “practical wisdom” or the means of effective practice. This is dependent both upon a general set of rules of effectiveness, built up through a study of cases but also on “situational understanding”. Yet discussion of values and ethics plays a central role in the debate about effectiveness, focusing as it does on both means and ends.

We have great sympathy with the model of teaching as a practical science, which moves teaching beyond a simple set of general technical solutions. Clearly, if teacher
education were about developing a practical science, it would display a number of key characteristics. We might envisage certain key characteristics, including:

1. Discussion of values and beliefs;
2. Discussions of different situations and the variables, which influence the specific situations;
3. Ethical questions should be raised.
4. Systematic reflection should be evident.
5. Learning should be centred upon the discussion between teacher–student and tutor-mentor.

Eraut calls for a rethinking of higher education’s role in teacher education and continuing professional development, in particular, he calls for:

‘A jointly planned programme of continuing education opportunities for mid-career professionals which assists them: to reflect on their experience, make it more explicit through having to share it, interpret it and recognise it as a basis for future learning; and to escape from their experience in the sense of challenging traditional assumptions and acquiring new perspectives. The programme would also provide follow-up support with subsequent "on-the-job" activities.’

(Eraut 1994:57)

It could be and is argued that any HE institution bidding to the TTA for funds has explicitly accepted the challenge of achieving the TTA outcomes and hence are contracted to achieve ‘impact’. In addition, through the inspection, achieving that impact through the process of needs identification, and quality provision.

However, this may be news to university staff, particularly those outside of in-service education, who may well have a different view of the role and purpose of HE programmes for credit. Hence, this section attempts to articulate what HE is trying to achieve in its accredited programmes.

Eraut suggest that the role of the university has always been relatively weak in the UK for a number of reasons, saying:
‘In the international context, it is important to recognise that the process of incorporating significant parts of professional preparation into higher education has been much slower in Britain than in many other countries. Reasons include the greater power of the professional organisations in Britain, the persistence of elite rather than mass higher education and the concomitant lack of diversity in the higher-education system prior to the formation of the polytechnics.’ (Eraut 1994: 8)

The universities’ role in continuing professional development, as opposed to initial teacher education remains unclear. Eraut see a ‘natural link between HE involvement in ITT and in CPD.

‘Once the higher education department became established providers of initial training for the professions, it was only natural that they should also become involved in research and continuing professional education. But both these further roles are strongly influenced by other contextual constraints. A number of professional educators seek to retain practitioner roles and some are obliged to do so.’ (Eraut 1994: 9).

Eraut calls for a ‘new relationship between the professions and higher education’,

‘The barriers to practice-centred knowledge creation and development..., are most likely to be overcome if higher education is prepared to extend its role from that of creator and transmitter of generalizable knowledge to that of enhancing the knowledge creation capacities of individuals and professional communities. This would involve recognising that much knowledge creation takes place outside the higher-education system, but is nevertheless limited by the absence of appropriate support structures and the prevailing action-orientation of practical contexts.’ (Eraut 1994:10).
Eraut goes on to call for, ‘close relations’ between institutions and professional communities and ‘joint responsibility’ for knowledge, creation, development and dissemination. He goes on to suggest:

- ‘Collaborative research projects into the acquisition and development of important areas of professional knowledge and know-how;

- Problem-oriented seminars for groups of researchers and mid-career professionals, including where relevant members of other professions;

- A jointly planned programme of continuing education opportunities for mid-career professionals which assists them: to reflect on their experience, make it more explicit through having to share it, interpret it and recognise it as a basis for future learning; and to escape from the experience in the sense of challenging traditional assumptions and acquiring new perspectives. The programme would also provide follow-up support with subsequent "on-the-job" activities.’ (Eraut 1994:57)

An initial reaction to reading this might be, ‘Isn’t this what accredited programmes of CPD in Higher education do?’ Hence, this enquiry is about whether university programmes are already supporting staff to create new knowledge of professional practice, and whether they assist reflection and challenge traditional assumptions. (See page 8)

Credit Bearing HE Programmes of CPD and School Improvement

Unfortunately, it would appear that there are no national university criteria for accredited programmes in education, and there are no national graduate or postgraduate criteria for levels. Thus what happens in APU programmes could be unique. This fact alone leaves this research as a case study of one institution, and therefore in
assessing 'impact' in terms of 'outcomes' we assume the achievement of this institution's set of criteria. (See page 9)

In the case study institution the standard for level 3 work (Undergraduate) is described with:

‘Criteria for assessment at level 3 should be characterised by an expectation of the individual’s increasing autonomy in relation to his/her study and development of competence. Evidence of this would be through ability in problem solving skills both theoretical and practical. This would be supported by an understanding of appropriate theory; creativity of expression and thought based in individual judgement; and the ability to seek out, invoke, analyse and evaluate competing theories or methods of working in a critically constructive and open manner. The potential of the individual as innovator in relation to his/her specialist area would be anticipated. Necessarily there is an expectation that this level output is articulate and coherent and skilled in the appropriate medium.’

And at post-graduate master’s level (M),

‘Criteria for assessment at Level M should be characterised by an expectation of the individual's expertise in his /her subject of competence. Evidence of this would be the individual's control of the situation shown through independent in negotiation of assessment tasks, with tutors where appropriate, and the ability to evaluate, challenge, modify and develop theory and practice. A very clear ability to isolate and focus on the significant features of problems and to offer synthetic and coherent solutions would be expected. Increasing independence of tutor support to the point where the individual was able to evaluate this as a resource would be characteristic, as would the potential for leading others in the specialist area with competent and confidence.’
These criteria are focused upon both personal and professional skills and qualities in the sense of independence, skills of continuous learning and critical analysis. They cover both practical and academic or theoretic work, even at master’s level. As such, it could not be easily argued that these qualities are in opposition, or are alternatives, to what one would consider to be the qualities of ‘a professional’.

It may be argued that there could be some tension between the ‘academic criteria’ of the institution(s) and the TTA desire to impact upon standards of teaching and the quality of learning in the classroom. One may suggest, a ‘purchasing agency’ such as the TTA is, therefore, quite within its rights to specify the outcomes of the training it wishes to purchase, in the absence of any clear product or marketing pitch from the suppliers (universities). Such a situation has underpinned the desire of this research to explore the questions:

- What are CPD programmes in HE trying to achieve and how?
- How does this relate to conceptions of teaching and managing schools and the profession of teaching?

The draft document, quoted in Table 4 on page 47, was one attempt by university CPD providers to gain agreement about what HE was trying to do with teachers, that went beyond impact in practice. In contrast to the sentiment reported on page 10, ‘that we do not do impact’, it is clear that some universities at least see that they have relevance to practice and propositional knowledge. Indeed, as was shown in the work of McCullough et al (2000), in many professions, the link with higher education is part of the criteria. (see page 76). Yet, in Education, in the professional development of teachers, and not least in the area of school improvement there is some doubt about the role of HE. (See page 13 and 39)

**The New School Improvement Agenda and the Role of HEI**

The introduction and context chapter made the case for ‘school improvement’ as opposed to the narrower school effectiveness model with its limited conception of achievement and static notion of effectiveness. Much has been made of the key conditions, outlined by Hopkins and the emphasis on capacity building (See page 3).
These conditions have focused upon leadership from across the institutions, on enquiry and reflection, on staff development as well as planning, coordination and involvement (Hopkins 1994). The notion of school focused and centred development has been central. (Hopkins 1986) (See page 3.)

Much of this argument has been repeated in Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997) and ‘The New Structure of School Improvement’ (1999). Inevitably, and as if underlining the argument put forward here concerning the rapid development of knowledge, there are some significant shifts of emphasis between the 1994, the 1997 and 1999 expositions of Hopkins and his co-authors.

The 1997 work centred even more strongly on demonstrating, indeed coaching the techniques, first introduced by Joyce and Showers (1988) called models of teaching. These, as the authors describes are ‘powerful tools’, that have been researched and developed, largely by academics, to achieve defined educational outcomes. There is clear description of the academic research based evidence that supports the models and the emphasis is on widening the repertoire of teaching strategies. The work picks up an important theme of school development, of focusing on a wide definition achievement, including personal and social skills, but also develops this into an argument for the importance of metacognition.

However, the work seems largely didactic in nature, rather than, as Hopkins (1994), and Hopkins (1989) at least implied based upon enquiry and reflection to create new perspectives on teaching and learning. Indeed, at training sessions, Hopkins has stated that the best start is merely to accept the models as they are and not to adapt them. (Contemporaneous Notes Hopkins 1999). Not until chapter 12, of the 1997 work is there mention of the process of learning these models. The emphasis is both on the individual and working collaboratively as a whole school staff (Joyce et al 1997:140) Reading and practise are emphasised. Later there is a call for support from LEAs, and universities. (Joyce et al 1997:143) and for making the existing curriculum and pedagogic knowledge base for teachers available for teachers. (Joyce et al 1997:151). The work calls for school university partnerships to achieve this, ‘School-University
partnerships can *easily* be developed in the interests of research' (p151 the authors italics).

This appears to hint at conditions beyond the school that Joyce and Hopkins seems to feel important to the school improvement movement. Not least in this is knowledge of curriculum and pedagogy, some role of HEIs and the connection with a research tradition.

However, Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1999) repeats the call for 'The school as a center of enquiry' (sic p9) and for continuous improvement. Their new emphasis is on the involvement of community members, as an 'active living democracy' (pi l). They reassert the need to 'connect to the knowledge base', and emphasise their 'effect size' training models (see page 36) first outlined in from Joyce 1988. However, they also refer to ‘action research’ as ‘*an embedded management mode*’ (Joyce et al 1999:215), perhaps in contrast to the definitions outlined by Elliott and others (on page 91).

Whilst not having less than sympathy for these concepts, the argument here is that this ‘new structure of school improvement’ has rather too many elements of the effective school, static knowledge base, and top down managerialist view. So too, it could be argued, is it focused rather too much on the school as the centre of analysis, rather than conditions in the wider sphere of education. Not least, the model seems to fail in looking at the capacity of the system to sustain, for example, the very school-university partnerships that the model pays some reference to.

Some of this is echoed in the work of Frost, Durrant, Head and Holden (2000) in their work ‘Teacher Led School Improvement’. They challenge the ‘organisational science’ orthodoxy of the school improvement model, pointing to its contradiction that individual schools are the centre but are set free by external agencies such as central government and LEAs. They also rail against the notion of ‘the whole school’ as a discrete entity that might identify needs, suggesting that Head Teachers or senior teams might identify needs but school improvement depends upon the active involvement of a range of *individuals and groups* (See page 3). Frost et al, using the arguments of Ball (1987), are also concerned about the insufficient attention to the ideological and political nature of organisational life. In this they at least allude to
influences beyond the school including teacher professionalism, and the impact of teacher morale on school improvement initiatives. They explicitly refer to the importance of award bearing programmes in higher education as a factor in school improvement initiatives. Their model includes a partnership with a HEI, networking of teachers and teacher action research.

The Frost et al, ‘Cantarnet model’ then, offers some similarities and differences with the school improvement model of Hopkins and Joyce. However, neither model really explores the role that HEI programmes have in school improvement, or the conditions that might lead to effective school-university partnerships for improvement. However, table 10 seeks to draw out some of the differences and similarities, in terms of the school improvement model and the HEI-School partnership model, using some of the key conditions of school improvement. (See page 3)

Conclusion: What the literature does and does not tell us.

This account has shown that little is really known about the impact of CPD programmes in general and more specifically CPD programmes for academic award in Higher education. There has been a desire, particularly on the part of government to measure impact ‘precisely’ in terms of teaching behaviours or indeed the learning outcomes of pupils. However, for a number of reasons this has proved difficult, to say the least. One argument is to create good evaluation of effect sizes and this can be achieved through creating a narrow definition of what teaching is and what teaching behaviours we expect. The implications of this ‘technicist’ and ‘managerialist’ approach, not least to teacher professionalism and its relation to the state, have been explored. Comparatively little research has explored the views of teachers, or catalogued the variety outcomes research into what the participants say is the impact on them, their work and their institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concepts</th>
<th>School Improvement</th>
<th>Goals of HE using a ‘School Improvement’ notion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>Development of ‘capacity’</td>
<td>Knowledge and Understanding of Research and theory as capacity building.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions</td>
<td>Building school internal conditions</td>
<td>Building internal and external conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Leadership of improvement distributed among whole staff. Implicit ‘top down’ legitimation to enable it to happen.</td>
<td>Distributed leadership through knowledge, critical discourse, across whole profession. Leadership through challenge to authority, with or without legitimation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enquiry</td>
<td>Enquiry and reflection as practical activities that need little support and can be undertaken internally.</td>
<td>Enquiry: critical analysis, the task of raising the ‘Level’ of debate. Theory into Practice, Critical action. Regeneration of ‘knowledge’. Creation of new perspectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Development</td>
<td>Staff Development as ‘training’ (e.g. Joyce and Showers) or ‘collaborative enquiry’ (IQEA) Importance of coaching, observation and feedback. Priority to school needs and emphasis on ‘practical’.</td>
<td>CPD as knowledge, enquiry, analysis, research, debate Priority to individual needs, emphasis on personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Planning for change (including elements of rational-managerialism planning model)</td>
<td>Planning as negotiation between individuals and groups. Planning by schools and HE a goal to achieve in the real world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Involvement of Teacher groups and stakeholders: ‘Whole School’, Parents and Pupils Anti ‘Hero innovator’</td>
<td>Collaboration where it exists. Groups where they exist as groups Individuals as leaders of collaboration Value of the ‘Hero Innovator’ as ‘Missionary’ if there is nothing else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre and Focus of Improvement</td>
<td>Largely school centred and always school focused</td>
<td>System and School, Importance of teacher cultural context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrality of Teaching and Learning</td>
<td>‘Teaching and learning focus’ often decided as a whole school priority.</td>
<td>Individual teaching and learning based foci e.g. SEN, Subject based, management based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership and Empowerment</td>
<td>Ownership of change through involvement and self generation Empowerment through involvement</td>
<td>Ownership through Empowerment through award, expertise, knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Teacher professionalism as contributor to school group improvement projects</td>
<td>Teacher professionalism through alma mater, ideas, criticality, research evidence, debate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Support</td>
<td>Some mention of external support Little or no mention of HE Involvement. Occasional negative reference to HE based programmes No mention of academic awards or teacher accreditation</td>
<td>Partnership as a system condition Explicit teacher accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of School Improvement</td>
<td>Presented as a worked out theory in various newly developed forms.</td>
<td>School improvement as a developing theory to be debated and discussed, experimented with in different forms, with HE and school partners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 Comparison of the Key Concepts of School Improvement and Goals of HEI.

A number of other ‘impacts’ have been explored beyond the TTA quoted ‘on standards’ including the effects of greater knowledge, the use of theoretical ideas and the role of ‘critical reflection’. The research is both interested in the use of this
knowledge by the individual and how it ‘impacts upon’ their institutions and the profession of teaching as a whole.

What is known about the conditions that maximise the effectiveness of professional development activities has been outlined. These in the main have focused upon the school and have been dominated by a rational-technicist-managerialist approach involving needs identification (a particularly at the school level), planning and evaluation. However, the literature has been shown to be more diverse and complex involving concepts such as motivation, aspiration and peer group pressure. This is related to both age and career.

This research will explore what motivates some teachers to do more than attend technicist and managerialist school based CPD, and work for academic award in higher education. Which ‘conditions’ maximise impact in programmes of accredited CPD in higher education will be explored with different groups of teachers in the following empirical research.

In the next chapter, there will be an exploration and justification of the methodological issues related to the research. The discussion will explore the nature of the knowledge created by this research and argue that the perceptions and values of teachers on the programmes themselves are valid accounts of the impact of the programmes on them and their institutions. The account will explore the inherent value positions, which we have touched upon in our discussion of professionalism, conceptions of teaching and research. This will seek to justify an account from the perspective of the participants as a means of exploring impact.
Chapter Three.
The Research Methodology and Methods.

Introduction

This research is an evaluation of the impact of CPD in higher education on teachers and their institutions and an analysis the conditions which lead to that impact. The purpose of this chapter of the account is to define the kind of enquiry that is being pursued and locate the work within a research tradition so that we may understand the nature of the knowledge being created in this enterprise.

This is achieved by discussion in four sections. First, the purpose of this research is discussed. Second, there follows a discussion on the nature and implications of following the interpretative and naturalistic tradition in this research. Third, the question of conducting what is essentially an evaluation is considered in relation to that tradition.

Lastly, there is an outline of the specific data collection and analysis methods used in this case study research of one institution (APU). This gives details of four phases the use of semi-structured interviews, initially with a cohort of University based students and then with a variety of school-based and LEA based modules. Additional perspectives are provided through interviews with Headteachers, particularly on the issue of the role of HE programmes in school improvement. Details of the way in which the data has been analysed through progressive focusing are outlined.

Planning and conducting the research presented several difficulties, which have constrained the options open to the research. Planning research when delivery of CPD is uncertain and long term is not easy. The full MA programme of credit accumulation can take any individual up to six years. Modules need to recruit students before they are delivered and this hinders detailed advanced planning. In meeting specific needs of individuals or schools, the exact nature of the programmes and planned outcomes can vary within reason. Specifically, opportunities for developing programmes that might maximise impact are often negotiated rather than completely pre-planned. The participants on such programmes are busy professionals and have limited time for
participation in research. As we have seen before, precise measurement of outcomes, particularly on student learning is difficult and may take some years to manifest itself (see page 49). However, lessons learned from the study have necessarily been used during the study, thus the nature of the programme being studied has changed during and as a result of the research.

These problems have steered the research towards a particular style and purpose which is outlined below.

3.1 A definition and purpose of research and this study.

Mortimore argues that, 'The first major task of research is to conceptualise, observe and systematically record events and processes to do with learning. The second task is to analyse such observations in order to describe accurately their conditions, contexts and implications...’ (Mortimore 1999). Bassey (Research Intelligence 35) uses Stenhouse’s definition that: -

‘Research entails systematic, critical and self-critical enquiry, which aims to contribute to the advancement of knowledge.’ (Stenhouse cited by Bassey RI35 Summer 1990:35)

In this research the spirit of enquiry has been stimulated by a genuine interest. However, it would have been easy to have made research into the impact, and conditions for impact, to have formed the basis for a campaign to establish the importance of the University CPD programmes. A number of steps were taken to avoid this, including the use of a team of interviewers, not necessarily associated with the University’s views; the development of interim reports on data; and the verification of the descriptive validity of the accounts via practitioners and other professionals. Partly, the genuineness of the enquiry may be established by the enthusiasm by which the account is self-critical of its research and data analysis methods. The account seeks to be self-critical about practice and also seeks to change to improve it.

104
The mission has been to be critical of the knowledge and practice of CPD both in higher education and beyond. This spirit of ‘criticality’ (following Barnett 1990, 1997, 2000) is indeed part of the analysis of the role of higher education. The section on the methods we have adopted outlines the systematic approach to data collection.

Yet perhaps this is too defensive a position. Clearly, the research is essentially value laden and political in the sense of studying impact of a system one works within. This makes it no less worthy as research according to Denzin and Lincoln so long as the researcher can ‘make explicit the ‘moral and political commitments in their own contingent work’’ (Carey 1989 cited by Denzin and Lincoln 2000:8). Indeed, it shall be shown how undertaking this study in a naturalistic and interpretative tradition supports this kind of evaluative research.

3.2 A systematic naturalistic and interpretative multiple case study evaluation.

The research sits within a tradition of research variously described as ‘interpretative’ (Denzin and Lincoln 2000), ‘naturalistic’ (Robson 1993), ‘qualitative’ (Patton 1990) or ‘anti positivist’ (Cohen and Manion 1994, 2000). Yet, the work also has the characteristics of a case study (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000) and an illuminative evaluation (Parlett and Hamilton 1972).

No apology is made for the apparent ecumenicalism of this approach since Punch 1998 cites Denzin and Lincoln (1994:ix) with:

"It did not take us long to discover that the 'field' of qualitative research is far from a unified set of principles promulgated by networked groups of scholars. In fact, we have discovered that the field of quantitative research is defined primarily by a series of essential tensions, contradictions and hesitations. These tensions work back and forth among competing definitions and conceptions of the field."

He goes on to say that,

"Qualitative research methods are a complex, changing and contested field- a site of multiple methodologies and research practices. 'Qualitative Research' therefore is not a single entity, but an umbrella term which encompasses enormous variety." (Punch 1998:139)
Atkinson, Delamont, and Hammersley outline seven “traditions” of qualitative research including, symbolic interactionism, anthropology, sociolinguistics, ethnomethodology, illuminative, democratic and other forms of evaluation, neo-Marxist ethnography and feminists research (In Hammersley 1993.)

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) explain the diversity of this tradition with the statement that,
‘A complex interconnected family of terms, concepts, and assumptions surround the term qualitative research. These include the traditions associated with foundationalism, positivism, postfoundationalism, postpositivism, poststructuralism, and the many qualitative research perspectives, and/or methods, connected to cultural and interpretative studies... There are separate and detailed literatures on the many methods and approaches that fall under this category of qualitative report, such as case studies, politics and ethics, participatory enquiry, interviewing, participant observation, visual methods, and interpretative analysis.’
(Denzin and Lincoln 2000:1).

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) take a historical view, which focuses upon epistemological and ontological differences in emphasis in what they call ‘seven moments’. They say that, ‘Qualitative research means something different in each of these moments’. Denzin and Lincoln. 2000:3). Their account moves from the traditional and modernist periods (1900-1950 and 1950-1970 respectively), to a period of ‘blurred genres’ (1970-1986) and a crises of representation (1986-1990). This period led to a ‘post-modern’ period (1990-95) and a ‘post experimental’ period 1995-2000, and ultimately to the current period, which they label ‘The future’.

These ‘moments’, for Denzin and Lincoln (2000) represent different responses to, among others things, key philosophical issues concerning the nature of knowledge and its creation, the nature of reality, and objectivity and subjectivity. Much of this they see as an attempt to break free of positivism and develop a new, yet equally defensible research methodology,
‘The positivist and postpositivist traditions linger like long shadows over the qualitative research project.’ (Denzin and Lincoln 2000: 9)

In support of this idea they use the example of Strauss and Corbin’s grounded theory work, which they say uses the canons of positivism and postpositivism (2000:9). (This idea is followed up later in the argument for rejecting quantitative analysis techniques on page 143)

Avoiding a perceived nihilism and extreme relativist position of the postmodern moment has been a recent trend, they argue. According to Greenwood and Levin (in Denzin and Lincoln 2001) there has been a renewed interest in research which leads to action or ‘action research’ to create ‘valid knowledge, theoretical development and social improvements’ (p87). The concern of researchers in this tradition has been on building equity, democracy, freedom and community.

In passing, it is germane to mention that Greenwood and Levine focus their account under the title ‘Restructuring the Relationship between Universities and Society’. They call for critical enquiry and action being led by the Universities in the tradition of Humboldt (1767-1835). Similarly, Kinchloe and McLaren (in Denzin and Lincoln 2001) call for ‘empowering individuals to struggle for a better world’. They quote Horkheimer (1972) saying ‘critical theory and research are never satisfied with merely increasing knowledge’ (in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:291). These accounts therefore have parallels in the work of Barnett (discussed on page 89) and reflect a central theme of this work in terms of building ‘criticality’ for school improvement.

Naturalistic and Interpretative Research

Punch (1998) lists the characteristics of ‘qualitative research’ as working with ‘case studies’ and within ‘bounded systems’. This reflects a concern for what he calls ‘the unit of analysis’ and the preservation of ‘wholeness, unity and integrity’ of the data. Multiple sources of data collection are used. This form of research, for Punch, leads to generalisation being made through conceptualisation and by developing propositions. These points are developed later, particularly in regard to the notion of ‘the case’.
Denzin and Lincoln describe interpretative research as, capturing the individual's point of view, examining the constraints of everyday life, and securing rich descriptions. They argue that ‘The qualitative researcher may take on many and gendered images’ and use the terms ‘bricoleur’ and ‘quiltmaker’ to describe the naturalistic researcher (Denzin and Lincoln 2000).

This roughly describes and defines the research here. Clearly, this is a case study of one University, albeit in parts, possibly an illustration of or comparison with, others. The system is bounded, although this seems fairly loose, and the unit of analysis, the University programme, is a large one. However, no additional benefit would be gained by involving more than one university programme since the nature of the APU programme is in itself a key defining factor.

An attempt has been made to retain the wholeness of the data by concentrating on the stories of individuals attending APU and collecting a variety of pertinent data, including that derived from interviews, their work and interviews with stakeholders.

Robson (1993) summarising the work of Lincoln and Guba (1985) outlines 14 characteristics of ‘naturalistic enquiry’. These are shown in table 11, which illustrates how this research fits within that tradition.

Table 11 Characteristics of this research in relation to Robson’s criteria for qualitative research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Robson's Characteristic</th>
<th>Characteristic of This Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In a natural setting</td>
<td>The setting of programmes centred upon APU. Wherever possible cohorts of students in natural groups are retained as ‘case studies within the case study’. (See page 134)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of the Human instrument</td>
<td>The enquirers and the teacher /students are the primary data gatherers and sources. Semi structured interviews and observation are used. Values and perceptions are a central focus. (See page 119)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of tacit</td>
<td>The feelings and perceptions of teachers are central to the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Qualitative methods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The data collected is through semi-structured interviews concerning the perceptions and meaning of the participants. Observation and documentary analysis support the data collection. (See page 134)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposive sampling.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students who were selected to be interviewed were chosen because they were on modules, which were typical of the programmes the institution was trying to develop. (See page 134)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inductive data analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The analytical framework emerged from the first data collection and was tested and developed through progressive focusing. (See page 140)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The theoretical notions largely developed from the data. (See page 140)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergent design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research design developed over the period of the research, taking opportunities to study new contexts and using progressive focusing on key ideas that emerged from the data. (Page 147)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiated outcomes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wherever possible the outcomes of the research were discussed and verified by the participants.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study reporting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where possible, each cohort/module has been reported as a ‘case study’ within the case study of APU programmes. (See page 131)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideograph interpretation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The data has been interpreted and reported at the level of the sub case (i.e. module/cohort). Overall the reporting is about the case of key APU modules. Findings are therefore limited to what is possible in the best of circumstances. No claims are made as to the overall impact of HE programmes elsewhere.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tentative application (generalisation)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research seeks to find some lessons concerning the impact of programmes under certain conditions found at APU. It is envisaged that these lessons can be related to by other institutions, in similar circumstances striving to maximise ‘impact’.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus-determined boundaries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research is bounded by the focus on the impact of APU programmes and sub sets are bounded by the cohort/module. These are presented as case studies within the case study.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special criteria for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trustworthiness of the report is based upon:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of the systematic data collection and analysis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
trustworthiness  
(equivalent to reliability, validity and objectivity)

| The use of triangulation between interviews and student products. |
| The process of reporting back to participants to assess ecological and face validity, |
| The experience and skill of the researcher. (See page 117) |

(Adapted from Robson’s (1993: 61) adaptation of Lincoln and Guba 1985: 39-45)

The research rejects the notion of positivism in this case. Positivism implies control over variables. Punch argues that the quantitative researcher uses terms such as “variables”, “factors which affect”, and “correlates”. Positivist research seeks a high degree of predictability and a search for general laws. (Cohen and Manion 1994).

However, unlike Cohen and Manion, the negative term ‘anti positivism’ is not used here, since this form of research stands as a form in its own right in its relationship to the kind of knowledge it creates and its judgements about what is true. Huber (1995 cited by Denzin and Lincoln 2000) calls for alternative methods of evaluating research within this tradition and includes verisimilitude, emotionality, personal responsibility, an ethic of caring, political praxis, using multivoiced texts and engaging in dialogues with subjects.

The qualitative researcher, according to Punch (1998) uses the terms “discover”, “seek to understand”, “explore a process” and “describe the experiences”.

This work is securely in this category of research. We seek to discover and illuminate the perceptions of the impact of the APU programme on teachers and their institutions and to understand some of the main factors that may lead to these outcomes. We seek to explore ‘variables’ in terms of the conditions that affect ‘impact’. The perceptions revealed by the participants are the focus of the research, in all their complexity, layering and contradictions. In exploring ‘impact’ we seek to explore the values and attitudes of teachers towards the CPD at APU.
Pre-structuring or Grounding the Data

For Punch, the design of research becomes a debate about using pre-specified research questions versus unfolding questions as the research develops; Tightly structured design versus loosely structured design; and, pre-structured data versus data not pre-structured;

The qualitative researcher, according to Punch prefers and works in a context where unfolding and loosely designed research is carried out, which deals with data which is revealed. He supports this by reference to Huberman with:

"The conventional image of field research is one that keeps pre-structured designs to a minimum. Many social anthropologists and social phenomenologists consider social processes to be too complex, too relative, too elusive, or too exotic to be approached with explicit conceptual frames or standard instruments. They prefer a more loosely structured, emergent, inductively 'grounded' approach to gathering data: the conceptual framework should emerge from the field in the course of the study; the important questions will become clear only gradually; meaningful settings and actors cannot be selected prior to fieldwork; instruments, if any, should be derived from the properties of the setting and its actors' views of them" (Punch 198:23 citing Miles and Huberman 1994: 16)

While the description of the approach taken by this research matches the revealing and unfolding nature of the quest, some of Punch’s ideas here are simplistic. Even if it were possible, the view that conceptual frames will not affect the structuring of knowledge created by research is simplistic since the very essence of a participant observer is participation, and we cannot avoid using prior knowledge. Hence this research began by exploring the conceptual frameworks that have already been constructed. Yet there has been a large degree of building of frameworks, made easier perhaps by the fact that few solid frameworks dealing with the impact and conditions in higher education programmes already exist. (See Chapter 2 page 20) Through progressive focusing and systematic analysis, the conceptual framework for types of
impact and conditions has been developed. Clearly though, in the case of conditions that lead to impact, there has been considerable influence of prior conceptual frameworks.

Values in this Form of Research

Despite his ecumenical view, Punch argues that values plays a significant part in research, and they need to be exposed and taken into account, saying,

"At this point, at a minimum, we should admit that values do play a significant part in inquiry, to do our best in each case to expose and explicate them... and finally, to take them into account to whatever extent we can. Such a course is infinitely to be preferred to continuing self-delusion that methodology can and does protect one from their unwelcome incursions (Punch citing Lincoln and Guba 1985:186)

This is surprising since the positivist tradition must hold onto the view that the universal law is value free

The Research as Case Study

The research has been described as a case study of one MA programme for teachers in one institution (APU). (See page 5). Stake argues that,

'The case is a ‘bounded system’. In the social sciences and human services, the case has working parts; it is purposive; it often has a self. It is an integrated system....the child, the hospital as case, the agency as case. Functional or dysfunctional, rational or irrational, the case is a system.' (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:436)

Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis, raise doubts about boundedness with,

‘...it is not possible to treat an innovative programme as a bounded system isolated from its host institution. In short the boundaries are no longer given: they have become problematic.’ (Adelman, G, Jenkins, D and Kemmis, In Bell, J, Bush, T, Fox, A, Goodey, Goulding, S 1984:95)
Goode and Hatt (1952) observe that it is not easy to say where the case ends yet argue that ‘boundedness and behaviour pattern are useful concepts (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:436). In this research which looks at ‘conditions’ that may lead to impact, it would seem likely that some of the conditions may well operate at a national or system level. Equally within the case of programmes at APU, there are discrete sub-cases of specific modules, delivered to specific cohorts, and occasionally based within specific schools. In these sub-cases, within the larger case of APU programmes there could well be major differences in impact and conditions.

This phenomenon is not unknown in the research literature. Stenhouse (in Burgess 1984) tackles the problem of ‘multi-site case study based upon condensed fieldwork’ (1984:214).

Ruddock explains that,

‘As I understand the term case study is an interpretative presentation and discussion of the case, resting upon the evidence gathered during fieldwork. It is constructed at the culmination of a period of fieldwork and is a public presentation of the case. It is a subjective statement, which the author is prepared to defend. I was not ready to produce case studies of each dissemination event; I was more concerned to produce such a study of the dissemination programme overall. What I needed was a theoretically parsimonious condensation (Stenhouse 1978) of the data I collected around each event- a case record (without some condensation, the accumulation of the data over time could be overwhelming and physically unmanageable). The case record then, was a cautiously edited selection of the full data available, the selection depending on the fieldworkers judgement as to what was likely to be of interest and value as evidence.’ (Ruddock 1984: 202)
Hence, for Ruddock and Stenhouse, the sub cases become ‘case records’, yet they are not full records of the data but edited selective accounts. Ruddock explains that,

‘Stenhouse was uneasy with case studies that offer no evidence other than that cited by the writer in support of his interpretation: as a reader he had no means of judging the reasonableness of the interpretation except in terms of his own experience.’ (Ruddock 1984: 207)

However, Reid (1978:29) argues against producing ‘copious recorded data’

‘Not only is the possibility of reinterpretation not really on, since the researcher always has more knowledge than can be committed to paper, but it begs the question as to why the author should have bothered to present an interpretation at all if it not superior to another, or if the whole job can be done by any reader from the limited data presented. In any case, research has never been only about the collection of data and it is always about interpretation, presentation and communication.’ (in Ruddock 1984: 208)

It might be argued that calling edited interpretations case records and collections of records ‘case studies’ is little more than semantics. Stake refers ‘cases within cases’ (Stake in Denzin 2000:447) and gives the example of selecting schools and individual homes to research computer use. He also says,

‘A researcher may examine a number of cases in order to investigate a phenomenon, population or general condition. I call this collective case study. It is instrumental study extended to several cases. Individual cases in the collection may or may not be known in advance to manifest some common characteristic. They may be similar or dissimilar, redundancy and variety are important. They are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorising, about a still larger collection of cases.’ (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:437)
Hence, in the collective case study of the APU programme, there are several selected case study accounts of individuals (using case here in the sense used in medicine or law), as well as several case studies of modules run with cohorts in specific locations (e.g. schools and LEAs) and under specific conditions. This was planned to reveal both differences and similarities in impact and conditions.

The qualities of case study research are outlined by Punch (1998) and Bassey (1999) and their main qualities are shown in table 12.

Table 12 Bassey's Conceptualisation of Case Study in Relation to this Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bassey's Conceptualisation</th>
<th>Response from this research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bounded by space and time</td>
<td>The research is bounded by APU programmes 1998-00. Differences between module cohorts have been retained as cases in space and time (see page 140)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting aspects of educational activity, institution or system</td>
<td>APU credit bearing programmes in the Education sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly in its natural context, with respect for persons.</td>
<td>The natural context of semi-structured interviews within school settings. Anonymity for participants ensured. Feedback to check trustworthiness. (See page 145)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informs judgements of policy makers</td>
<td>Informing direction of CPD in HE at APU and possibly beyond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explores significant features</td>
<td>These criteria met by the quality of the thesis. These are also the characteristics of naturalistic enquiry (see page 119)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creates plausible interpretations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worthwhile argument</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates to relevant research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveyed convincingly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides an audit trail to validate or challenge arguments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Huberman and Miles (1994) suggest that ‘cases are expected to represent some population of cases’ (cited by Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:447), a view supported by Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis (in Bell et al 1984:94). Stake says that in the selection of cases ‘the primary criterion should be opportunity to learn (Stake in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:447).

In this research, individual cases represent individuals on APU programmes. School/LEA programme cases represent school and LEA cases within the APU programme. The opportunity to learn from the individual cases and the cohort cases outlined is a significant one in attempting to understand the conditions under which impact is maximised. This may reflect other HEI programmes or at least be relateable to by others with greater knowledge of other HEI programmes.

**The advancement of knowledge.**

The research meets Bassey’s criteria of advancing knowledge through exploring existing knowledge in the literature review and to produce a different perspective through the collection of empirical data. Indeed, little has been written about the impact of CPD programmes in higher education since, as it was shown in part one, rather more concern has been spent on school based and practice based professional development in the recent past (see pages 40-49). Hence, a major goal of this research is to develop knowledge of the impact of CPD when it is associated with master’s criteria on MA programmes.

According to Punch (1998) the functions of all empirical research are description, explanation, theory verification, and theory generation (Punch 1998:28)

Punch describes research as “empirical”, defining this as looking at that which is “Observable”- collecting “real world evidence” in the form of “information” or “data”. He then outlines “the function of science is to develop explanations in the form of universal laws”(Punch 1998 p28).

In this, Punch becomes rather too positivist and follows a more scientific route (see page 111). This research will not establish ‘universal laws’, since we are dealing with
a hugely subjective and socially constructed set of perceptions of teachers on the impact and conditions that lead to that impact in this work. However, the research does seek to describe and explain, the theoretical concepts that exist in this area, and there are few fully worked theories which may be verified by this research. The research does seek to theorise and hence, partake in some ‘theory generation’. However, the research recognises the tentativeness of this pursuit within a changing socially constructed world.

Trustworthiness: The nature of truth, reality, validity, and reliability in this research.

It is necessary to justify the approach to methodology adopted in this work in terms of ability to portray reality as it is, to provide a valid and reliable account which might be deemed to be ‘trustworthy’. Any research needs to establish what might count as a reliable account, and following Hammersley (1994), a valid description of events and a valid explanation of them. This discussion raises some complex issues concerned with the nature of reality and truth, what is meant by ‘objectivity’, and what might establish ‘trustworthiness’.

It has already been shown, in the work of Lincoln and Guba (cited by Robson 1993) and Huber on page 113 and Bassey on page 118, that this form of naturalistic research uses different criteria for truthfulness in portraying reality. Reality is found in the stories told by the teachers who have given us accounts of the impact of their studies and the conditions that led to that impact. This underpins the decision to report in the form of individual case studies (see page 155 for example). Clearly, much of this is socially constructed ‘truth’. Yet we accept that if the actors say that is the way it is then it is. More particularly, we realise that these are the stories told by those who engage in programmes of higher education (as opposed to those who do not). The research is no less valid however, if we seek to illuminate those stories.

Much of the discussion concerning the choice of research methodology rests upon the debate about objectivity. For the researcher, particularly those working in a scientific tradition, the goal is to discover a set of universal laws or truths that will enable us to predict behaviour. As Eisner suggests,
"Objectivity is one of the most cherished ideals of the educational research community." (Eisner 1993 p49)

- In defining objectivity, Eisner considers a variety of different views including, ‘to diminish or eliminate bias’, to be ‘fair’ or open to all sides of the argument, to reference to ‘the method’ or procedure for acquiring information, and ‘to see things how they are’. He argues that,

  "We want to be objective in our views, objective in our methods, and above all have objective knowledge. To use the vernacular, we want to see and to tell it like it is." (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:49)

Eisner refers to Newell’s classification (Newell 1986 cited in Eisner in Hammersley 1994) for ‘ontological objectivity’ and ‘procedural objectivity’.

He categorises ontological objectivity as:

- seeing things the way they are
- perceiving them as they are
- understanding them as they are
- not using fantasy, ideology, or desire but what is really there.
- representation as is really there
- being a mirror to nature (following Rorty 1979 cited in Eisner in Hammersley 1994:50)
- The difference between knowledge and belief

While Eisner’s definitions are sound they raise important concerns about whether research can be as objective as some researchers believe, particularly in education. Indeed, Eisner raises these issues with,

"I hope to persuade readers that ontological objectivity cannot, in principle, provide what we hope for, and procedural objectivity offers less than we think." (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:50)

He then lists five objections:
1. **Practical problems: e.g. the tendency to study only that which can be measured.**

This objection relates well to this study. It is very difficult to research the impact of CPD in HE and there is considerable pressure to study what can be measured, or to look at the research as opting for what is easy practically to achieve and to retain ontological objectivity. I wonder if it couldn’t be possible to loosen the requirement for objectivity slightly to reveal some new truths or possibilities. I would see this as being through a naturalistic, interpretative approach rather than through a scientific one. However, this raises issues about how far and under what conditions can I bend the rules for objectivity.

2. **The circular argument**

Eisner argues that, here is no measure of how our views match with reality except through using research. The argument is circular with the researcher saying,

   E.g.
   
   What is it like?                           I will research it?
   Is it really like this?
   I don’t know,
   Is it really like this?

In this research we seek to answer the question what is the impact of CPD in HE and what conditions lead to that impact. Our only test for ontological validity is does it broadly fit with what we know already, to reverse Eisner’s circle. Our justification for this is surely only that the participants will see it as a report of what they understand to be true.

3. **The false assumption that it is true if we can control events.**

Eisner argues that,

   "Some argue that a true view of events allows us to predict or control events. When we are able to do this, our view of reality may be said to correspond with reality itself. But our ability to predict or control events
does not entitle us to conclude that the views we hold about the world correspond to the world as it really is.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:51)

and he quotes Popper’s (1959) view that:

“we can never verify a truth of a claim we can only refute it, and even refutation cannot be certain.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:52)

4. Perception and Perceptual Frameworks

Eisner refers to Kant, and concludes that all research is framed by perception and perceptual frameworks. He argues, as Kant has done that, “percepts without frameworks are empty, and frameworks without percepts are blind.” Hence, the constructions revealed by research necessarily influence us through socialisation, education and human discourse. As Eisner says, “An empty mind sees nothing” .” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:52).

5. Limitations inherent in representation

Eisner uses the argument that all representation involves the use of symbols, in for instance language, writing, and art. He argues that “The medium is part of the message” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:52)

This is a strong objection for the claims for ontological objectivity made by positivist and post positivist researchers. This research, following the naturalistic tradition, will use different rules for trustworthiness, reliability and objectivity. This includes that the research can be seen to be the accounts broadly told by the participants by the participants themselves. Details of how this is achieved appear on page 147.

Limitations for Procedural Objectivity

Eisner argues that even procedural objectivity leaves some doubts with:

Yet consensus achieved through procedural objectivity provides no purchase on reality. It merely demonstrates that people can agree: we hope for good reason, but
what constitutes good reasons as contrasted with poor ones is a matter of consensus. That might be all we can have, but we ought to recognise it for what it is.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:53)

Eisner explains, with great erudition:

“I believe that we are better served by recognising that whatever we think we know is a function of a transaction between the qualities of the world we cannot know in their pure, non-mediated form, and the frames of reference, personal skills, and individual histories we bring to them. These histories are, of course, a contribution of the culture in which we live, both social culture and or more narrowly defined personal culture. What we see and understand is not given by what Dewey (1938) called ‘objective conditions’; they are taken by us. What we are able to take depends upon both the features of the world-out-there, a world we cannot directly know, and what we bring to it. It is in the transaction between objective conditions and personal frames of reference that we make sense. The sense we make is what constitutes experience.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:53)

He argues that “…knowledge is always constructed relative to a framework, to a form of representation, to a cultural code, and to a personal biography.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:54)

And that,

“We can retain truth as a regulative ideal as long as what we regard it to be depends upon shared frameworks for perception and understanding, and that truth in the literal sense, is relevant only to literal statements.” (Eisner in Hammersley 1994:55)

The arguments put forward by Eisner are compelling. The adoption of a naturalistic and interpretative design attempts to portray the world through the descriptions of the actors, in this case the teachers who attend the CPD programmes, their colleagues and
their managers. (See page 238 for Headteachers' views) Indeed, the perceptions of the programme leaders are also important. It has already been discussed that the perceptions of those involved in CPD in Higher Education have not been revealed by research (see page 19-49)

**Trustworthiness in terms of Reliability and Validity**

In the pursuit of Bassey’s, ‘genuine enquiry’ one would expect that the research findings would be correct, sound, cogent, conclusive, reasoned, logical, relevant, pertinent, consistent and unimpeachable. Following the argument by Bassey (1999) and Robson (1997), previously outlined on pages 110-125, in this kind of naturalistic, interpretative and illuminative research the measures of reliability are different from those of a more positivistic and scientific tradition.

The term ‘reliable’ in traditional scientific research suggests that if the research were to be repeated the same results would occur and the results would be consistent. (After James and McCormick 1988:188). Although it may be possible to repeat this research within Anglia Polytechnic University, conditions may change and therefore results may well be different. Clearly, changing the case, and looking at other Universities may well result in different answers. This raises the issue of generalisation discussed below.

Rather, the key question is surely is the question of validity. Hammersley (1994) distinguishes between descriptive validity and explanatory validity. One test would be whether the research is seen to be an accurate portrayal by the actors taking part in the CPD programmes. Other judgements might be used concerning the face validity, that is does the story look as though it reports what it purports to be reporting (after McCormick and James). Hence the research has a form of validity testing through sharing findings with key informants and stakeholders (see page 141).

Huber (in Denzin and Lincoln 2000 reported on page 113) emphasises portraying the feelings, and emotions of key informants. He looks for multi-voiced dialogue in his search for verisimilitude, reality and truthfulness.
Other factors add to evidence of trustworthiness in the training and experience of the researchers and in their involvement in the programme and research. S. Brice Heath for example, claims that his extensive experience as a professor, and as a volunteer worker, colleague, aide and associate of classroom teachers adds to the trustworthiness of the account of ‘Questioning at Home and School’ (In Hammersley 1986:106). Oldroyd and Hall (1987) list qualities of evaluators (referred to on page 130) as well trained insiders.

Hence, working in the field of CPD, school improvement, and research and evaluation for over 20 years, being Head of Continuing Professional Development, and being the leader of both school improvement modules, becomes a quality of the research, rather than a negative factor, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000). Indeed, these factors ensure that the portrayal of values discussed on page 118, are more likely to be accurate, and meet the demands of evaluation outlined by Oldroyd and Hall (1987) (see page 128).

In conclusion, the test of the trustworthiness of this research should be measured by an analysis of:

- The systematic care of the research procedures;
- The results of feeding back the case study reports;
- The experience, skill and knowledge of the researcher;
- The relateability of the account to those working in the field.

Generalisation from this case study and the importance of context.

After having extolled the virtues and uniqueness of the case, one may question the extent to which we are likely to be able to generalise from a study of one higher education CPD programme. Our hope is not that we will able to provide predictive rules for we have rejected such a notion in choosing a naturalistic and interpretative paradigm. However, we want at least what Bassey has called ‘fuzzy generalisation’ to be made. That is that not only other practitioners who are aware of the field see some truth, they can also relate to the case study account since it is broadly recognisable. They may then be able to make up their own minds about a course of action. (Bassey in Bell et al 1987, Bassey 1998)
The purpose of this research is to describe the impact of credit bearing CPD in the case study HEI (APU) (see page 8). The research seeks to explain how that impact occurs, particularly through seeking to find the conditions that maximise impact. The role of this research is to illuminate and uncover the perceptions of the teachers and to give voice to what they say about the programmes they have attended. This is in contrast to, for example the TTA MORI study, which was largely influenced by managers (See page 21). Partly, the research here seeks to verify what little research and theory that already exists. However, since little is currently published perhaps only the first stages of theory generation may be attempted.

Punch (1988) describes a hierarchy that characterises different research, illustrating three levels; explanatory theory, empirical generalisations and discrete facts. This suggests that the research should seek to at least make some empirical generalisation from this research, if not attempt the start of some explanatory theorising. Bassey (1998) quotes Simons (1997) who asserts that,

'We need to embrace the paradoxes inherent in the people, events and sites we study and explore rather than try to resolve the tensions embedded in them. ... Paradox for me is the point of case study. Living with paradox is crucial to understanding. The tension between the study of the unique and the need to generalise is necessary to reveal both the unique and the universal and the unity of that understanding. To live with ambiguity, to challenge certainty, to creatively encounter, is to arrive, eventually, at ‘seeing’ anew. (pp237-238)'

3.3 Illuminative Evaluation as Research

The imperative for the research to have some practical application discussed in the Introduction and Context (page 8) and the choice of methodology discussed on page 106, means that this research has some of the characteristics of some forms of evaluation. Patton says, ‘I use the term evaluation quite broadly to include any effort to increase human effectiveness through systematic data based enquiry’ (Patton 1990:11) and later refers to Argyris et al 1985 work in determining that ‘Evaluation is applied research, or type of ‘action science’. According to Patton,
‘The practice of evaluation involves the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of programs, personnel and products for use by specific people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what those programs, personnel or products are doing and affecting.’ (Patton 1982:15)

However, Greene makes reference to the political nature and the emphasis on values in evaluative research.

‘Social programme evaluation is a field of applied social inquiry distinguished by its explicit value dimension of its knowledge claims, by the overt political character of its contexts, and by the inevitable pluralism and polyvocality of its actor.’ (in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:981).

Patton 1982 (cited by Robson 1993:175) sums up the key purpose of this research conducted by a practitioner striving to find out about and maximise the impact of credit bearing programmes at APU. Clearly a key characteristic is that this research serves this practical purpose. If we are able to identify the key conditions that lead to impact we could develop both policy and practice to maximise the impact of accredited programmes.

Alkin, (In Murphy and Torrance 1987) discusses ‘Evaluation as Research’ and outlines some key characteristics that underpin utility of evaluative research, including attention to appropriate goals, technical credibility, report comprehensibility, report timeliness, the scope of recommendations, and effective evaluator-subject relationships.

Robson (1993) argues for utility, feasibility, propriety and technical adequacy. The tensions in evaluation between technical quality and utility are clearly stated for this kind of research and the emphasis upon utility and action is arguably stronger for practical research such as this.
Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited by Greene in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:991) suggest that for naturalistic evaluation, the criteria of credibility, applicability, dependability, and confirmability, should replace the criteria for traditional evaluation of internal validity, external validity, reliability and neutrality.

Greene distinguishes four contemporary approaches to evaluation (Table 13). While having similarities with all four types, in rejecting postpositivism this research becomes more typical of what Greene calls ‘interpretivism and constructivism. Robson, following House (1978) lists eleven types of evaluation. In retaining the qualitative methodology and inductive analysis and naturalistic enquiry this research best fits the notion of ‘illuminative evaluation’, first proposed by Parlett and Hamilton in 1972 (reprinted in Murphy and Torrance 1987). The key aspects of this approach involve working in the complexity of the ‘learning milieu’, ‘observing, enquiring, and seeking to explain’, the impact of CPD in higher education and the conditions that lead to that impact. Connecting changes in the learning milieu with intellectual experiences of students is one of the chief concerns of all illuminative evaluation (Parlett and Hamilton 1972 reprinted in Murphy and Torrance 1987)

The advocacy for HEI programmes potentially inherent in the evaluative research design is not a problem for Greene. He adds that,

.... advocacy as the promotion of some interests over others is unavoidable in contemporary social program evaluations. There are just too many stakeholders with too many varied interests for any single evaluation to address all their concerns fairly and justly.

(Greene in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:991)

Hence, this naturalistic, evaluative, case study of one HEI programme attempts to articulate the perceptions of teachers, headteachers, LEA personnel and lecturers of the impact and conditions that lead to that impact. This contrasts with more positivist methodologies discussed in the review of current literature on impact (see page 19-37).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Epistemology</strong></th>
<th><strong>Primary Values Promoted</strong></th>
<th><strong>Key Audiences</strong></th>
<th><strong>Preferred Methods</strong></th>
<th><strong>Typical Evaluation Questions</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Postpositivism (Cook, 1985)</td>
<td>Efficiency, accountability, cost-effectiveness, policy enlightenment</td>
<td>High-level policy and decision makers, funders, the social science community</td>
<td>Quantitative: experiments and quasi-experiments, surveys, causal modeling, cost-benefit analysis</td>
<td>Are intended outcomes attained and attributable to the program? Is this program the most efficient alternative?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilitarian pragmatism (Patton, 1997)</td>
<td>Utility, practicality, managerial effectiveness</td>
<td>Midlevel program managers and on-site administrators</td>
<td>Eclectic, mixed: structured and unstructured surveys, interviews, observations reviews document analyses, panel reviews</td>
<td>Which program components work well and which need improvement? How effective is the program with respect to the organization's goals and mission? Who likes the program?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretivism, constructivism (Stake, 1995)</td>
<td>Pluralism, understanding, contextualism, personal experience</td>
<td>Program directors, staff, and beneficiaries</td>
<td>Qualitative: case studies, open-ended interviews and observations, document reviews, dialectics</td>
<td>How is the program experienced by various stakeholders? In what ways is the programme meaningful?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical social sciences (Fay, 1987)</td>
<td>Emancipation, empowerment, social change, egalitarianism, critical enlightenment</td>
<td>Program beneficiaries and their communities, activists</td>
<td>Participatory, action oriented: stakeholder participation in evaluation agenda setting, data collection, interpretation, and action</td>
<td>In what ways are the premises, goals, or activities of the program serving to maintain power and resource inequities in this context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Evaluation of Continuing Professional Development Provision (CPD).

The evaluation of in-service provision is a specialised field of evaluation. It is reputed to be less well developed, rather difficult and perhaps impossible as we have seen in the discussion earlier (pages 19-37). CPD for teachers should impact upon the learning of their pupils, yet the measurement of learning is still not a precise science and such impact may take some time to have a noticeable effect. Clearly, evaluation at the end of a CPD programme provides a limited view of 'impact' and virtually no measure of the duration of impact. There is also the problem of defining the outcomes and impact on teachers and their students (see page 19-37). Measuring 'impact' and the issue of establishing base lines to measure improvement against is also problematic (see page 35). In addition, there is the major problem of isolating key contributory factors.

Oldroyd and Hall (1987) make clear that,

‘Good quality evaluation reports depend on clear evaluation questions, authentic information rather than impression and clear conclusions based on explicit criteria and linked to specific recommendations’.

They go on to specify eight criteria for effective evaluation of INSET on the scale of an LEA, and they are: -

1. evaluations should ideally, include both internal and external elements;
2. internal evaluators need good training;
3. training should be provided in the management of evaluation;
4. an evaluation should have a clear initial brief;
5. evaluators should seek multiple sources of evidence and not rely on self-report alone;
6. INSET evaluation should focus on the link between INSET and teacher attitudes and behaviour;
7. from a school and college standpoint, INSET evaluation should assess the match between INSET provision and curriculum and staff development needs which they themselves have identified;
8. *the needs assessment process is so critical that it also should be reviewed during INSET evaluation.*

Fundamentally, their approach is at least instrumentalist and managerialist, focusing as it does on whether INSET meets clearly articulated needs, which as we have discussed are problematic in any case (see page 35). However, there is some sense in resting upon the training and experience of the evaluator. (See page 128)

Steadman, Eraut, Fielding and Horton (1992), as outlined on page 34 assessed inset effectiveness by noting:

- The closeness of fit between development aims (school group and individual) and identified inset needs;
- whether observed INSET activities related to outcomes;
- Whether events achieved their intended aims;
- The range of actual outcomes and how these related to subsequent events.

(Steadman, Eraut, Fielding and Horton 1992:vi)

There is much here that is reminiscent of Stake’s (Stake 1967) concern for a link between antecedents (and particularly aims), processes and outcomes (as discussed on page 140).

We have already shown, on page 41, in the literature review the approach adopted by Joyce and Showers (1988) who state that the outcomes expected of training are:

- The knowledge or awareness of educational theories and practices, new curriculums, or academic content.
- Changes in attitude E.g. towards self (role perception changes), children such as minorities, disabled, or the gifted, academic content i.e. attitudes towards science or E2L.
- The development of skill
- The transfer of training to normal classroom work.

(Joyce and Showers 1988)
Many of the definitions and learning outcomes of professional development, such as those of Kinder et al 1991 (page 39) require largely subjective measures of effectiveness in the form of, for instance, assessments of motivation or awareness. Joyce and Showers (1988) take a different view and seek to measure what they call ‘Effect Size’ on pupil learning. They argue that through assessing pupil learning and producing marks as a set of curves of distribution (or bell curves) it is possible to note both mean scores for groups and standard deviations from the mean. Thus, testing the same group after a period of staff development will show ‘the effect’ of training, as an improvement of mean scores and standard deviations. Alternatively, comparisons could be made with control groups.

The method has the quality of measuring student learning. However, Joyce and Showers have used the method extensively to measure training programmes of a set of specific teaching and learning models. One may assume that the assessment is directly related to the intended outcomes of the teaching models (although no details appear in either Joyce or Showers 1988 or Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins 1999). It is easy to demonstrate (and Joyce does) that if you want a class to memorise the curriculum content better, then you should teach the teacher to use mnemonics, and then measure how much more the children have memorised. It is not clear (and Joyce does not demonstrate) how more complex understanding of concepts or how more subjective assessment of, for instance ‘creativity’ is carried out. Furthermore, assessment of non-classroom based professional development, such as management training cannot be assessed so easily by this method. Joyce argues, however, that if school improvement is getting all pupils to pass the examination, then his model demonstrates clearly the effect size of the contribution of his training.

While accepting that this evaluative research should focus upon both hard and soft outcomes data, we are also interested in the factors that lead to such outcomes. For this type of descriptive data Stake (1967 cited by James and McCormack 1984) proposes looking at ‘antecedents’, ‘processes’ and ‘outcomes’. He suggests that some insights may be derived from looking at intentions and comparing them with observations of reality. Broadly this framework is used for the reporting of the case studies.
3.4 The Methods used for Data Collection and Analysis.

At the beginning of the research the number of students, still active on the MA programme at APU was less than 100 (excluding those in Suffolk APU centre), and in something of a decline, for a variety of reasons. During 1999-2000 numbers began to grow, as partially as a result of the research, a strategy of developing a partnership with LEAs and schools to deliver school focused CPD was developed. This increased the total numbers of students to over 120 during the course of the year. It also meant that a larger proportion of students new to MA work were recruited, providing an opportunity to look at impact at an early stage of their academic career and in school based programmes.

Data collection took place in three main phases reflecting both the development of the research and the development of the programme of CPD at APU. Phase one focused upon the impact on those on the more traditional university based modules. Phase two, on the growing number of teachers that undertook modules delivered in school based venues but with University teaching staff, and modules delivered in partnership with LEAs. These provide substantially different cases within the overall CPD provision of the University (as discussed on page 116) and the opportunity to study different patterns of ‘conditions’ that lead to impact.

Phase One Enquiry: Semi-Structured Interviews of University Based Students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tape No</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Interviewer</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kate Green</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT.Student</td>
<td>JA</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browns</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT.Student</td>
<td>MB</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shire</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>GC</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cammer</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>CD</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meek Park</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>ME</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denis</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>HF</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Claires</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
<td>JG</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howloe</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>FH</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>LI</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frombridge</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>AJ</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Junior</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>RK</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pine</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>LM</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>180</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

131
Phase one of the research consisted of interviewing nineteen students representative of those at 60 credits (8 students), 120 credits (9 students) and above 140 credits. These equate broadly with those students who have completed two modules, and those who are involved in their final dissertation, or who have completed it. Nine teachers were from primary schools and ten from secondary, including one from an independent school. The sample included three Headteachers, and nine middle manager or subject co-ordinators.

A semi-structured interview schedule was used (See table 15) This was focused upon the three main questions of the research, which were what was the impact of the programmes, what conditions led to that impact and what role does HE have in school improvement. In line with the naturalistic approach to evaluation described on page 126, these questions were structured under the format suggested by Stakes matrix (Stake 1965 in McCormick and James 1983).

This was based around the categories of descriptive data that Stake regards as 'antecedents', 'processes' and 'outcomes' of the programme. This structure was used for subsequent analysis and description of the data. Impact questions relate directly to Stakes ‘outcomes’. The conditions that lead to impact are covered both by questions about ‘processes’ and by Stake’s ‘antecedents’. The role of higher education question is informed by ‘antecedents’, in the sense of relationships, and perspectives on that role but is also a question derived from an analysis of all the questions.

The interviews were carried out by the researcher and another tutor on the programme, a collaborative design that offered one means of verification.

Table 14 Phase One Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roach</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT Student</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turn Manor</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolles</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyle</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyle</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 14 Phase One Interviews**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HN</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>EO KC</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KC</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>NP KC</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AQ IT</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>GR</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interview Schedule

Antecedents and background.
1. Why did you want to do the BA/MA programme?
2. Why did you want to do the module?
3. What factors encouraged you to undertake the BA/MA programme?
4. How important is it for you to gain the BA/MA award? (Please say why)
5. What other professional development activities have you undertaken in the last three years?
6. How has/will the school supported your learning on the programme?
7. How has/will the school supported putting your learning into practice?
8. Are there other sources of support?

Outcomes and Impact.
What has been the value of the module/programme to you and your school?
What has been the impact of the module(s) on
   Your practice as a teacher/manager in education?
   Your thinking about your practice?
   Your beliefs and values about your practice?
What changes have happened as a result of the module?
How far do you think that you have changed as a result of the module?
(Please give examples)
What is the value of undertaking the BA/MA programme?
How far did you expect these outcomes?
How have you and the school benefited from undertaking the BA/MA programme?
What knowledge have you acquired and how have you used it?
What evidence have you collected that shows that the programme has impacted upon pupil learning?

Processes of Professional Development.
What has contributed most to the impact of the module?
What learning activities have been most useful?
What has been the most useful contribution made by the tutors of the modules?
What processes of professional development used on the programme had most impact on you?
How was the BA/MA programme different to other professional development that you have undertaken?
In terms of your professional development, what was the contribution of:
   The reading?
   The taught/workshops/presentations?
   The assignment?
   The literature review?
   The research/enquiry?
   The tutorials?

Conditions that Support Accredited Programmes
What support from the school has been important?

The Role of Higher Education in the Professional Development of Teachers?
Please describe your image of a professionally developed teacher.
What is the ‘value added’ by the programme of professional development being delivered by a higher education institution?
What do accredited higher education programmes achieve that other professional development programmes do not?
What contribution does higher education play in the professional development of qualified teachers?
How far do teachers need generic learning outcomes of the BA/MA award?

Additional Information
Would you like to add any additional information?

Table 15 Interview Schedule
Phase Two Enquiry: Case Study Cohorts.

After phase one of the research it was apparent that a growing trend in delivery of programmes was through school based or LEA based modules. This is not surprising considering the considerable literature supporting focused work on school agenda, derived from the work of Fullan (1991), Hopkins (1987) and others (see page 39-43).

This model of delivery, according to the literature suggests greater impact is likely because the programmes meet school identified needs, are supported by senior management teams and work in the context of school. That is that conditions are better to maximise impact. (See page 38) A variation of this is the local delivery of University modules by an LEA to meet identified local school needs.

However, there are other associated conditions that change as a consequence of looking at school based delivery. Firstly, at the time of the research all the school-based delivery was to cohorts of staff who were in the main doing their first 30-credit module in higher education. Second, delivery was organised and offered to them by the very management processes that were thought to be advantageous. Put boldly, in contrast to the University based students, these teachers had not committed to a HE programme by finding one and attending. They had it suggested to them and the programme came to them. Their school’s management team were supportive in various ways and to varying degrees, illustrating the schools’ articulation of ‘need’ (Discussed on page 31-42 in relation to the work of Fullan 1981,1991, Brown and Earley (1991) and others.

Further interviews and documentary analysis took place in different locations of MA module delivery. Each location represents a different case, within the collective case study of programmes within APU.

The cases reported here were located at:
1. Belfry School
2. Randall School
3. Snowdon School
4. St Bede School (A Thorpe LEA programme for credit bearing award)
5. A Thorpe LEA Programme for credit bearing award.

I. The Belfry School Cohort Case Study.

The school requested a programme of school based modules focused upon the schools needs beginning with ‘Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning’.

Six participants were interviewed after the end of the module and after assignments were assessed. This was the complete cohort who finished the module by presenting the assignment. There were eight further participants that attended some of the workshops but did not wish to undertake the assignment for a variety of reasons including illness, lack of time, and having no interest in the academic award.

The teaching team included MW and IT (the researcher). However, interviews were carried out, by the Deputy Headteacher in the school, using the semi-structured interview schedule (See page 132) and after assignments were assessed. This design attempted to allow for some independent feedback to allow the research to be cross-checked with data derived from interviews carried out by the researcher.

The module consists of 36 hours in workshop/seminar discussion where ‘models’ of teaching and learning are demonstrated and discussed. The student is expected to undertake 189 hours of student led study towards constructing two assignment tasks:

- A portfolio of exemplar materials and reflections on their use in the classroom,
- A 4000 word assignment based upon an action enquiry into one of the proposed models.

The module is loosely based both on the school improvement work of Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997) and where possible the earlier work of Joyce and Showers (1988)(See page 21). This loose arrangement particularly concerns the classroom
coaching and feedback, which although essential to the Joyce model of training has been offered but declined by the majority of participants. As the model is an expensive in tutor and teacher time and not central to the academic success of the programme, it has not been able to be implemented in any formal sense. However, schools working on priorities are able to undertake general observation as part of their performance management programmes. Hence, some school provision in this area took place, albeit in an accidental rather than precisely planned way.

Again the module was useful to illustrate a case of meeting school needs, but in obviously a different context. In many ways, this case represents almost ideal conditions for effective inset in that the module was essentially planned by the school to meet school needs. However, the case also represents a school-based cohort and one that is at the start of its MA programme, undertaking their first module. (See Dreyfus page 50)

2 The Randall School Cohort Case Study

The school requested a programme of focused upon the schools needs beginning with ‘Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning’, the same module as Belfry school, which offered a context for some comparisons to be made. Participants were offered the opportunity to take part in the programme by the management team of the school who had identified some key aspiring middle managers.

Delivery was requested by the school on four Saturdays with some twilight sessions for discussion and tutorials. Staff were paid for Saturday attendance. The programme and materials were identical with deliveries of the module at Belfry and Snowdon Schools. The teaching team included MW, who carried out the interviews and IT (the researcher).

Eleven participants were interviewed after the end of the module and after assignments were assessed. They included seven who completed the assignment, and therefore the module and 5 who did not again for a variety of reasons. The senior manager responsible for the programme and Headteacher were also interviewed.
Again the module was useful to illustrate a case of meeting school needs, but in obviously a different context.

3. Snowdon School Cohort Case Study

The school requested the "Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning' module as the first of a school based MA programme.

Workshops were organised by the school during twilight sessions. The content, delivery and programme were exactly that delivered at Belfry and Randall Schools. The tutor was MW, who also carried out the interviews.

Five participants were interviewed using the same semi-structured interview schedule (see page 132). This group formed the whole group who had completed assignments. The Headteacher was also interviewed.

The case study of this cohort offered an opportunity to compare the impact of the same module and HE staff in the different conditions found at Snowdon School. Once again the notion of school-based and school focused delivery could be explored.

4. St Bede's/Thorpe LEA Programme Case Study.

This module was requested and created by the LEA and for the school and called ‘An Introduction to the National Standards for Subject Leadership’. The module took place at the school and was therefore an opportunity to explore a school based and focused programme specifically designed to meet National standards. By its nature the module was also an opportunity to look at the outcomes of a first module for each of the participants.

The module consists of 36 hours of workshop/seminar activity and 189 hours of student led study leading towards three assessment tasks:

A portfolio of practice and reflection,
A critical evaluation of the role of subject leader in terms of raising achievement,
A presentation of an outline of the former.

The module was well selected to involve critical reflection on theory and practice, broadly in line with the ideas outlined by Barnett and other in the review of literature.

All six teachers involved on the programme were interviewed, as well as the Deputy Headteacher, who helped lead the programme, and the Headteacher.

This case illustrates a case study where needs were identified by the school and LEA for a specific cohort of aspiring middle managers. Delivery was shared between the LEA and a Deputy Headteacher in the school. Hence again, many of the characteristics of effective in service provision were apparent including clear needs identification, and planning. (See page 38). The module cohort were again studying their first module on their MA Education pathway.

5. Thorpe LEA Programme Case Study.

The Thorpe programme involved two modules concerned with meeting the national standards for subject leaders and for Headship. These were taught by the same Thorpe LEA team as the programme at St Bede’s school but was open to participants from Thorpe schools to meet a locally determined need. Four interviews were conducted.

Again the case study was selected as illustrative of different conditions of delivery, being a mixed groups, yet all focused upon a need identified by the LEA and with schools, and individuals.

Phase Three Enquiry: The Headteacher Interviews

Phase three of the enquiry focused more upon the way in which Headteachers as key stakeholders saw the role of higher education programmes in school improvement initiatives. Clearly, it was also an opportunity to collect further data on the impact of
HE programmes and added to the aim to triangulate the data through cross referencing with the perspectives of heads.

Sixteen headteachers were interviewed, including those from each of the case study schools. These were selected with other local headteachers, including some that had earlier worked in partnership with the University, or who were fairly local to be able to. The semi-structured interviews lasted between 30 minutes and one hour (See Table 16). The interviews were conducted by MW, who as an ex-Headteacher and colleague was thought to be able to work with participants at their ease.

Table 16 Headteacher Interview Record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Interviewer</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whyle</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CQHS</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowdon</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mouse</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller</td>
<td>Headteacher</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>MW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
- Snowdon Secondary HT P MW Stakeholder
- Ering Secondary HT S MW Stakeholder
- Beatty Secondary HT A MW Stakeholder
- Gt William Secondary HT MW Stakeholder
- CPVQ Secondary HT F MW Stakeholder
- Hoew Primary HT M MW Stakeholder
- Boon Primary HT L MW Stakeholder
- Woodlane Secondary HT P MW Stakeholder
- Garnham T MW Stakeholder

3.5 Analysis through Progressive Focusing

Analysis of the data went through four distinct stages of progressive focusing based upon the data that was being collected.

Stage one: The Use of Stakes Matrix for Descriptive Data.

Stake’s matrix focuses upon ‘antecedents’, ‘processes’ and ‘outcomes’. This helped construct the categories of questioning in the interviews the collection of data from documentary sources and analysis of taped tutorials and sessions. Interview transcripts
were read and coded manually (using coloured marker pens) according to these broad categories. Sub categories were noted under these headings.

**Stage two: Expansion of the Matrix**

As interviews developed over several months more details appeared under each of the three broad areas. Categories were grouped. For example, the conditions emerged as those of the teacher, the tutor, the programme, the school and the education system as a whole. Similarly, the outcomes grid developed the categories of outcome of impact on practice, on individual personal development, intellectual outcomes (e.g. more knowledgeable, evaluative) and institutional outcomes.

The focusing grid was added to through reference to the literature (See Chapter 2). Thus, the analysis of the data combined both deductive and inductive framing (see page 114)

**Stage three: Testing the Validity of the Representation.**

The emerging accounts were developed and presented to stakeholders and some interviewees. In the Thorpe/St Bede’s account a full written paper was developed in collaboration with stakeholders and deliverers. This process verified that the account was a true reflection and added some minor additional perspectives. Further accounts were delivered both to other HEI providers at a UCET conference, through an IPDA conference and at BERA 2000.

**Stage four: Refining the Generalisations**

The fourth phase was to refine the quite large grid of antecedents, processes and outcomes into a simple model (Table 17) but one that is an advancement on the implied TTA model, reported on page 44. This was developed over time and through a number of redrafts is reported later (see page 282).
3.6 The Analysis of the Data

According to Weitzman,

‘Traditionally qualitative researchers have carried out the mechanics of analysis by hand: typing up field notes and interviews, photocopying them, ‘coding’ by marking them up with markers or pencils, cutting and pasting the marked segments onto file cards, sorting and shuffling cards, and typing up their analyses’ (Weitzman in Denzin and Lincoln 2000:804)

However, he goes on to argue that new technologies bring positive benefits for qualitative researchers and quotes Miles and Huberman’s (1994) fourteen uses of software from making notes to storage to linking, memoing, display, and report writing. While using new technology for much of the research, the analysis of the data using qualitative analysis software was rejected, after 5 days of trials of the Winmax pro software.

Weitzman argues that this software helps to code, to produce list of codes and frequency and produce a hierarchy of concepts.
The trial analysis after 5 days found many of the criticisms that Weitzman identifies and more. Codes had identified ‘by hand’ irrespective of method. There was no better discrimination of the complexity of concepts or relationship, indeed there was a loss of involvement in the data. It was found that the complexity of the portrayal, its richness and colour was being lost to gain a count of frequency that concepts were used.

It became clear that frequency is of dubious benefit in naturalistic and illuminative qualitative research. Using the software became almost a return to a positivist or a post positivist approach. Frequency is not a measure of the importance of the idea and does not make the idea more objective. Indeed, it could not be argued that, if nobody mentioned some key obvious process or condition (e.g. attending the course, listening, and talking) they could not exist.

The much-vaunted conceptual hierarchy derived using Winmax pro is established by the coder not the software, which is merely a form of notekeeping. Furthermore, the assumption that links between concepts are hierarchical and linear is again a positivist stance. If concepts relate to language and ideas they are just as likely to be overlapping, fuzzy or ‘venned’. Indeed any one concept may have many, if not infinite meanings and hence codes.

After trialling Winmax Pro for five days analysis, it was decided that much was being lost in the complexity of the portrayal for the small gain of a frequency graph of how many times an idea was repeated.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has described and justified the methods and methodology adapted in pursuit of the three major questions of this research. These were focused on discovering the impact of programmes in HE on teachers and their institutions and the conditions that maximise that impact. This leads to a consideration of the role of higher education in school improvement.
Chapter one of this work placed this research within the 30-year educational 'improvement' project. In chapter two, what is known about 'impact' and the 'conditions' was analysed before considering the role of HE in the school improvement project.

In this chapter the naturalistic and interpretative tradition has been selected and justified as a valid approach to answering these questions. The emphasis is on articulating the voice of participants and stakeholders in a range of different 'cases' drawn from the larger case of one institution. The trustworthiness of the account, it has been argued lies in the acceptability of the story to the participants and to others working in the field and no apology has been made for portraying their values. Although a study of one institution's programme, lessons drawn may be of general applicability.

The chapter has also shown a systematic process of data collection, verification and analysis drawn out through a four-phase process. To this is now added the fifth phase of creating the written account that follows.
Chapter Four
The Empirical Results of the Enquiry

This chapter is a description and analysis of the empirical investigation of this study. Chapter one introduces the focus on the impact of CPD in HE and its relationship to school improvement as defined by Hopkins et al 1994. (See page 3). The notion of building capacity and the 'conditions for improvement' derived from the theory of school improvement was introduced.

Chapter two looked at the literature research and theory surrounding these questions. Evidence of the 'impact' of CPD was reviewed, as were the conditions that lead to that impact. The chapter revealed a focus on school based and centred professional development following the work of Easen (1985), Oldroyd and Hall (1987, 1991) Hopkins (1987), Fullan (1981),(1991), and Bolam (cited in Hopkins 1987). The chapter analysed the complexity of measuring impact and placed the emphasis of this work on the perceptions of teachers in revealing impact and the conditions that led to it. In short the account argues for articulating the voice of teachers.

Both previous chapters have looked at issues surrounding the role of higher education in the professional development and in the school improvement agenda. Issues such as what we mean by 'professional', the nature of a research based profession and the relationship between knowledge, skills, competence, standards and the practice of teaching have been explored in relation to 'school improvement'.

Chapter three looked at researching these issues from a methodological point of view justifying the basis of the research in an interpretative, naturalistic and qualitative tradition (following Robson 1993). This section also justified the use of case study research to reveal the rich detail of the tapestry (following Denzin and Lincoln 2001) in this field (See page 132).

Hence, the results chapter of this research divided into sub-sections. In 4.1 is a preliminary enquiry or 'phase one', where the views of teachers on University based courses at APU are revealed. Following an overview of all the data, some of the individual richness is detailed in a number of case studies of individuals (4.2).
Second, 4.3 is a report on ‘phase two’ of the research where case study accounts of different delivery locations and modules are explored, in an attempt to reveal something about impact and conditions that lead to differences in that impact. The case studies are drawn from three school-based cohorts of teachers undertaking teaching and learning modules, and two forms of module delivery in partnership with an LEA. They enable the account to reveal something of the role of HE programmes as they explore different relationships between individuals, schools, LEAs and HE Institutions (See page 134).

The basis of the account in chapter 4 is largely the semi-structured interviews described on page 134, supplemented by an analysis of assignments, records of assignment feedback other contextual data on types of school and Ofsted reports.

These accounts are then followed by a more focused account of the views of Headteachers as key stakeholders and informants about both the impact of CPD in HE and the role of HE in a partnership with their schools. This forms phase three of the data collection. (See page 238)

4.1 The Phase One Enquiry: University Based Students on CPD Modules in Higher Education

This section is a report of the findings from the interviews with students concerning the impact of accredited programmes and the conditions under which that impact is maximised. The section is divided into an overview of all 19 interviews with supplementary other data used such as student records, assignment comments and so on. This is followed by detailed case studies of individuals selected as representative of the whole data set. This is designed to achieve the richness of description suggested by the interpretative account ‘focusing on the stories of the actors’ (see page 125)

A semi-structured interview schedule was used. (See page 133). The nineteen informants were selected as a stratified sample to represent candidates at different stages of their master’s programme and of types of school and position.
The interview data was analysed under the headings, suggested by Stake (1967), 'Antecedents' to impact, 'Processes' that led to impact and 'Outcomes' of the CPD programme in higher education. These headings correspond to the terminology 'conditions' and 'impact'.

4.1.2 Antecedents to Impact

The research identified a number of antecedents to impact that appeared to be important 'conditions' which led to 'impact'. These were categorised as a number of 'dimensions', including those associated with the individual, those about higher education and those concerned with the school. These too have been categorised under the headings:

- Teacher/Personal Dimension
- Tutor/facilitator Dimension
- Higher Education Dimension
- School Dimension.

This list appears to be slightly more exhaustive and complex than the conditions for effective inset articulated by Bolam. Fullan and Joyce and Showers (in Hopkins 1987) or indeed appear to be recognised by the TTA/Ofsted inspection of CPD in higher education (See page 45). So too is it a different interpretation, structurally at least from the list created from the work of Kinder et al (1991) reported on page 41.

The Teacher Personal Dimension

Impact will be maximised, if the teacher meets certain condition orientations, including:

- The desire to obtain the qualification,
- The value placed upon the notion of Higher Education,
- The Institution is perceived to be geographically convenient,
- The value placed upon research theory and literature,
- The need to resolve a practical problem,
- Conferment of credibility on the HE programme and tutors.
The most powerful precondition seems to be the motivation of the individual teacher to join an HE based programme. Frequently, this is because they value an academic award, often because of the perceived status in the profession, because of family encouragement or because of experiences at school. Occasionally, and sometimes additionally they have a professional problem, which they feel a specific module will help them resolve. Sometimes it is difficult to ascertain whether ‘the problem’ or ‘the course’ was identified first.

This seems to provide an added complexity to the rational-management accounts in the work of Brown and Earley (1990), Hopkins et al (1994) and the school effectiveness movement. Simple institutional planning based upon needs analysis, development and evaluation appears to be not the only model operating.

This data suggests that the work of Huberman on teachers lives and careers (see page 47) may well be under-emphasised in school improvement literature. Certainly, it does emphasise the importance of the individual, rather than, as accounts be writers such as Hopkins (1994) and Fullan (1991) who tend to emphasise collaborative institutional conditions for improvement.

The interviews revealed data on the motivations and perceived benefits that the APU programme for academic credit offered teachers who were participants. Six motivational factors were identified. These are:

- The status of the academic award and the knowledge,
- Reconnecting with higher education,
- Identification with ‘a model’ of a professional educator,
- Seeking solutions to problems about practice,
- Intellectual challenge, growth and empowerment.

The award (usually the MA in Education in our case) was an important qualification to attain and some saw it as a chance to improve their promotional chances. A high proportion of teachers came from families where achieving an MA was important or encouraged. Others came from families were academic awards were not a tradition. Others saw it as a symbol of ‘being a player ‘or ‘being serious’ about the study and
practice of Education. Some saw study, at post-graduate level, as typical of a model professional educator and clearly related to their image of their ideal professional self.

Seeking improvement was a key motivational force. Many saw the programmes as a source of solutions to professional problems about their practice. Some were responsible for areas for which they had not been trained, as in the case of a Deputy Headteacher, made responsible for the SEN work in the school. Others were ‘intrigued’ about their practice and their understanding of it. Sometimes this related to issues raised in their initial training, which they were still interested in and wished to reflect upon further.

Other teachers saw the questions as fundamental ones, one phrasing them as:

- What is the point of teaching?
- What is the point of schools?
- How should they be organised?
- Can we do things differently?


On page 84, the work of Eraut (1994), and his emphasis that reflection needed time, was reviewed. It was common among teachers to report that they ‘reflect on action’. The programmes in HE created the demand to reflect for a greater length of time, and some would argue ‘at greater depth’, through reading, data collection and analysis. A number valued the ‘intellectual rigor’ of the HE programmes, one saying:

‘If you are not careful, you finish up with the intellect of a ten year old because they are the only people you are dealing with’.

Having been successful on the programmes, some participants felt more knowledgeable and more empowered. In one case, a Headteacher reported that he felt more confident when engaging in discussions with LEA inspectors, another said that she felt more confident in explaining to parents why she did things the way she did. Another said,
'I like being able to back up why I do things. I think it has become quite important.'

Some of the individual conditions are related to the age and stage of career of the individual teacher. Both the work of Huberman (in Hargreaves and Fullan 1992) and Eraut (1994), discussed earlier, suggest such a pattern (see page 42 and 47). Clearly, an experienced teacher or one who has been thinking about leadership roles for some time, engages differently in topics such as leadership, compared to a relatively new teacher looking towards a future subject leadership role. There can be something of a naivety in some students if they are engaged in studies too early in their career pathway. Entry into teaching is now diverse with two, three and four year degree programmes, PGCE, licensed, graduate, and overseas trained teachers. Teachers are trained for a variety of age groups and these do not always match the age groups they end up teaching. There are a variety of specialist roles, for which further training is required such as SENCO.

Some of teachers are studied areas for which they never received any training. For some, this was because the areas did not exist when they were trained some years ago. For others, initial training would not have been able to deal with certain areas in such depth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 19 Teacher Personal Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career, Experience and Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Openness to change, alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone of proximal Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmth to Tutor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Lifelong Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure to be a Role Model (Live up to Ideal Self)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Spending Time to Reflect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage of academic career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Literature/Research Base for Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to “Rigour”/ Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone of Geographic Proximity (Convenience)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Time in School Day (Twilight)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambition/Aspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification with HE Ideology/ Habitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Higher Education Dimension

The APU programme demands a high investment of time for reading, reflection, analysis and the construction of assignments beyond the time commitment to sit in "taught sessions". The university calculates this as 225 hours for each thirty-credit module. The 'costs', often paid by the student themselves, are, therefore, both financial and in terms of family life. The investment is deemed by our participants to be reasonable, in exchange for the credit and the award. This illustrates the value which the teachers give to the award.

The higher education partner can reduce the costs and maximise the pay-off by:

- Being geographically near (or able to run school based programmes).
- Having a flexible programme of topical, relevant modules that are able to meet school needs.
- Focusing theory, research and literature input on its application to practice,
- Allowing choice in assignments so that specific practical problems can be focused upon,
- Encouraging access to the reading of research, literature and theory,
- Creating mixed age, sex and phase groups.
- Providing time for informal and formal professional discussion
- Being up to date with practice.

Yet, more fundamentally, there is something in the orientation of the HE provider to theory and practice which goes beyond application of theory to practical problems or the transmission of wisdom. It is the ability to facilitate the creation of knowledge about practice by practitioners in all their different contexts. In this pursuit, theory, literature and research, are useful tools, to be used with some caution, in the analysis of practice. They can also be analysed and critiqued as mechanisms to portray practice. This is achieved through practical action enquiry, through critical reflective journals and assignments that are rooted in practical problems.

There is a need to be updated in practice. This is not about doing the job of a teacher or manager in a school but of being able to keep up to date with current trends, such as
the workings of Ofsted inspections, value added measurement or initiatives to raise
the achievement of boys. Clearly, training for Ofsted Inspections, research activities,
attendance at Inset sessions by LEA providers helps this process of connecting with
practice. However, it is false to suggest, as might be concluded from the emphasis on
‘competences’ suggested by the debate on page 51, that the prime purpose of HE is to
deliver that form of knowledge and of practice rather than to facilitate the critical
evaluation of it.

The School Dimension

The active support and encouragement of the school, notably the Headteacher is the
key school based condition leading to impact. Hopkins et al (1994), Fullan (1991) and
Brown and Earley (1990) predict as much. Such support includes the financial support
for programmes. The skills of the school in articulating specific needs and ways of
translating learning of staff into action are also important.

School based programmes can reach staff who would not have made the move to
registering for a University based programme. However, this may mean more staff
with slightly less commitment to the study programme are recruited. (This may be
weighed against the pay-off of a greater number of people involved in a change
process). Other conditions include:

• Leadership that involves both active promotion and sponsorship, and skilful use of
  individual learning outcomes in school improvement efforts.
• Planning that enables key improvement issues to be addressed and focused on
teaching and management standards.
• Involvement and co-ordination of staff so that impact can be maximised.
• Staff development programmes that allow for individuals to receive professional
development activities and then to build upon their learning in practice and to
disseminate it to others,
• An enquiry and reflective culture.
4.1.3 Processes that Maximise the Impact of CPD in Higher Education

The research has also looked at some of the processes that lead to these measures of impact. There are obvious processes such as data collection and analysis through practical action research activities and the use of theory to help to analyse practical problems. Reading and writing are reported to be of high value because they enable the teacher to create time to think and make decisions. This seems to argue for more learning activities that lead to impact than Joyce and Showers (1988) account of coaching.

Many of the successes are based upon a programme that enables individual practical problems to be selected as a focus for enquiry and reflection for the academic assignment.

4.1.4 Outcomes of the CPD programme in Higher Education

The research findings suggest that the outcomes of the CPD could be categorised under four headings:

- Practical outcomes
- Intellectual outcomes
- Personal outcomes
- Institutional outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 20 Practical Outcomes of CPD at APU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The learning of pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Achievement of TTA Standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Changes in practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Development of professional and informed vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Deliberative choices about practice from a knowledge of alternatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Development of teacher pedagogy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Evaluative and critical skills and processes based upon knowledge of practice, research and theory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reflective practice based upon articulated values, beliefs and ethical reasoning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Abilities of change agents to argue and support a case for change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Clearly, each of the categories is related to each of the others. It is not claimed that all the outcomes are achieved by all students. Rather, what we are attempting to construct here is a typology of outcomes of CPD in higher education which might form the basis of evaluation rather than the simplistic dimension suggested by the TTA/Ofsted inspection process (See page 24)

The practical outcomes of the programmes related both to the quality of teaching and the quality of management in the schools. They related to immediate changes in practice and to longer-term changes such as the development of a professional and informed vision based upon both propositional knowledge and experiences derived from discussion with other teachers from different schools. Evaluative and critical skills had helped teachers to articulate a set of beliefs and values, which they then applied to their practice of teaching.

**Impact on Children’s Learning**

The Ofsted inspection process has, quite rightly, sought to identify the impact of CPD in Higher Education on the learning of children. A number of types of data show considerable impact on the learning process of children, including those through:

- Adoption of ideas discussed on the module e.g. A model of teaching.
- Informal discussions with staff in the school.
- Formal discussions with management groups.
- Writing of school policies and other documents.
- Direct use of University produced materials e.g. mentoring, observation and feedback materials.
- Impact on management activities such as monitoring teaching and learning.

Most significantly, for a ‘research based profession’, teachers are willing to admit that they do not normally read very much research on teaching and learning. In one case for example, two groups of teachers working in two different schools were unaware research such as the ‘Directed Activities Related to Texts’ research (Lunzer and Gardener 1974) before they had come across the HE programme.
Teachers also report, however, that they do not have time to read research. However, they admit to the value of ‘being forced to read’ because they were undertaking assignments for their HE programme. This suggests a major way in which University programmes structure reflection and provide access to ideas.

*Intellectual Outcomes*

However, there are also important intellectual outcomes that are developed through the programmes that were studied. These include both knowledge and skills of the teachers. Most notably, the ability to articulate personal views of teaching and to engage in critical and evaluative discussion about practice was seen as an outcome of the programme.

A third category was a series of more personal outcomes related to motivation, self-esteem, and a sense of achievement. As one Headteacher reported, (it)

"(it)... has really helped along those lines and it has meant that when advisory maths teachers or maths inspectors come down, I can engage in the level of conversation that I couldn't have done otherwise. I mean I have read the books they have read and probably some more, ....they know that I am a serious player in the game."

Not all comments were positive, however. One teacher reported that the programme he had followed had shown him what was possible in a school, and that this had made him more frustrated with his senior management, and he had resolved to seek promotion elsewhere.
The category of outcomes for the institution was to us a somewhat surprising one. Traditionally, our programme, until recently, has not had a well-developed partnership with institutions. Rather, many of our teachers join the programme independently, pay for it themselves and some do so without the knowledge of their schools (and some wish to maintain that secrecy). It was, therefore, rather surprising to hear vivid accounts of how ideas had been taken back to staff rooms and debated or how assignments had been discussed by senior management teams. One deputy headteacher of a school that had ‘failed its Ofsted inspection, reported that,

“Everything I have done has been relevant to a school in special measures”

Teachers felt more ‘professional’ about their work, they felt that they were role models for teachers continuing to learn about their practice.

Table 21 Personal Outcomes of CPD at APU

- Motivation and refreshment
- Promotion
- Self esteem
- Empowerment, Kudos, personal worth.
- Frustrated ambition
- Commitment to the profession of teaching, values and ideas.
- Personal authority.
- Sense of achievement
- Confidence
- Commitment
- Problem solving capacities
- Drive
- Creativity
- Flexibility
- Imagination

Table 22 Outcomes of CPD at APU for the Institution

- Professionalising
- Collaboration and shared practice
- Changes in practice
- Teacher as learner role models.
- Achievement of school targets and goals
- Sharing of recent research, literature and theory.
- Development of professional dialogue.
- Research and development projects
- Critical and evaluative enquiry.
Conclusion

The semi-structured interview data reveals that there are many outcomes of CPD at APU. Such a view is suggested by Kinder et al (1991) and Steadman (1992) and is in contrast with the 'limited impact' view of authors such as Fullan, and Bolam (cited by Hopkins 1987). The impact goes beyond simple effects on classrooms and learners but also include personal, intellectual and system wide aspects such as feeling 'professional'. Arguably, this complexity of impact has not been well articulated in the recent literature on school improvement with its focus on school focused and centred 'inset'. (following Oldroyd and Hall 1987, Easen 1985)

Smyth and Dow (2000) criticism of the school improvement literature, reported on page 2, and Frost et al (2001) reported on page 97, is that it is too managerialist, focusing upon institutional planning, needs identification, delivery and evaluation. This account gives much more emphasis to the individuals planning their own CPD agenda for their own purposes. This happens sometimes in spite of their institutional support rather than because of it. This suggests a role for HE in terms of its independence, and the support it gives to individuals.

The 'professionalising' aspect of CPD in higher education is predicted in the work of Stenhouse (1975), and Frost (2000) and there are trends in the call for an informed practice from Hargreaves (in Elliott 1993) and more recently Hopkins 2002.

There has been much support for the ability of University based programmes to bring professional together from different schools and from different phases of education to engage in informed debate. Such a process of learning appears to be valued by students and an additional process of learning than Joyce and Showers (1988) suggest. (see page 35)
4.2. Case Studies of Individual Teachers

This section describes in detail five selected case studies of individual participants. The purpose here is to reveal the richness of the ‘quilt’ derived from the qualitative data. (following the discussion derived from Denzin and Lincoln 2001 on page 110). The desire of the methodology chosen is to provide the real stories and accounts of the actors and participants. This has not been achieved by the general overview provided so far. In these detailed accounts, the words of the informants are used as much as possible. The cases are examined in detail using interview data supplemented, where possible, by assignments, feedback and other background data.

The informants have been selected as exemplifying those participants at the end of their MA programme, as opposed to a large number of the interviews, particularly with those on school based modules which were with students at the start of their MA programme. This strategy is an attempt to portray the perspective of impact from those who are most experienced in the programme. This methodological problem of recording impact of long term programmes was introduced on page 6.

4.2.2 A Case Study of JA

Antecedents to Impact.

JA is a Headteacher of a Junior School in a socially and economically deprived area of a large urban conurbation. He took up his post two and a half years ago, moving from a Deputy Headship in another school. This is his fourth school. He is mid-forty and lives in a middle class settlement on the rural fringe of the conurbation with his partner and two teenage children. At the time of the interview, JA was finishing the last stage of his MA, the dissertation.

JA expressed a commitment to ‘this lifelong learning business that Blair goes on about’ and had, throughout his career, undertaken CPD, occasionally, ‘for diploma’s and things’.
“I am a course person. I believe in trying to keep abreast, trying to maintain some sort of intellectual rigour, particularly in a primary school because if you are not careful you finish up with the intellect of a ten-year-old because they are the only people you are dealing with. So I have always been content to do that. Master’s was a level I thought I should be aiming for, it has been a kind of ambition to do that. APU, partly geographical. It was somewhere I could get to from school, I don’t live too far from the (campus) site which was useful, it was where I went to college so I have always had connections with the place so it was an obvious place to go to. The standard of the lectures in the main was first rate so it was a place I had no problem going back to having done one....”

JA illustrates firstly a commitment to learning, and an awareness of the model being promoted outside of education, by the government. JA wants a slice of this. He connects ‘learning’ with university and academic awards. The MA has value to him. He is returning to alma mater, and yet, this is conveniently on his way home. Partnership between the teacher and the university is based upon knowledge of what is on offer, a trust of about its quality, and a belief in the value of the award. Partnership between government and university is based upon supporting that set of values.

He is conscious of himself as a leader and role model.

“I think you’ve got to look people in the face and have a recent and relevant study, I think, particularly as Head of a School. You have got other people who are aspiring for career development and they’re going on courses I think you have got to match their commitment in a way, that would be another reason to do it.”

Yet there are specific learning needs also in JA’s mind

“Also, yes, sure factors evolve in school that you want to find out about so certainly teaching and learning issues is something that I was interested in. At that time I was a Deputy, I become involved with the
maths in the School so I was looking for improving children’s performance in mathematics. The course helped me to focus on that. When I moved and became Head, I actually moved half-way through, this has taken about four years I think from start to finish so the first two modules I was a Deputy at a previous school. So the first modules was to do with raising teaching and learning and certainly that was very useful in going back to school, raising issues, developing peoples awareness. And actually trying to put structure in to the process would improve teaching and learning in the school and move the school forward. That was an obvious motivator and it did. Later on when I moved I was interested in the role of the co-ordinator in School, so I looked for a module that actually related to that and there was one, certainly one that covers that aspect. The actual dissertation I wrote for that was to do with the role of the co-ordinator in the school so that was very useful and actually just impinged on the school and the structures that were then put in place in the school in a very direct way.”

However, the structure provided by the demands of the programme is seen as a valued part of meeting learning and school development needs:

“I mean going on these kind of courses, speaking personally I either do lots or nothing so if there is no driving force, if I haven’t got to get something in six weeks time I won’t do it. I won’t read the paper I won’t do anything. If I have got that kind of time pressure I do everything I have to do and probably more, which another reason why I keep going on courses because it does drive me on. So, it would have been on the list but I doubt it would have got done and certainly it is the killing two birds with one stone thing, the fact that you can go on a course, you are committed to doing the work for the course if that then impinges on school it is a kind of perfect scenario. You feel you are really getting your money’s worth out of it because you are getting your professional development you are getting your lectures and the interplay with the people on the course so they are making you think about other things. Also you are going back into school in order to fulfil the commitment to
the course you are doing things much more quickly than you would do otherwise. So certainly we developed a questionnaire about how they saw their role and so on we then talked about you know having put it together, analysed it, we did kind of change the way we looked at management structure in the school.”

To JA, the award of MA has currency in the field of education.

“There is a kind of credibility about having gone on a long course, obviously you are more aware of research. It develops your intellect too I mean you are more critical. I can now be on the receiving end of conversations with people and be more critical on it than I would otherwise, you develop a more.. way of thinking about things. It has certainly given me credence at a kind of authority level, I mean the last dissertation that I did I asked them if they would mind me doing it because it was political and they didn’t mind. I have given it in to the principal inspector. So I think I have got a bit more clued up about being seen as someone who is actively involved and interested in what they are doing. Doing the last module the research module, it is because of doing that I was invited onto the steering committee for the borough project and that wouldn’t have happened. Got a trip to Switzerland out of it as well.”

This currency is real in terms of sets of skills, which are valued such as critical awareness, perceptual such as “credibility”, and symbolic in terms of the award. Furthermore, JA believes that the field of education, as a whole, values the award, in this way, and he sees concrete examples of how, acquisition of this “capital” has led to further “perks”. Yet capital is also seen by JA as status and authority in the profession and there is the hint of the way JA (who is already a Headteacher) feels more secure, in some way empowered by his learning.

He says that the programme:

“… has really helped along those lines and it has meant that when advisory maths teachers or maths inspectors come down I can engage
in the level of conversation that I couldn't have done otherwise. I mean I have read the books they have read and probably some more, ....they know that I am a serious player in the game.”

The Process Leading to Impact

JA reveals some interesting insights into the processes that enable the partnership to flourish. He includes a warm personal relationship with tutors, and receiving feedback.

Extended work in depth is a feature of CPD for MA’s which JA values. HE both structures the activities, provides the motivation through the extrinsic award of credit, and introduces teachers to material, which they would not have time to access.

“I think research is crucial we need more of that in schools, access to researchers or personal research so that we know what works and we need more much more on the learning process so that people find out what works and why it works and what happens in peoples brains when they learn things so that we can deliver stuff efficiently. So I am a big fan of research and literature.”

He later goes on,

“Well, literature I think is important. Again it is the being on the courses that makes you read the books, that is when I go to the library and get a pile of books and they stay there for months but if you have got to write an essay or something then you read them. It is the having to do the assignment that makes you critical of the book, if you are just reading a book then you are just reading a book, but because of the demand of the level of the course to get MA you got to un-pick some of the things that they are saying. So it makes you look at the book at a different level, which I think, is valuable and it increases your intellect I think and your self esteem, being involved
in that kind of level of work gives you a kudos not just with other
people but also with yourself.”

The impact of the partnership, implicit in the CPD programme at APU needs time to
develop and is not simply associated with the quality of the planned programme,
although clearly that provides an important structuring backdrop.

“During the whole three years the chats you have with people in the
lectures over tea, I think is vital because that is when you tease out the
ideas that have been nagging away so discussion is very important.”

Outcomes of the Programme

JA attended the award ceremony for MA in Education, in full gown and cap, with his
family at the end of a successful three years of study. From what has already been
shown, he had studied and developed his teaching, particularly of mathematics, and
his approach to management as headteacher. He says that children’s learning has been
improved, because he understands how children make common mistakes in
mathematics.

The confirmation of the award is testimony to the skills and knowledge he has
developed academically and intellectually. He is knowledgeable of recent research,
theory and literature. He is able to analyse and discuss educational issues and apply
this to his practice. He is able to provide new insights on theory and literature.

The MA programme has, according to JA had an impact on the school, (indeed the
two schools he has worked in). He has been able to evaluate a mathematics project in
the school. He talks about how he came to restructure the responsibilities in the school
as a consequence of thinking stimulated by the course. He has raised issues with the
staff.

Much of this impact was intertwined with things that were going on in the school in
any case. This is partly due to the fact that both modules and assignments were chosen
by JA and that analysis of both practice and theory was central to the programme
delivery. He has been able to act as a role model and others have followed his lead in seeking CPD including some in HE, and some in the same university.

In terms of JA, as a person, he feels more authoritative and empowered to debate issues with others, including inspectors. He feels he has acquired a status and that this has been rewarded professionally.

There have been costs, JA mentions workload, stress, the difficulty of finding time, and the effect CPD has on family life.

"The stress sometimes when you are trying to do a full time job, which is more than full time and fit it in, you know the amount of work involved. You have got to be a pretty good manager of your time and you have got to have an understanding wife. My wife is a teacher so she understands. Sometimes there might be five minutes where we will speak to each other in a week. That could be a problem if you are with somebody who doesn't understand the pressure. That again could be part of funding, if they give people time off to do courses during the day."

4.2.3 A Case Study of MB.

Antecedents to Impact

MB teaches in a large comprehensive school where he is Head of Music. He explained his motivation to start an MA programme:

I: Why did you do these courses in the first place?
M: Do you really want to know, because when I was at School I did nothing, I was never in School my results are horrendous. I went to music college purely on the back of being able to play but I managed to get a music degree on the back of getting on very well with people and being able to play well and I thought, "hang on" if I went up the scale here, I could get some qualifications. I wasn't naughty at School I was just never there; I was dreadful at School. So my teaching now is based on I want you to be nothing like me really, so I know all of their tricks before they think of them.
I: So what was the point in getting an MA then?
M: Because I needed an MA to go further I wanted to go up to senior management.

His current dissertation research is about the whole school development planning process and the nature of staff collaboration in that process. This work is well supported by the Deputy Headteacher:

"It is interesting because the Deputy Head is the person who is going to call the shots through this, but she is very open to what people think and she will also act on what people think. However she openly admits that consensus is out of the window, she doesn’t agree with that, and I can agree with that knowing what I know about how Teachers think and operate sometimes, I would possibly be the same."

Through his work he struggles to make sense of issues concerning management decision making, collaboration, collegiality and involvement.

As he struggles to construct a research project, he reveals a chasm opening between him and the other staff in the school:

"I almost anticipate people, actually we are not a … School for putting people on inset and I wouldn’t be surprised if most people don’t have a clue as what I am talking about if I start referring to these terms. Whereas a little bit down the line I know they are going to be used on an inset, so therefore it might be more relevant for me to sort of go in a little bit more detail about those things then. I went on a course last night, also it was a Head of Department and all these Heads of Department in the borough for music, lots of them were very experienced Teachers and the leader said do you all know about the five stage cycle, they all looked and I said are you referring to where are you now?, the audit implementation, and she said yes. No one had a clue what they were talking about."

MB was the only member of staff undertaking an MA in Education. The school had been contacted by the University and a module focusing on a school need was offered, based upon action research, but no staff were interested in credit bearing courses that
had not already got an MA. However, all of his assignments, for each of the modules, had been looked at by senior members of staff. The latest work on target setting was being discussed by the SMT.

“...when it was put to the senior management well it is interesting because no one really came to me and I have read this blah blah blah but a friend of mine who is my line manager, he is a good friend, he is a senior manager he quoted it the other day. We were talking about something from school development and he looked at me with a smile and said I read somewhere that you shouldn’t set a target if it too easy because it then becomes a soft target it has got to be something that has a slight challenge. I looked at him and he has quoted what I had written in my report and I said how did you get on with it and he said it was worth reading. We all read it. Another that he said himself is stuff that is there it is done and it should be taken in to consideration. Not necessarily put in to statue but certainly considered. Which I thought was quite good because it came from him because he is an old School not in to all of the new founded methodologies and stuff, so er for it to come from him and say yes it is stuff that ought to be considered it is praise indeed I think. I am really pleased that the Deputy Head has taken this stuff and has used it. I told you about the one I did on the school development group which was about a year or so ago and I did a lot of research on it, it is quite a big project I used a lot of different tools and come up with this big long list of clear cut ways forward. He just took it and said thank you but never gave it back but within about four months all these different things that I had suggested had all come about.”

**The Process that Led to Impact**

Selecting modules and assignments ‘that had meaning’ for MB was an important part of the success of the modules. ‘Meaning’ was clearly connected to relevant issues to MB’s career and school. Talking about one assignment on student mentoring he explained:
“Well I was interested in the year eleven mentoring because I was quite into how the year eleven’s were getting on so that added interest for me. I actually went to the Head and said right you’re paying for half of this MA, what do you want me to do. So I am almost putting some ownership on to him now you tell me and I suppose in that way going back to ownership he is putting a little bit of his own worth in so he is more likely to pay attention to it.”

In the taped tutorial concerning his dissertation module, typically, he revealed ‘I am actually quite curious to know what people think of planning’. Much of the tutorial consisted of discussions to structure and focus his enquiry. Both the tutor and MA related experience to the theory and literature of planning. For example MA noted the following, in contrast to the model of planning school improvement through active involvement of all staff suggested by Fullan (1981,1991) and Hopkins et al (1994),

‘It is interesting what you say there, because research I have done in this School on other areas that was thrown up, some of the staff clearly felt that there are certain issues where they just don’t see the global picture, they are not party to that kind of information and therefore they shouldn’t really be expected to be in on the decision making policy. It might be staffing, it might be finance, or they might be a contributing factor and they readily say, don’t ask us we don’t see the whole global picture just make a decision, stand by it, be accountable for it and we will go with it.’

MB talked about his least favourite module being one which was based upon independent learning. However, he added that even this had impacted upon his work, saying

‘I am a bit of a people person so it was hard for me but I did research assessment where I never would have had too much interest in it. Being in a little music group you can see I am ..... and you live on your own you are like a little hermit out here and assessment gets a looked at by you and only you so it really was a good value lesson. So I have come up with a new system, so it has
actually got a bit more meaning as a result of that DIL, it didn’t
impact from anyone else because it was very much self-orientated.’

A common theme of the modules undertaken by MB was a practitioner enquiry
assignment. This involved both a review of the literature and best practice and some
empirical data collection focused upon practice. This notion was introduced by the
MA programme.

‘It wouldn’t have happened any way because I wouldn’t have had
any interest or any input in the mentoring. In actual fact it was
mentoring was not so much the college, but the fact that the college
said go and research something, and I researched it and they told me
how to research it, and we discussed it. So that is directly a result of
being on the course does that make sense?’

Outcomes of the Programme

MB had taken on responsibility for the mentoring of students in the school, at
a time when there was a system it was barely operating. MA described with
enthusiasm the impact of his work on the mentoring module with,

When I took it on it became; I formalised it a great deal I had books
produced and everything, which it wasn’t before. We set criteria and
basically it was a bit cheeky really but I had the kids almost monitoring
the staff, so the staff had to sign these books every time they had a
meeting with the kids and that put a bit more onus on the staff because
they suddenly realised they were being quantified. If they were not
giving meetings everyone could see it and then we would research, do a
questionnaire half way through the program to the year eleven’s, .... All
of a sudden it made staff aware, if you are going to do this dabbling we
are not going to name and shame you them but certainly if you are one
of those where a pupil has said ‘I have no meetings at all’ Anyway
basically I formalised it and the system was much better that year,—..’
This suggests that the role of the module was one, possibly important stimulus for a great deal of practical work in school. The quote shows the direct link between enquiry and action, predicted by Hopkins et al (1994).

However, MB also suggested that this activity did not easily embed into the school. The following year he was responsible for another year group and his support for the schools mentoring work with year eleven became more difficult. This underpins the importance of the rational management suggested by Brown and Earley (1990), Ofsted (1995) and others.

In contrast, many of the suggestions contained in his final assignment, MB said, were part of the schools practice. However, MB was also able to report how he had changed his teaching and assessment practice as a result of some of his work at APU. This suggest that even where rational management conditions do not apply, individuals armed with ideas and processes derived from work on HE programmes do have 'impact'.

By many accounts, the school MB works in has a mixed history. Hopkins would describe it as 'stuck' (or so MB reported), having lower levels of achievement than you would expect and seemingly little capacity for improvement, staff development, planning, involvement of staff and so on (See page 3). However, the case study illustrates the efforts of one middle manager, acting in relative isolation, save for the encouragement of the Deputy, and the commitment to half of the fee from the school budget. Yet, every assignment had influenced the school by being discussed by the Senior Management Team.

The case study also illustrates how difficult it is to create a partnership for school improvement between the school and the University. “Entry”, to use a consultancy term used by Cockman et al (1994) is very difficult. The school had tenuous links with the University through a new Deputy and the teacher. The LEA had little contact with the University and had suffered a number of re-organisations that had severed some of the tenuous links that had been made. The case emphasised that creating the conditions for partnership and impact is a major issue.
Yet ‘partnership’ seems beyond the simple statement made that ‘the school is the centre of improvement’, suggested by the work of Fullan (1981, 1991), Hopkins et al (1994) and others. Rather, individuals can be a focal point for improvement. So too partnerships between schools and HEIs can also be cauldrons for improvement.

4.2.4 A Case Study of NO.

Antecedents of Impact
NO was undertaking her final dissertation at the time of the interview but had suspended her studies for a year:

“Well I moved schools in that time and I had OFSTED coming in here... a new job as deputy, then I was acting Head and so it goes on. So, yes, I mean total that I got out of the courses, ... very much. I chose aspects of education management that I was interested in and that’s really what drove me. The courses were the sorts of issues that I knew professionally, I needed to develop.

NO had, in her MA, looked at issues of leadership and management within schools as an aspiring deputy and later as an aspiring head. However, she also said that,

“The reason I chose to do them at Anglia was location was geography really I did look at Open University as well but I liked the idea of meeting weekly and the discipline of that and meeting.”

The key antecedents or conditions were her desire to learn more about education and management, her career ambitions, and the structure provided by a programme in the local geographic area. NO also valued her initial degree course as ‘an excellent background’ and one that provided a secure basis for her MA studies.

The Processes that Led to Impact

NO selected modules and assignments that focused upon school based issues and her own career aspirations.
‘I could tailor things very much towards what I wanted to do um and that the research and the issues that I looked at were very much school based.’

Meeting and discussing with other teachers was important to her, not least because of the structure that that provides, and because she valued being a member of a cross phase group:

‘I liked the idea of meeting weekly and the discipline of that and meeting’

Later she commented upon the lack of opportunities for staff working in small schools to meet other professionals. NO also valued the presentations from expert practitioners brought in as lecturers.

In talking about the discussions NO also valued the application of theory to practice, emphasising the importance of different contexts, saying,

Certainly, yes, present the theory, look at the different approaches models whatever, but then to have a group of current teachers, from very different backgrounds, all discussing and reflecting on their experience is very valuable. I think in terms of applying that practically. I don’t want it all to be practical. I am there for the theory that’s what I want. But I want also to then kick the ideas around in the context of school, because again, what might not work for you in your school, somebody sitting next to you says ‘well that is exactly how it happens in my School’, and you could then move on to a school that is like that, and so on. So I do think that that sort of professional discussion is important.’

The Outcomes of the Programme.

NO valued the way that the programmes brought in professionals such as Headteachers and deputies to lead sessions and she enjoyed working with staff from other schools and working across phase. She considered the programme had made a valuable contribution to her development and a strong candidate for promotion to deputy headship and later headship.(she had been promoted to both). Although what she had done, ‘looks good on your cv’ she added,
'It has been useful in allowing me to reflect on practice and things that I have done in those projects, you know. I still sort of carry (them) with me as management issues because it was certainly at a higher level than anything that I would have been offered as in-service training.'

She went on to enlarge on this comparison with other opportunities with,

I have actually done the deputy head course with the LEA that is not at the same level in terms of looking at the theoretical issues, much more practically based. ........ then looking at NPQH which had been very high powered because actually I am doing the accelerated route. ........ again it stood me in good stead ...... issues of staff development and reflective practitioners and things like that, that I looked at then, are still current and the issues are still very valuable to look at.

Reflecting on her dissertation research she said how much it had influenced her practical work in school in establishing ICT to raise standards of literacy in boys.

NO is career minded but she sees the relevance of the programme that she has studied in terms of knowledge and skills as well as the award as being valuable to her. The programme has impacted on her approach to management.

The courses have, not only enabled her to apply theory to practice but have also developed her confidence in her craft of teaching and in managing the education process:

It allows you that bit of professional confidence to think well now I have thought through these issues, and I know that this is right and I have cross-referenced it against other people and thoughts, and other models of curriculum planning or whatever else it might be.
NO was on the accelerated route for NPQH and her modules had been relevant to that qualification but suggested that there should be a closer match so that NPQH could be achieved at the same time as the MA in Education.

4.2.5 A Case Study of LL

Antecedents to Impact

LL became involved in the MA programme after she was employed as supply teacher for a maternity cover. The Headteacher was the SENCO in the school and was advised to delegate the role’. In 1996, she was appointed SENCO but,

‘I made it clear at the time that I would need training’ because my previous experience was as a Geography and History Co-ordinator. I had no expertise in special needs as such.... but didn’t know much about the role of SENCO as such. I was just a classroom teacher. I then became aware of the University course, and it seemed a good course. I was only looking at doing one unit at the time.

The Process that Led to Impact.

The ability to choose relevant modules and assignment topics was a theme underpinning the impact of the MA programme on LL and her institution. Similarly, the theme of practitioner research supported with an analysis of literature and theory was another feature.

Perhaps one of the most interesting issues was raised when LL said,

“I did three modules that were action research based and that was a new thing for me, I had never come across action research before, and I liked the idea of looking at my practice and seeing something beginning to change and trying to change it.”

However, it should be remembered that LL also said,
'I didn’t actually set out to do an MA... It just got me thinking’

(Interview)

The Outcomes of the Programme

LL was keen to direct me towards the school Ofsted report of March 1996, excerpts of which are in table 23

According to LL, ‘Special Needs is a particular strength in the school’ (Interview data). LL associates the successful outcomes of the Ofsted report partially to the quality of her first module, The Role of the SENCO’.

In the autumn of 1996, she undertook an EBD and studied a child with Asburgers Syndrome. She indicated a number of outcomes of the programme drawing attention to the tutor’s comments on her assignment:

‘Throughout the course you have developed your ability to adopt a more analytic approach to your work. You acted upon advice given and improved your work accordingly. You conducted a successful project and provided a variety of evidence supporting your research. Your presentation was lucid and logically structured- you have obviously developed throughout the course.”

(Assignment Feedback)

This was followed in spring of 1996 where she undertook the module ‘SEN Teaching and Learning in Context’, after which her tutor remarked:

‘This is a very precise document with a range of supporting evidence and clear analysis of substantial amount of data for this project. The documentary style can make this sort of work appear to be less lucid than it actually is, and once I got used to it I found your evaluation very interesting and reflective. You have clearly enjoyed the project and gained a great deal from the work which is excellently presented and very easy to access’
Table 23 Excerpts of the 1996 Ofsted Report

107 The standards of achievement for pupils with special educational needs are sound and in line with their abilities. Behaviour is generally well managed. Pupils with English as a second language make good progress. The school's special needs policy is in line with the recommendations of the Code of Practice and supports recent developments in the school. A part-time teacher and three classroom assistants support classroom teachers. Pupils are withdrawn from class one day a week for increased individual attention.

108 There are no pupils in the school with a statement of special educational needs but a significant number of pupils receive additional help. Pupils with special needs in English and mathematics or with behavioural difficulties are identified early, often prior to transfer from the Infants School. All have full access to the National Curriculum. Individual education plans are detailed but they are not matched closely enough to specific needs on a short-term basis.

109 The role of special needs coordinator is effectively shared between the Headteacher and leaning support teacher. Governors understand their statutory responsibilities towards these pupils. They fund additional teaching and welfare time and monitor the provision on termly visits. Parents are involved at the earliest opportunity in the identification assessment and review process. Good working relationships exist with external support services such as educational psychology service.

In 1997 (autumn) she took the module, ‘The Management of SEN’. Her tutor remarked on her assignments,

‘This is an excellent thorough case study. A sound rationale is provided for adopting the different approaches to gathering data. The appendices are fascinating- each in its own right and together they form a clear, well-researched case study. The diary is of real interest.

The exploration of the management issues arising from the case study is well structured and displays a sound level of critical evaluation. There is evidence of reading and texts are used well to support issues raised. Several points would be worthy of further analysis and more in depth exploration. Overall a sound pass and a fascinating read!

In June 1998 she took the compulsory module ‘Research Methodology in Educational Organisations’.

LL ‘I actually used the module to interview children who were taking part in the 'Big School' project, to find out what they thought of it”

Interviewer ‘So even the research module became relevant to your SEN work.'
LL ‘Yes, everything I did was relevant’

The assignment feedback report says,

‘A clear framework is established and rationale for investigating the selected area has been identified. In places there could have been a greater focus on embedding the research issues in the investigation. However, this assignment shows knowledge and understanding of research methodology and the relative merits and disadvantages of using different methods. A sound analysis is supported with relevant reading and additional evidence illustrates the issues raised. An interesting assignment.

This module was followed in October 1999 by the ‘Dissertation’ module and her selected title of ‘A case study of the changing role and responsibility of learning support assistants within primary mainstream education’.

Extracts from the dissertation include: -

“This study is concerned with the effect that the implementation of the National Literacy Strategy in September 1998 has had on the working practice of Learning Support Assistants, who support pupils with Special Educational Needs....The analysis was based upon a comparison of the principle findings between my school and targeted schools within the wider community....the study substantiates that having training is a significant issue for them. The most significant difference has been a greater involvement in directed teaching activities within small groups situations” (Dissertation)

Later the dissertation also recorded a number of further objectives arising as a result of the work, including:-

As a result of this investigation, I will undertake the following course of action:
• To investigate the portfolio system developed by Essex that now includes all support staff, for the school’s senior management team to consider an appraisal programme for LSAs.

• To feedback, to the Headteacher, the class teachers’ anxieties regarding firstly, policy issues regarding the role of the LSAs during the literacy hour, particularly during the first half of the session. Second the issue of liaison times to discuss daily and weekly literacy planning with the LSAs.

• To pinpoint where further staff INSET training is required in relation to the class teachers’ anxieties expressed earlier, so that these issues can be addressed at a future staff meeting early in the autumn term 1999.

Table 24 Extract from Dissertation

“This study has enabled me to understand how the role and responsibility of the LSAs has changed with the development of the Literacy Hour. I have evaluated the working practice of the LSAs within my own school and have gained an insight into the practice of LSAs from within the wider community. I have identified the current and future training needs for the LSAs within my own school in terms of SEN, literacy and other staff development needs. I am aware of how the LSAs’ contribution to supporting SEN within the Literacy Hour has been perceived by other members of staff. I have reflected on the identified strengths and weaknesses regarding the management of learning support within the Literacy Hour and through feedback, this has assisted the school to review its policy, provision and practice for LSAs in a systematic and constructive way. This has led to the development of a new job description for the LSAs, that now reflects more accurately, their working practices in supporting the school, teachers and pupils.

I have developed a better understanding of the current and future training needs for the LSAs within the wider community. It is hoped that this study will encourage all the schools within the local community, in particular, those who declined to participate in the research, to review their policy and provision in a systematic way and raise awareness of how the role and responsibility of the LSAs is changing.”

In her dissertation conclusion LL wrote the comments displayed in Table 24. This representative of accounts by other teachers. She focuses on the relevance of their research-based dissertation to her practice both as a process of enquiry and in terms of the ideas being developed. Perhaps this supports the notion of enquiry, and reflection developed by the writing of Eraut (1994), Frost (2001) and Hopkins et al (1994). However, again it is individual rather than institutional based development. However,
it does seem to contribute to capacity building, in the sense of leaving a process of enquiry and research for colleagues in the school to build upon.

In October 1999 a second school Ofsted Report was produced and included the excerpts in Table 25. Again LL connected the positive Ofsted commentary with the modules that she had studied on her master’s programme. She made a strong and enthusiastic case for the further positive development of SEN, shown in the extract, in the school being because of the vehicle provided by the MA programme.

In February 2000, LL attended the graduation ceremony and was awarded the MA in Education. As final evidence for impact and subsequent to the interview, LL wrote to me, in May 2001 and said,

‘When you interviewed me in January as part of your research you borrowed a copy of my school’s OFSTED report and the markers comments from my IMICS courses. I need to use this documentation for my application for the Performance Threshold Initiative. Could you return this documentation to me as quickly as possible.’

The case of LL, (as with JA, MB and NO) seems to erase any doubt that programmes at APU might not impact on practice, as has been suggested by some of the literature. (See pages 21-38). Rather the accounts fall in line with Kinder et al (1991) who report many forms of impact. They emphasise the processes of research, as predicted by both the school improvers (Fullan 1981, 1991, Hopkins et al 1994) and the teacher as researcher movement (Frost 2001). Yet they also emphasise the individual as they engage with a flexible and practice focused HE programme, rather than organisational and management processes such as planning, need identification and delivery.
Table 25 Excerpts from the 1998 Ofsted Report

Teachers are helped in their work by the learning support assistants who target particular groups of pupils. The assistants have lesson plans and work well with teachers. They are also highly regarded by the pupils.....

.....Teachers use appropriate methods of working with pupils who have special educational needs, which ensures that these pupils make good progress....

The provision for pupils with special educational needs is very good and is a strength of the school. Careful planning and good support from teachers and learning support assistants ensures that these pupils receive appropriate individual learning programmes whilst still enjoying access to the full curriculum. Provision is good and in line with the code of practice. Pupils' progress is carefully monitored and relevant issues are promptly addressed.

...There is a strong commitment to those with special needs...

The support given to pupils with special educational needs, by teachers and learning support assistants, helps raise their self-esteem and their attainment...

The governing body fulfills its statuary obligations, including the provision made for pupils with special educational needs.

The qualifications and experience of the learning support assistants is excellent and they have a significant impact on the standards achieved by pupils. They provide outstanding support for teachers and are extremely effective in their interactions with pupils.

There is also well planned preparation for pupils transferring from secondary schools....The 'Big School Project' has been developed successfully with local secondary schools to help year 6 pupils gain confidence about their transfer.

4.2.6 A Case Study of GQ

Antecedents of Impact

WH School is a large comprehensive on the better off side of a white working class industrial overspill town. The area is known to have a problem of underachievement, although the school is one of the most popular and academically successful. The
partnership with the University has been established for a relatively long period of time, long enough for all the original participants to have left, possibly over the last eight years. The partnership involves ITT and at least two cohorts of staff have been invited to undertake a programme learning to Master’s awards. The second cohort came about in 1995 when the Headteacher invited the University to deliver a management module in the school at a series of twilight sessions. The school paid the fees. The university was happy to do this providing a cohort of ten teachers was enrolled.

When asked, why she started her MA studies, GQ immediately said, “I suppose because I enjoy it...I enjoy finding out, investigating that sort of thing.” However, she later adds

“I got into that because it was on offer by the school by the head and doing an MA was always one of those things that I probably would do at some time... Because it was one of those things I was always going to do. I suppose because I wasn’t clever enough when I was at school... I went to Secondary modern school, failed the eleven plus lucky enough that they started doing O’ level when I was at school. I was the first... It was a nice school actually I thoroughly enjoyed being there. I got my O’ levels I was never any good at spelling so I didn’t do the secretarial course but I did do the O’ level course. So I got three O’ levels when I was at school I then went to work but it was always that I would go on and take a teacher training course when I was older.

GQ attended the teacher training institution in the town where she lived, gained a B.Ed. degree and thirteen years later, at the age of 36 “returned” to start an MA. As she says,

“I think when you are in education you do that kind of thing.”

Entering the world of academe held its attraction, yet also its difficulties:
“I have an uncle who is a Professor, erm, cousins who are doctors and my father worked on the line at Fords. So there is a bit of a mixture my mother came from an intellectual family my father came from a working class family and there was always this thing about. I was encouraged when I was younger I was only encouraged to go so far you know, the thought my mother had of me going off to university when I was eighteen, she couldn’t cope with that.

Interestingly an uncle, now in his eighties had always encouraged her to study, even today. GQ didn’t want to do the management course that the school arranged originally and had not submitted the assignment after Christmas. She recalls,

“I don’t know I can’t remember that I went on until about just before Christmas and then my Aunt became very ill so that was a very good excuse for me to not do it. I think the whole thought of writing that first essay for that first module not having done anything like that for a good few years is a bit like a cliff to climb.”

Once again personal circumstance and life history plays a major art in determining impact. She then revealed much more of the reasons for her not completing the assignment, and some of her feelings about it, saying that she felt,

'oh I don’t think I can do this'. I think I still carry with me some of those thoughts of going to a Secondary Modern school. I think that does stay with you, although lots of my friends have gone on and done all sorts of different things from there, but it still carries you know …Yes you still think, ‘I am not quite as good as those that went to a grammar school or whatever’…Yes I think that is you know I sort of back out, I hated myself for doing it.

The drop out rate for the school-based module at Wh was disappointing. The school was offered a module if they could find a cohort of twelve teachers. They found ten; however, two dropped out almost immediately the course had begun. Three did not submit assignments. I asked how this had come about.
‘Probably because they shouldn’t have gone, in the first place but perhaps they were coerced into going. I don’t really know because I didn’t have to be you see I am quite willing.

I: You said, last week they were coerced. In what way were they, coerced by the school?

G: Well the head got us all together one afternoon in his office and went through the, what is the word.

I: What the programme was going to be and why they had to do it?

G: No how good it would be for them to do it, you know this was a good thing to do and he thoroughly approved of it and he thought that we were in a profession where we should go ahead with further degrees. That he was all for people getting higher qualifications and going on, not necessarily in his school but to go elsewhere. Though he didn’t like to lose people he did think that it was part of his job to encourage us to do that kind of thing.’

The case study is revealing for a number of points. Here was a school with a Headteacher who was promoting the idea of the MA. and believed that teachers would have all the support and encouragement to successfully complete their studies. However, despite what GQ calls coercion, several staff for various reasons fail to complete. In some ways this suggests that those that come to the University, have sometimes made a greater commitment to finishing their studies than those for whom things were made more convenient.

The case study also reveals the absence of much discussion about the programme having specific impact on school needs. In the main, the school approached it as a process that would have impact generally, but it was more about meeting the needs of individual staff and their careers. That is not to say that the work did not impact since policies and practices were reported to have
changed as a result of the courses. However, that was not seen as the prime purpose of the programme.

GQ reveals the long held desire and importance of master’s study based upon family influence and her experiences of her own education, which in this case she felt was not successful. She also reveals the emotional side to returning to study. This clearly relates to and develops Huberman’s interest in ‘life and career’ work, discussed on page 48, rather more than a focus on ‘management’ processes suggested by others.

4.3 Conclusion of Phase One of the Research: University Based Programmes.

The literature review in chapter two raised some doubts about the impact of CPD in higher education, or at least the notion that there was a lack of evidence of any impact. (See page 4-5, 19) Ferguson 1991, Ferguson and Ladd 1996, Woodhead 2000, and Hopkins 1987 have all been dubious of the effect of university based courses. This seems to be refuted by the testimony offered here by the participants in the programmes offered by the case study HE institution.

The data presented in phase one of the research suggests that there are a number of different ‘impacts’ of CPD in higher education. There is strong evidence to suggest that practice of the participants has been affected positively. This confirms the view of Steadman 1992 and Kinder et al (1991) who sought to create a taxonomy of different kinds of ‘impacts’.

There has also shown to be some impact on the motivation, confidence and self worth of teachers. This has been described as ‘being more professional’. Thus confirming the views of McCullogh (2000) discussed on page 74. Askew et al (1997), discussed on page 28, and Frost et al (2000), discussed on page 102.

At least some dissemination effect has been shown, although it would seem largely unplanned for in the case of some institutions. That is, that participants
have fed back to staff, constructed policies and schemes of work and undertaken other activities to put their new learning into the practice of their institutions. This seems to contradict some of the more pessimistic accounts of the likelihood of such programmes having much effect. (For example Fullan 1991, Bolam and Hopkins in Hopkins 1988)

Some of these 'personal qualities' have been positive but sometimes the result of attendance at CPD courses at APU causes dissatisfaction with the way thing are. Where energies are frustrated this has led to staff leaving their present institution, often to gain promotion. This has only been raised as an argument for school based staff development for institutional development (by Easen 1985, Hopkins 1987)

This range of outcomes was barely revealed in the literature and research in such detail (Chapter 2). Kinder, Harland and Wootten (1991) come close to exploring the value of a range of outcomes beyond the narrow measurement of pupil learning or 'standards' suggested in the work of Joyce and Showers (1988), Ofsted (1995) and the TTA (1998).

In terms of the conditions that lead to that impact, the interviews and case studies have revealed that much of the impact of the programmes resides in the motivation, interest and attitude of the individual towards the higher education institution and study. In a sense, the individual makes the impact. Motivated by a desire to gain the award, armed with a respect for the ideas or even a sense of returning to study after initial teacher training the individual teacher seems to want to make their studies relevant and applicable to their work.

Certainly, having the flexibility of module choice and assignments that can be adapted to the work place helps this process. Again the dynamism of the HE institution in being able to adapt to current issues in their delivery and programme are important.

Some of this supports the views put forward by Fullan (1981) and Hopkins (1986) on pages 39-41. These were not the one shot programmes Fullan was
talking about and we have shown that they were able to meet individual needs. However, there was not the direct connection in institutional planning of improvement and staff development that Fullan (1981, 1991) and Hopkins (1994) call for. This was much more individuals interpreting their own needs, albeit with such a planning mechanism in place providing the context. That is while schools can identify priorities individuals reinterpret them and can organise their own programmes.

The case studies have shown in contrast to Joyce and Showers call for ‘coaching’ (Joyce and Showers 1988), teacher can apply lessons learned to their work. In the view of teachers, CPD through reading, discussion, research and assignment writing can have ‘impact’.

The importance of geographic location was surprising in the case studies, as was the extent of the value that teachers put on discussions with other professionals. This emphasises the ideas put forward by Wenger (1998) and Day (1997) regarding communities of practice. Not least these processes appear to create the ‘time for reflection’ that Eraut calls for (see page 87).

Elements of the case study reveal a role of HE in terms of school improvement as the source of ideas, the award of both status and qualifications, the provision of a structure for reflection, and space for criticality. These give some detail to the arguments of Eraut (1994), Elliott (1993) and Barnett (1990, 1997, 2000)

As such, the interviews do seem to indicate that CPD in Higher Education helps to build the capacity for continuous improvement, not least through developing a knowledge and understanding of research and theory, building an informed teaching profession. This is supported by Hopkins’ (2001) call for improving the knowledge base of the profession and Hargreaves call for a research led profession (Hargreaves in Elliott 1993)

The interviews and case studies have also shown how the HEI has helped build processes and skills of enquiry and collaboration. As such the HEI role may be
seen as part of a system and school wide focus for school improvement (see page 3-4)

4.4 Enquiry Phase Two: Case Study of School and LEA Based Module delivery

Following phase one of the research the opportunity was taken to explore a number of case study examples of school and LEA based HE modules. At the time of the research this was a growing style of delivery. The modules concentrated upon improving teaching and learning and management focused upon raising attainment.

In many ways their organisation exemplified the conditions outlined by Joyce and Shower (1988), Joyce, Calhoun, and Hopkins (1997). The courses reflected workshop demonstration of practical examples and implementation into practice followed by group discussions, analysis and feedback.

Also following Easen (1985), Fullan (1981), and Brown and Earley (1990)(See page 101) in particular, these were modules specifically requested by schools or LEAs to meet an identified need. The focus was specifically on practice and the modules were delivered in locations convenient to the school. The emphasis of Hopkins (1987) on school based delivery influenced this work, however one school, being so close the university opted for a bespoke delivery on Saturdays but at the nearby University.

As another alternative two of the modules are delivered by LEA staff, in collaboration with the University, one in the school and one at an LEA centre.

The case studies, by varying some of the conditions towards the more favourable school centred and focused approach, also change other conditions. Most importantly these were programmes arranged for teachers broadly at their convenience as opposed to the ones sought by those attending the University venue. (See page 135)

The case studies answer the key questions of this research which are, ‘What is the impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their institutions?’ and ‘What conditions maximise that impact’ (See pp 1-18). In doing this, they will serve as useful cases in
answering the third question of this module, ‘What is the role of HE in school improvement?’

4.4.1 A Case Study of a CPD Programme in Higher Education delivered at Belfry School.

This case study covers a standard University module delivered during twilight sessions at a school. The module, ‘Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning’ was selected by the school, as one that would meet a school need. The initial approach was made by the Deputy Headteacher in the school, with the agreement of the Senior Team.

There were six participants who saw the module through to the end. Two undertook the module but not the credit bearing work and one dropped out through illness. Two more began the module but did not wish to continue. Six interviews were conducted by the Deputy Headteacher (LB) at the school using a standard semi-structured interview schedule. One of the six interviews was conducted with a participant who did not want to do the work for academic credit.

Although this might create its own bias in terms of authority and sponsorship it was felt that a school view would be more forthcoming if the participants themselves were invited to contribute data to the research. It was suggested that the research could form the basis of a case study for separate publication, focusing on developing partnerships between schools and HE institutions.

The interviews took place at the end of the module in the early summer of 2000 and after all participants had completed their assignments. At this stage, through progressive focusing, the areas of questioning had been refined in comparison to earlier research.

Antecedents to Impact

The school had identified the priority of improving teaching and learning as part of its development plan. They had seen an advertisement for school based modules from the
HE institution and a Deputy Headteacher arranged for initial discussions between the school and the University. A programme was planned and fees paid for by the school.

The Deputy Headteacher, (LB) continued to support the programme and the learning of the participants.

All the participants, who completed the assignment, wanted to undertake the MA Education programme, indeed there was the opportunity to undertake the module but not to do the assignment and two people opted for this. The reasons given were different for each participant and included being good for the CV, wanting to develop teaching skills and an opportunity to research and reflect. The focus on teaching and learning was seen to be appropriate to individuals and the school.

Some wanted the credit because of the amount of effort they put into the programme. Others said the credit was ‘nice’, one saying,

‘It would be nice for me to gain the MA award because obviously that would help me with career prospects but I’m not very good at doing courses just for the sake of getting the qualification. I enjoy doing courses and I always think I get a lot out of them and that to me is more important than getting the qualification.’

Two participants really wanted to gain the MA. Another stance was,

‘I’m interested in gaining the modules; I would like to get the MA, however, if that doesn’t happen then I won’t be too upset. I think it’s more the experience that I am going through is more important.’

The support of the school was an important contributory factor. The school had organised the module at the end of the school day and on site. ‘It was convenient and accessible’ one said. The school also paid the registration fees. Another said,

‘It’s nice doing it at school because it is laid on a plate for us, so I haven’t had the problem of having to go and organise it off my own
back. Or travel anyway, so being at school has been good. And because there is a set time when we have to do it, it means you can mentally allocate that time and you know that that’s fixed and that’s it really.’

The group all identified some key characteristics of the lead tutor in the programme indicating their trust and empathy.

One said,

‘I think that the visiting tutor M.W.(Tutor )was very inspiring and he was very practical about the ways of teaching and how to raise them in the classroom. Things that actually work and things that don’t.’

Another, that,

‘It was very good that we had somebody like M.W.(Tutor) come in, he was very good and in his delivery of the module and that had quite significant contribution to the success of that module.’

And a further,

‘As I was saying about M.W.(Tutor), because he teaches himself and he knows what schools are like you haven’t got somebody coming in that doesn’t know about schools and isn’t aware of some of the quite complex issues and situations that you have got in the classroom. Then, what he was saying was much more effective.’

It would seem that many of the conditions for improvement outlined on page 3, and conditions for effective staff development discussed between pages 38 and 48 were to be found in this case study. To a large extent this supports the work of Fullan (1981,1991), Hopkins et al (1994), Kinder et al (1991) who take what Frost (2000), Graham (1998) and others regard as rational management stance to improvement. However, in contrast to the literature discussed, this was a University programme. Also in contrast to the literature there is much more emphasis upon the relationship with and status of the tutor.
Impact of the Programme.

All six interviewed thought that the module had an impact on them and the school.

'It has been very valuable in terms of my own practice and I think that has improved quite dramatically since I carried out the first lot of action research. Because you don't know what you don't know until somebody comes along and says right there are these models of teaching, and once you get into teaching beyond your teaching practice you don't tend to go off and learn about these new models of teaching and know that there are other ways of doing it. You really just develop on from what you knew already. Certainly to the school, by having such a large group, such a diverse spread of people doing that then the different models and types of teaching are being sort of passed down through virtually all the departments. Because there are people from all of those areas and that is improving performance around the school.'

Participants identified widespread impact on their practice and their colleague's practice through discussion and dissemination activities conducted in the school. The use of different teaching styles was developed and evidence of wider dissemination was found in the construction of schemes of work. Teachers had developed exemplar materials and lesson plans using collaborative group work, mnemonics and inductive thinking. This very much supports the findings of the TTA survey of SEN training in HE (TTA 1997) discussed on page 24, which shows widespread 'impact.'

One said that,

'My practice, as I said previously, has improved dramatically. As a manager its in terms of confidence, you are more confident about your own teaching and it encourages you to maybe provide a different lay out to lessons plans that you pass down throughout your department. Encourage people to try different things out because you can see the benefit of trying new models of teaching with the students.'
The module had also encouraged participants to collect data on pupil learning in the classroom

‘I’ve carried out an action research on co-operative group learning. I’ve collected all the data, and presented that on how effective in the classroom.’

This increased confidence is but one change. Others felt refreshed and some felt that the module had reinforced their own beliefs and values.

‘I think it has been very good, it has made us think about, reflect on our current teaching practice and think about different ways of teaching and also think about how children learn, so it has been very good.’

Int: ‘How far do you think you have changed as a result of the module?’

Teacher: ‘Not relying on the same ways of teaching all the time, doing more group work, particularly the co-operative group learning. I’ve never come across that way of teaching before and I found it really good.’

Some denied that they had changed, one saying,

‘I don’t think it has on that. I’m 38 and I think at my time of life the values of what expect from students in terms of behaviour or achievement or things like that are fairly set.’

And later added

‘I’m not sure that I personally have changed much as a result of the course, it is just helping me to reflect on my practice and you do pick up new ideas from what you get that you wouldn’t have done in isolations.'
So it’s really just making use of things that I didn’t know about or perhaps haven’t of thought of in that way.’

The module created an opportunity for teachers to undertake thinking and reflection on teaching and learning:

‘To me personally, it has got me thinking, mine was to do with styles of learning, and it’s got me thinking about the different styles that students within my groups will be learn best. And has made me adapt to the work that I am doing to try and hit more learning styles. Particularly in Key Stage 4.’

Another said,

‘You do become more self-analytical about what you are doing. Certainly before the module I was into my third year of teaching, I’m not sure whether you can become a little stagnant but when you have got new things to think about and you are analysing yourself and your performance in the classroom it makes you think of different ways of doing it and think about how you are performing which sometimes you tend not to do. You take it for granted as your teaching and go along as you always have been doing.’

The teachers felt that their knowledge had developed in areas that were new to them, or they had been able to go deeper into areas, which they had been introduced to in their initial training. One said,

‘I’ve learnt about different ways of teaching, different teaching styles and I’ve used them in the classroom.’

Many of these responses are personal ones relating to the prior experiences of individuals rather than things that can be planned at an institutional level in a rational manner. Hence the work of Huberman (in Hargreaves 1992) and Ball and Goodman
(1985) on the importance of ‘Teachers Lives and Careers’ discussed on page 48 seems central to school improvement and CPD.

**Processes that Lead to Impact**

Reflection is both an outcome and a process. It would seem that the programme structured reflection opportunities. This is not to say that it created ‘time for reflection’ because many found the time demands of the programme difficult, as suggested by Eraut 1994 discussed on page 85). However, the programme created a pressure for ‘reflection on action’ (Eraut 1994 following Schon 1983, 1987). It also created opportunity for teachers to talk in a forum not unlike what Wenger would call a ‘community of practice. (Wenger 1998)

All agreed that the weekly workshop sessions were valuable. The inputs of the leader were important but many focused upon the group discussion. One saying that,

‘The joint discussions with fellow colleagues have been the most useful because it’s been a share of ideas, a share of worries, and a share of handicaps.’

One found the reading interesting but of no direct use. Another felt it updated her. But a third thought that the module ‘made him go and do some’. Some found the action research assignment a useful and practical exercise, one saying,

‘Again, quite another significant part of the professional development in the sense that you are doing the action research and your self evaluating and you are being sort of critical of yourself and critical of different models of teaching.’

**The Role of HE in School Improvement.**

This case study attempted to answer the third research question of this study about the role of higher education in the professional development of teachers and in school improvement (Following the discussion in chapters 1 and 2).
It was easy for participants to recognise that the HE programme was leading to a qualification that was important. One teacher commented that,

'There are two things. One is probably more structured and longer term, so there is more thought that has gone into the course perhaps about what the outcomes will be at the end of the day. And the second thing is obviously is a few letters on your CV.'

However, there were other differences.

'I suppose it's a more theoretical academic approach rather than some of the other courses, which are more hands on doing. I suppose it is reminding you of what the students are going through.'

In addition, teachers talked about the part played by HE in the professional development of teachers as,

'An important part, because even though you do need to be able to do hands on you also need to be aware of new ideas and theories. That's how I have been circulating, whether they would be good or bad because of everything you can gain something.'

Another said,

'A very significant part, .....certainly this is for me. You become a little despondent if you have been teaching for a few years, you think maybe that you know it all or you have tried it all before. Whereas, you don’t know what you don’t know until somebody comes along and suggests something to you.'

Being up to date and reviewing their knowledge was seen as important to professionally developed teachers. One teacher saw the role as,

'One that is always currently up to date with new ideas and consistently reflecting on the teaching and thinking.'

These teachers saw a role for HEIs not only as a mechanism of accreditation but also as an agency providing access to ideas and knowledge, as it develops.
Teachers also saw a connection between new ideas and inspiration (see comments above). Barnett (1990,1997,2000) and Eraut (1994) allude to this function, although neither connect it to the school improvement movement, where few writers appear to see an explicit role of HE (see page 40). Teachers also saw a connection between new ideas and inspiration (see comments above)

Conclusions Drawn from the Case Study at Belfry School

The school followed this module with one on mentoring for four staff and one on classroom behaviour attended by 15 staff. The module had considerable impact on a variety of different aspects of teaching. This included:

- The practice of teaching
- The thinking and reflection of teachers.
- It facilitated the collection of data about learning.
- It led to the discussion of teaching across departments.
- It developed teacher knowledge about teaching.
- It developed confidence and enthusiasm about teaching as a profession among the participants.

The school conditions that led to this impact included:

- Support from the school.
- Funding by the school.
- Working on the school priority.
- Working collaboratively as an internal school group.
- Active support by the Deputy Headteacher.

Some of these are suggested by, what Frost (2000) and Graham (1998) regard as the rational-management school improvement literature. (See section 2). Hopkins et al (1987, 1994, and 1997) suggests that emphasise should be on leadership, support, and planning based upon school priorities.

The HE conditions that led to this impact included the acceptability of the tutor to the group. There was a sense of mutual respect that proved to be a foundation for impact.
Some of this related to the practical suggestions introduced in the workshop sessions, and the obvious use of examples drawn from practical teaching situations. The processes of learning through workshop discussion were emphasised. However, practitioner research and development was also a valued learning process. These conditions are much more related to the work of Ball and Goodson 1985, Huberman (in Hargreaves and Fullan 1992) and particularly Wenger concepts of ‘community’ and ‘identity’.

In terms of the individual characteristics, teachers were clearly attracted by the MA award. This appears to be ‘conditioned motivation’, however. Having the MA credit is nice but only if the school organises the programme on site and pays. These participants, unlike those based in the University, did not want an MA enough to travel the 20 miles to the University to study for it. These are deep-seated values of individuals that interplay at the very least with forms of rational management and school improvement initiatives.

The case study reveals something of the role of HEIs. Here participants view the module as ‘being theoretical’, despite the practical outcomes which many reveal. Being up to date is seen as important, as is support for research. These things were seen as being important aspects that HE brings to schools. Again this in contrast to the view seemingly portrayed by Bolam, Fullan and Joyce and Showers (in Hopkins 1996), and Woodhead 1998, that there is no role. Rather, it supports Barnett’s work as a role that is key to coping with rapid change in the knowledge base of the profession.

4.4.2 A Case Study of the Impact of an HE Module at Randall School

This is a case study of a school-based module. The case was selected as a parallel example of the same module delivered at Belfry and at Snowdon Schools, by the same team of tutors. The selection was influenced by a perception that the module had not been received as well as at the other locations, and this might reveal some important causal factors. The module arose out of a discussion between the Headteacher and a member of the University staff (MW) who was an ex-Headteacher.
A group of 10-15 staff expressed an interest in the module, although eventually several dropped out.

*Antecedents to Impact.*

The Ofsted report of November 1999 recorded that:

“Randall High is a foundation, mixed, comprehensive school occupying a thirty acre site situated in the north-western outskirts of Chelmsford. There are 897 pupils aged 11 to 18 of which 477 are girls and 420 boys. The majority of pupils attending the school are from nearby estates comprising mainly local authority housing combined with some privately owned houses. Socio-economic characteristics and indicators from the last census in 1991 indicate that there are slightly more children in higher social class households than the national average and fewer children from overcrowded households. The percentage of pupils eligible for free school meals is 12.3% and 1.7% of pupils have statements of special needs, which is broadly in line with the national average. The percentage of pupils speaking English as an additional language (0.2%) is low. A recent detailed report from social services presents a significantly different view of two very deprived wards in the school’s locality. The report highlights the level of poor housing, low levels of employment and high levels of poor health. Well over 50% of pupils attending the school come from these two wards.

Ten percent of the school’s annual pupil intake is selected by aptitude and ability in performing arts and a growing number of pupils travel from some distances to avail themselves of this programme. The hours of tuition have been extended to accommodate this specialist arts curriculum. Pupils have had accelerated learning opportunities allowing them to take earlier than normal GCSE examinations in Performing Arts and also Mathematics.”

The report went on to say that the achievement of the school was broadly in line with National Averages.
Randall GCSE Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5 or more grades A* to C</th>
<th>5 or more grades A* to G</th>
<th>1 or more grades A* to G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>89.8</td>
<td>94.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Ofsted report listed a number of things the school did well saying it,

‘Provides good teaching which at best is compelling, purposeful with high expectations and characterised by good relationships with pupils.

Pupils’ progress is strongly supported by a good range and quality of the procedures for the assessment and recording of their attainment.

Overall standards of pupil behaviour are good in lessons and around school.

Pupils respond well to the positive climate for learning

Overall arrangements for pupils’ support, welfare and guidance are good and stem from the desire to encourage and motivate pupils to high levels of self-esteem and a positive commitment to work, to each other and to the school. There are very good links with the community’

The report concluded that the school had considerably more strengths than weaknesses. One of its strengths being the quality of teaching where,

‘At the time of the 1995 inspection the teaching was good or better in 60% of lessons and very good in nearly 20% of cases. Overall teaching was satisfactory or better in 90% of lessons.

In the present inspection 96% of teaching was judged satisfactory or better and of those lessons just over 26% were regarded as very good, just under 40% being good
and over 31% being satisfactory. In only a very small minority of lessons observed was teaching seen to be unsatisfactory.

Despite this favourable Ofsted report the school had prioritised (and indeed continues to prioritise and invest in) improving teaching and learning as a key part of its development strategy.

Support was forthcoming for the module both in terms of paying fees and in paying for attendance at Saturday workshops, spread through the term. Internally senior managers supported the programme and indeed some took part.

Five of the eight participants interviewed reported that they wanted to achieve the MA in Education. (KG, SD, HE, RK, JD) and these represented those that submitted assignments and passed. This left between 5 and 10 who were involved but for a variety of reasons did not complete the assignment.

One suggested that being in a ‘Randall group’ and being seen as such was a hindrance to the success of the programme and also complained about ‘not having an inspirational expert’ leading the sessions. One member of staff felt ‘patronised’. Those leading the sessions were the same staff who received plaudits at Snowdon and were using the same activities. This suggests that something did not gel between the group and the staff leading it, for some reason. Indeed, one leader, at one point was intending on cancelling the programme because of the diffidence of the group towards some of the activities.

Using the work of Hopkins et al (1994), Kinder et al (1991), Brown and Earley (1990) and others the school displayed many of the conditions for improvement in terms of leadership, support, planning, needs identification and so on. The programme was a tried and tested one focus on pedagogy and involving demonstration, classroom practice and review. (following Joyce and Showers 1988)
Processes that Led to Impact

The practical workshops were liked by some, as were the ‘trials in the classroom’. The discussion with colleagues was seen as a key process. Some liked the reading, others not. One valued having to write ‘an intelligent piece. Tutorials were seen as helpful and for those who completed it, the research assignment was seen as structuring and focusing thinking.

Some had no problems with the group dynamics saying,

‘The factors that encouraged me was one it was very sociable. I quite enjoyed it; I got to work with members of staff that I have never had anything to do with. At Randall it’s very departmental particular in PE because lots of staff find it very difficult to relate to what we are doing, what we are teaching and they sometimes find it quite daunting to get involved so I really enjoyed working with other members of staff, finding out their views, their experiences particularly at my school.’ (S:1)

Impact of the Programme.

Of the 8 participants who were interviewed there was an unusually favourable perception of the extent of the impact of the programme, given the perception the staff had of the module and the lack of assignment completion.

Participants were asked to collect evidence of the impact of the module on attainment. Several reported that there was some evidence that suggests higher attainment. K for instance reported that;

‘The main evidence I have got is the module that I have based my assignment on. I’ve actually looked at the assessment results and compared assessments on one group that had done the module through co-operative group learning and one group that had just done it by normal teacher activities and their assessment results were better. The only other evidence I would say I’ve got is talking quite informally to pupils when I’ve done a particular lesson using a model.
The main outcome of that has been that the kids have really enjoyed it and learnt a lot. (K: 3)’

However, some participants were wary of over claiming the effects of their work. Several participants reported benefits from using a wider repertoire of teaching strategies including, thinking skills, co-operative group learning, mnemonics and role-play. These changes had been embedded in schemes of work, reports to governors and in one case had influenced the Youth Service.

S commented that,

‘As far as …within normal PE I’d like to think that maybe they think a bit more in the lesson. It uses their brain a bit more rather than just their physical ability. It enables the weaker pupils to contribute because sometimes they feel in all or they just stand back and watch or hide away from those pupils that can do everything.’

P added to this with,

‘I would say the major change is creating that thinking process in me that there are other ways of delivering the material that I want to deliver. My particular area of Music is quite abstract in many respects and there is a certain amount of ability to decide what you want to deliver over a whole course including GCSE and A Level. It helps me to see what learning processes the students are going through. I did a PGC at the Ed. So I feel I just did this in small amounts in that particular year and your major concern in PGCE is teacher practice and how you get on with that. So I think some of the issues that have stirred up in my mind are good and it’s encouraging me to look at different ways, different schemes of work.’

Some were able to note changes in pupils in their enthusiasm for the activities and in their motivation. One participant said,

‘Actual hard evidence I’ve got bits and bobs but actual visual evidence I remember with the co-operative lesson we did you could actually see that
pupils wanted to do well in their small groups when they were put in their sub groups. You could actually see that they didn’t want to let anyone else down in the big groups that they actually listened they actually worked hard they wouldn’t let anyone talk in the groups. So just on that fact you could see that they felt they had ownership of the lesson in a way. And they felt if I let such and such down then I’m letting the whole group down. So you could see from that, that they took part in the lesson and they took hold of the lesson basically.’

Another described the impact of using role play in PE, with,

‘Again with my year 11 GCSE sports day, I remember I did some sort of role play where we had one gentlemen who came in who was David Beckham ...(we)set to them asking, ‘Can you still go down the shop and buy a loaf of bread?’ , ‘Can you do this?’, Can you do that? And the group got into it so much it was so hard to try get them away from this person is David Beckham. For about 3 days after that this lad was called David Beckham all the time and the other person was still called the Olympic runner. So it was good on that side that they actually got into it very well. So actual visual evidence and evidence that I have seen it has benefited and I have seen it and it has worked with the groups that I have chosen to use it has worked very well indeed.’

There were also effects noted in the form of thinking about learning, and in teacher confidence.

‘I think the value of the module has basically made me think, it has made me think about my lessons and more importantly the outcome of those lessons. When you first go into teaching you just want to get through a lesson with no problems but now that that foundation has been laid here I now need to start thinking about individuals or groups of pupils and what they need and what they want out of the lessons. And this has made me a bit more focused on how to approach that.’

Another added,
'I think it has benefited me within my lessons and I know in certain times I will try and bring back one of the techniques. If I feel confident in a lesson I will attempt this, if I feel that I would just to continue with what I am doing I know that I have a back-up idea in the back of my mind that I can use to attack the lesson with. So in that way it has sort of given me a few more strings to my bow, whereas, I think before although they were in the back of mind somewhere an idea to do this lesson an idea to do that and I don’t think that I was confident enough to have a go at it (H:9).'

**Conclusions Drawn from the Case Study at Randall School**

In many ways the case study illustrates some of the key characteristics of effective in-service, as outlined by Hopkins (1987), Kinder et al (1991) and the TTA (1999). Needs were identified by the school and were part of the school development. The Headteacher and Assistant Headteacher both supported and vigorously encouraged staff to participate in the programme. Financial support including payment of fees and payment for attendance at the training. The training took place during whole days, which were not school days. The training was developed and successfully implemented in other schools by the same team of tutors. The course included demonstration, discussion, application and review. Observation and feedback were encouraged.

While upholding much of the rational management for school improvement and professional development line there were also key personal factors relating to personal motivation to complete the work or even engage in the programme and with the tutors. The case suggested once again that, following the work of ball and Goodson 1985, Lacey 1985 and Nias (in Ball 1985) the lives and careers of individuals were a source of attitudes that conditioned responses to the programme.

Much of the outcome data above suggests a high degree of success for the module. This refutes the suggestion, put forward by Woodhead 1998, Bolam, Fullan and Joyce and Showers (in Hopkins 1987) the TTA (1995), and Ferguson (1991), outlined in section 2.1 that there is some doubt about the impact of programmes in HE.
However this data is skewed, by being largely composed of interviews with those who completed the assignment. It would also be true to say that this view developed late in the programme when the assignments were being written, as if real engagement with the course did not occur until this late stage.

There were other major factors that would seem to have moved this perception of the course. The use by the school of in depth consultancy led by Paul Ginnis, to work with key departments and to promote the implementation of the same ideas and in some cases the same materials obviously helped to shift perceptions as several staff commented.

The case study is one where despite support in the form of financial and management enthusiasm and encouragement, the impact on some was limited.

Teachers on all MA modules identify lack of time as a key difficulty and this would be true of this cohort. To allow for this, the hand in date for the assignments was extended first by some 6 weeks and then by a further 7 weeks. However, a proportionately larger number of participants, compared to for instance University based modules, cited time as a reason for not completing all the requirements of the course successfully.

A number of possible reasons may be identified for this, including,

- Teachers had less time/worked harder in this school.
- Teachers were less motivated to spend time on this work.
- Teachers felt that they had less time to devote to this work.

Certainly, although the need for the course was identified by the senior management, this did not translate into the actions of some individuals. There was some evidence collected in the analysis of culture that the school was one strongly led and you were told what to do. This combined with a perceived lack of appreciation of the hard work of the staff by the management. Some raised concerns about feeling that they were always held to account.
It is interesting to note that few of the staff had undertaken any in-service apart from ‘one off' National Curriculum days often with major national speakers such as Hannon, or LEA information giving days. One may suggest that staff were not used to having to implement training and collect data on its effectiveness.

Furthermore, there is some evidence that suggests that the strong cultural influence of having a group from the same school was, in fact, detrimental to success of the module. Tutors, after the first day training, perceived the group as young, rather arrogant and argumentative, yet fairly cohesive. None of the participants had experienced an MA programme before. Over 2/3rd of participants did not want to pursue an MA programme.

A surprising number of teachers regarded the work as ‘theoretical' until the autumn phase when assignments needed to be written and the external consultancy operated.

Hence, both individual characteristics and a group culture inter-played with rational management conditions to deliver ‘impact'. Not least, how the role of the HEI (both the institution and individual tutors) was perceived were key to how relationships were formed, and these impacted upon the progress of the module. This is much more complex than either the rational management view (e.g. Kinder et al, TTA (1998), or even a more cultural theory, such as Fullan (1981, 1991) suggests. It exposes relationships with individuals and HEI as a concept as a condition for impact in its own right.

4.4.3 A Case Study of a School Based Module at Snowdon School

This case study is drawn from another school local to the University, this time in a more leafy outlying settlement. The case was selected because the same ‘Raising Achievement through Improving Teaching and Learning’ module was selected as one that was relevant to the schools needs. The delivery team, the programme and the materials were then identical in most important aspects. A difference occurred because the tutor also worked part time as a teacher in the school and was therefore known by staff.
There were nine participants including the Deputy Headteacher who negotiated the programme of which six participants submitted were interviewed.

_Anteecedents to Impact_

The school actively supported the programme, which was selected by them to address a school-identified need. Support included payment of the fees for the module and the Deputy Headteacher enthused each participant. Senior staff encouraged and helped to disseminate materials to other staff and areas of the school. Participants also found that the staff were also supportive.

One participant already had a master’s qualification. Two were not interested in the MA qualification and although one had thought about it, none had previously enrolled on modules. Most were more interested in the idea than the qualification. One said that she liked the idea of ‘spending two hours a week thinking about teaching and having that time every week to do that was key to me’. Another said,

'I am very much interested in new ideas and also in latest developments or discoveries on how the brain works and how the students learn. That fascinates me as a genuine interest. So basically anything that is going (on), I hear about I would liked to be involved. That’s the main reason why I did get involved…’

Another member of staff reported that,

'Over the past several years I’ve been quoted as a successful teacher. I felt my methods were, however, rather stressful as far as I was concerned. I felt there were better ways of doing things. I then had a cataclysmic experience, which produced some very bad A Level results and I realised that whereas there are a lot of excuses, it was down to me.'

He went on to explain that he was interested in reflecting upon different approaches to teaching.
Most participants had done some other courses but they were mostly in-school or local and short programmes. One for example had been on a course 2 or 3 times in 5 years.

Much of the account given by respondents complies with the school improvement conditions outlined in section 2.1. However, there was much greater emphasis, not on the institution but on individual responses, motivations and histories, again emphasising Ball and Goodson (1985), Lacey (1985) and Huberman (in Hargreaves et al 1992)

**Processes that Led to Impact**

The Thursday twilight sessions were found to be a good source of support and a place where participants developed their ideas. As an in-house group meeting regularly they found that talking about teaching was both rewarding and informative.

The group also appreciated the hands on workshop activities that the course involved. Specifically feeding back information about what they had tried in classrooms was found to be helpful. One participant said that they could not remember a session where they had walked out without something practical to try.

Two of the six interviewed found the reading frustrating or not useful. One said that she was frustrated by not being able to get hold of articles on her topic (synectics). The other said that was academic and not practical and that he did not have the time to do the reading. However, he regarded the research assignment, which was to collect and analyse data on learning, as practical.

Tutorials attracted warm support. One participant reported that ‘the literature review I really found exciting and I really got lost for most of the term. I don’t know where it went but I thought it was great.’ Others liked the intellectual challenge of the programme.
Somewhat in contrast to Joyce and Showers (1988) and subsequent work with Hopkins and Calhoun (1997, 1999), intellectual challenge, reading and research seemed to provide beneficial learning for teachers (see page 27). However, relevance to practice was a key, although this seemed to be able to be created by the individuals.

The Impact of the Programme.

The module was considerably well received, even if only four of the nine participants handed in assignments on the due date. This was no measure of the impact of the module however. One reported that,

‘I tell you I’m so, if the one most important reason why I’m so pleased why I actually was part of this group was that it has encouraged and made me analysing my teaching to a much greater depth then I would ever of done otherwise. Apart from analysing it, I’ve been encouraged without pressure to try out ideas and on the whole they have been successful and giving me confidence to try out even more ideas, which again I would never of done if I wasn’t part of this group. So in that sense it’s been invaluable. It’s got me into reading about teaching techniques and anything that’s out there, which I may not have done otherwise. It’s got me to look at any other courses especially numeracy courses in a different light as well. In a positive light. So just being exposed to it, it’s been an up for me really.’

She later said,

‘I’ve changed, I’ve looked at all sort of warm-ups, I’ve looked at all sorts of review techniques, which may not be directly linked to the course or the assessment of the course but have been fantastic ideas, which we have shared. I have looked at different models of teaching, which I had never tried before like I hadn’t really thought about doing co-operative group learning because it used to have a stigma in the Maths area, which was connected to students working on their own. Student’s doing their own topics at their own pace. To me before I did this course that’s what I
thought group work was about. Therefore it’s been a revelation to me, it has I think it does, people can improve performance dramatically.’

Further testimony by her, of the impact of the module, which reflects the account from all six staff, is provided in Table 26.

Table 26 Excerpt from Interviews

I have a very large sixth form class, 20 pure student and 24 SAT students and basically as a desperate move to try anything to help myself reduce the stress levels and at the same time get my points across in a much more efficient manner. I decided to try group learning,

I decided to split them into groups so that the ability ranges were evenly spread throughout the groups. I got them to focus on one aspect of take for example sampling techniques and the other lesson I did with them was solving problems involving partial fractions and each group did one aspect of it and then jigsawed it back to the rest of the class all with in one lesson. So we might of covered 12-15 pages of an A-Level text, which otherwise I would of lectured through over 2 or 3 lessons.

I found I had the freedom to float around the room and listen in on the discussions and contribute where necessary, pick up a group that maybe wasn’t moving as fast as they should. I got them to master a part of a very difficult topic.

Each group mastered a very difficult topic and then fed it back to the rest of the class and then the whole class pieced all five bits together if you like in a fantastic way that I would have never of thought of otherwise if I hadn’t been on this course. It took a while to get the students to work in that manner but I am using and I will use that technique in the future. When I feel there is a lot of ground to cover when I feel that categorizing or coming up with ideas or sharing ideas between groups is appropriate and it’s just been a revaluation to me.

One person wanted the group to continue to meet saying,

‘I wish the team (if not the tutors) would still meet together at this crucial time because in future years I think things could improve. Maybe we could pull together a collection of our materials so that there’s not such a burden on finding and reading and also helping each other through this last 5-6 weeks to make sure that we are on track with the assignment.’

Dissemination of ideas from the module to colleagues and departments was a strong feature of the impact. One participant said,

‘A lot of the things that we have talked about or that we’ve tried as a modern languages teacher I’ve was already used to using in some form or another so I realise our practice as a modern language team is a bit of in
advance of other areas. It's the nature of the subject. As a manager in education work I've already talked about that a bit in that I've sold lots of ideas to my team, they are very interested and we are building up a resource bank.'

Others reported that there were a lot of new ideas in the programme saying,

‘One teacher reported that students themselves were becoming interested in the concept of learning, saying, that 'the general approach to learning has had an impact on students. I find that my classes are interested in the notion of learning, which is fascinating. I find they will talk to me about how they learnt.'

Once again impact was of a varied nature, supporting the work of Kinder et al (1991), Steadman et al (1992) and TTA (1997), although challenging suggestions of poor impact promoted by others (e.g Hopkins, citing Fullan, Bolam, and Joyce and Showers (1986), Woodhead 1998)

**The Role of Higher Education in School Improvement.**

The role of HE in validating learning and providing a qualification was expressed by one member of the group, who said,

‘At the end you get a certificate of attendance and some people don't even bother to pick them up do they? So there is no kind of, you've no way of gauging or what you’ve absorbed how valuable it was how well able you are to use it. I think there’s no need to do anything about it ever again really. But this one you have a deadline and you know at the end of that deadline you are going to be required to prove various things and to prove that your involvement and commitment to this module has been of a satisfactory level. Therefore, I think it focuses the mind.’

Others saw the connection between theory and practice in the partnership between school and HE institution. One illustrated the balance achieved between theory and practice in the programme with,
The other professional development I have undertaken has often led to a theoretical essay but the theoretical essay not always based upon practice and the difference in this one is the constant practice. Here it is go away and do it can come back and I found that has been very important. It’s made me read for purpose causes, which is very important but it’s made me read to expand upon some of those approaches that we were using to see how they are underpinned.

One teacher reported a clear role for HE in school improvement saying,

‘I haven’t got enough time to read broadly and research what is happening. I just do not have enough time my daily round takes that up. But what I do have enough time for is to engage in the kind of dialogue that this has been. I’ve got enough time to take the ideas and applications from those who themselves that is their focus and their daily round and I’ve got enough time to take that to build that into my week and I’ve got enough time to reflect upon that. So I think there is actually a very special role between higher education and the schools and I think it’s that kind of, it is a constant dialogue because there is a feeding back. We’ve got students you’ve got the ideas and as long as it is engage with in the way this is has been I think it’s mutually profitable.’

**Conclusions Drawn from the Case Study of the Programme at Snowdon School.**

The case study provides further evidence of impact on teachers and the conditions that lead to that impact. It also illustrates the third question of the role of HE in school improvement.

Impact has been described by all six participants. This involved the quality of learning and the way students thought about learning. Such ‘metacognition’ is a principle underpinning Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins’ work (1997). Yet impact was also on the enthusiasm of teachers and their ideas about teaching. Impact spread across the school and did not merely reside in the participants.
The case study is illustrative of the conditions that lead to impact according to the to Hopkins (1987), Joyce et al (1997) and Kinder (1993). Here a school-based need was identified and supported by the school leadership. There was some support for dissemination and implementation across the school.

Again illustrated is the complexity of needs identification (following Hopkins 1994). Although staff had agreed to focus on ‘teaching and learning’ they had not agreed that they needed an academic award for it. Clearly, the lack of desire to gain the award seems to have resulted in a large number of assignments not being submitted. This did not detract from the practical value seen in the activities. However, the University programme is subsidised by the TTA funding for the award. (as described in chapter 1). Hence negotiating and agreeing needs and delivery provision is indeed complex.

A key ingredient illustrated here was the high level of personal interest in the ideas on the module, rather than is sometimes implied, a bureaucratic, mechanistic system of school planning, suggested by Hopkins (1994) and the TTA (1998). This point is the basis of Smyth and Dow’s (1998) criticism of the school improvement literature. Not least the emphasis on personal issues and dilemmas that individuals need to resolve for themselves, such as why a group did not perform, or how they might overcome boredom with the way they teach.

The process of meeting and discussing teaching is also illustrated fully. This activity was structured as feedback on what people had tried in the classroom and as such was focused rather than accidental conversation.

Clearly, outside intervention (from the HE staff) had created the agenda and raised the issues. Somewhat surprisingly, because it is not emphasised by the literature, for some people reading and writing assignments was found to be a factor that allowed for reflection. (Following Eraut's remarks concerning ‘time’ limited reflection on page 85 (Eraut 1994))
Research by practitioners was also seen as useful and practical by the two that finished this aspect of the assignment. Tutors were left feeling that even more might have been achieved if more had completed this assignment.

The role of higher education as a provider of ideas and as a partner in school development is articulated by the teachers in the case study. This appears to be a key role as disseminator of practical working ideas, filling the gap created by practitioners lack of time to keep up to date with new ideas. A second element is the role in terms of teaching research skills. In this case opinions were mixed about the value of HE qualifications.

4.4.4 A Case Study of a Programme in Partnership with an LEA: St Bede's

The school is in predominantly white working class industrial area centred on port industry. The area can be considered to be socially and economically deprived. The intake to the school is skewed to the low end of the ability range. The LEA and school have worked closely to support school development and improvement.

**Antecedents to Impact**

The research revealed a number of conditions that are precursors to successful impact of professional development. These conditions were found in:

- The individual teachers;
- The school as an institution,
- The morphology and development of the partnership between the school, the LEA, and the HE institution;
- The educational and training system.

There was some commitment to developing skills of subject leadership on the part of the individual teachers. This commitment was fostered and developed by the senior managers in the school. What “subject leadership” involved and what training might involve was not always clearly understood by the staff. Therefore, some of the participants were deeply surprised by the complexity of the task of subject leader and the depth of the training activities.
Some of the teachers were not that committed to the MA award, however. For several, undertaking an MA was too early in their career. They felt they had only just begun to realise that their focus was on the practice of teaching and learning and working in classrooms with children. Pressure of time was the greatest fear.

As one said,

C: ‘Yes I mean to go on to do an MA, I would really not want to do it because it is going to take a lot of effort. So right now obviously it is not the right thing for me to be doing because as you say I am not that enthusiastic. I am half hearted about it, so I wouldn’t even consider doing an MA yet.’

And later said,

‘I have not been desperate to do any course and I am not desperate to do this sort of thing, take it as it comes.’

Pressure of work was expressed as the most important reason for the reticence of one of the participants. As one said, she was,

‘...absolutely snowed under with my regular job and the thought of doing extra work does not appeal.’

Participants were not great course attenders. One said that

“I have been at the school for four and a half years and I haven’t had any inset apart from the inset days.”

This was explained by the perception that there was a school concern that limited resources should be focused on teachers being in the classroom teaching. Courses, sometimes seen as personal career development, it was felt, needed to be undertaken in your own time and at your own expense.
Yet offered this course, participants felt they could not refuse. As one said,

‘Yes, I think the MA tag that was put on this was significant to me and also obviously when someone offers you something to turn it down would be considered a very strong statement of negativity on my part.’

Getting an MA was clearly linked to opportunities for promotion in both participants who wanted to get the MA and those that didn’t.

The idea of subject leadership as a management of people role was not well developed in the minds of some of the participants, even in the assignments. Many focused more on what they did in their classroom, rather than how to get other people to work. Others wanted to look at some things in more depth,

One said,

‘...there should be some focus on teaching and learning but there wasn’t anything about teaching and learning. There wasn’t anything about contact with external agencies and parents. I would have liked to have looked into how heads of department could do that successfully. There was nothing really on that you could get your teeth into on that.’

One participant outlined his perceived need to retain a ‘broad’ perspective and to continue to update. The conversation went:

S: ‘Yes and then of course what happens is that as you get into the profession and then you start teaching your broader perspective that you get at college is lost.’

I: ‘So it is not just updating it is broadening.’

M: ‘It does broaden and it very much updates and also it does give you that slightly broader perspective. There are serious gaps in my knowledge
that if not completely filled in by the course were highlighted by the course.’

I: ‘Can you give us an example?’

M: ‘Well, there was a lot of things that er changes in the syllabus, the role of QCA. What was going on at the time topical points I wasn’t aware of and should have been, certainly if I was to go for a head of department interview. Things that I should know about now at least I know that even if I don’t know about them now I should know about them. In fact that is wrong I should know about them anyway regardless.’

I: ‘Why didn’t you, why did you need a module?’

M: ‘As I have said there is and I make no apologies for it because I feel that you don’t get the time and I know we all say it and teachers say it when people who are not full time teachers.’

One of the initial stimuli to the idea of the course was an enquiry from a member of staff about a promotional point. The school had none available but wished to offer some staff development for aspiring middle managers, in preparation for future roles within the school or elsewhere.

A deputy head was enthusiastic about the programme and ensured that it was successfully established. The school paid the fees for the teachers.

There were mixed feelings about the school based nature of the programme. The senior management felt that staff would not go to venues much further afield, such as the University, which was a thirty-minute drive away. Some staff relied on public transport, which was not always direct. However, it was clear that there was a danger of the module being too inward looking and that teachers would lose the opportunity to meet professionals from other schools, and to network.
Credit and ultimately academic awards were seen as important by the senior management and governors of the school. As the Deputy Headteacher said,

'People don’t like to do something for nothing, they like rewards. But as the course developed people got reward from the course itself.'

For the school, HE and LEA involvement was important in terms of the programmes status:

'Having the LEA and HE involved gives the course greater credibility.'

However, it was also important in terms of determining quality and performance levels.

The programme was delivered in the spring term because it was felt that this was the most suitable time for staff, however, some participants thought that this was a busy time.

The starting time straight after school was felt to be most convenient and yet left one teacher feeling that it was more part of the working day. The time demands of the course were felt by many, one saying,

L: I don't leave school until five-fifty thirty and every week if I am lucky I get four periods non-contact.

This perception is interesting because it seems in contrast to many of the University based programmes which start at 5.30 and go on to 8.30 p.m.

One further complaint about time, which may be connected was the teachers did not have access to computers, except at school, and the school was locked at 5.30. This meant that access to the Internet and for assignment writing was difficult for them.

The University was more than happy to develop and support the programme. Most importantly the opportunity to develop a new school based programmes is a priority of the University particularly one in a new LEA. The programme is the kind of school improvement activity that it wishes to pursue, and the programme adds extra students.
The impetus for ‘extra students’ comes partly from the need to meet student target numbers but also because student numbers means ‘income’. Clearly, not in the sense of profit, since universities do not make ‘profit’, but in the sense of activity.

It was fortunate that the HE accredited pathway to MA was a flexible modular one. This meant that a “new” module could be developed by the LEA and validated by the University in only a few weeks, ensuring that the programme was designed specifically to meet the needs of the school.

Having staff available at short notice, to facilitate the development of the programme was essential.

The LEA was clear about the purpose of the programme being,

- To meet a specific school’s request.
- To create something that could be offered to all teachers in the secondary phase.
- To increase the participants’ knowledge, understanding and skills in relation to being a subject leader.
- To raise their expectations in relation to their professional role.

The LEA were keen to establish an accredited programme as one form of CPD for teachers in the area. The underpinning theory and knowledge was seen as an essential part of the programme and the active involvement of HE staff was seen as adding to the credibility of the programme.

However, it must be remembered that the LEA is a new unitary authority and therefore had no existing partnership model or arrangements. Therefore this activity was very much seen as a pilot, which could be replicated and perfected over a longer period of time.

The case study adds some complex detail to the general statements of conditions that maximise ‘impact’ found in Hopkins et al 1994, Brown and Earley (1990) and other texts. Needs are interpreted by individuals, negotiated with institutions (and between them) and influenced by motivation, self esteem, stress and other conditions, barely mentioned by rational management theorists and underpinning the importance of the
ideas of Ball et al (1985) and other about teachers’ lives and careers. The simplicity of the apparent TTA formula discussed on page 45 seems distant.

The Process that Led to Impact

A number of key processes have been identified as leading towards maximising impact on the teachers. These include using the standards, generating professional discussion, developing propositional knowledge and applying this to practice.

Using the TTA standards for subject leaders created an agenda and a set of criteria for the staff to measure themselves against, in their own self-evaluation.

One of the key processes of the programme were the number of assignments between sessions and the assignments for assessment. These proved to be both effective learning activities and a shock to some of the teachers, some of whom had been expecting to be passive recipients of knowledge, rather than active users, applies and evaluators of it. As one said,

L: ‘Well, because I didn’t know it was MA I didn’t know there was so much home work. I mean I didn’t mind it but I didn’t expect that at all I just expected to go and be given some information.’

Being part of a group inside the school was seen as an important process for learning.

‘Actually it wasn’t too bad but that is probably because you know you are familiar with people who you are working with and things like that, you could just go off to do a small task and report back. At various stages they were trying to develop our skills in presentation and there were a few helpful feedbacks on that.’

Central to the learning process were the opportunities for professional dialogue presented by the programme. As one participant said,
L: ‘I actually enjoyed the course. The things I liked about it, I don’t know. There was a lot of discussion it was quite open as well, you were able to have an opinion. It is nice to be able to work out what you think, you were given room to decide what your opinion is which was good.’

Some participants on the programme valued the way that they had been required to reflect on their attitudes to teaching and learning. One said that,

M: ‘I think certainly doing the long topic that I did I sort of found myself saying things like this is a very desirable thing to happen in the classroom and then reflecting and I could see it theoretically and conceptually. Building up lots of reasons; why it is pupil involvement trying to eliminate pupils passive making them active in the classroom as much as possible. These things I do I believe in strongly as an English teacher, I believe very much in the importance of pupil involvement, increasing the emphasis on speaking and listening skills social skills. That is basically what I did my... work assignment on. It did help me to understand why I believe in those things and I do believe in those things I did before. It does help you understand why you are that sort of teacher or you are keen to be involved with those sort of classes. I think that that was useful you get some sort of conceptual structure behind your own practice, which is there anyway but not necessarily articulated.’

I: Why is that articulation with that conceptual structure important to you?

M: It is important in the sense that you can justify what you are doing to yourself and to others which is an important factor as well. In terms of that, it is important for your professional self esteem I think to be able to say ‘I am a teacher because I believe in this and this is what I want to give to pupils that are in my class’ That gives you a sort of philosophical structure behind your practice which I think is important, I think if you have that it is not an academic thing that is unrelated to the classroom. To
have some sort of philosophy of teaching that you believe in is very important for your own enthusiasm. I think that you have got to understand what you are doing and why you are doing it, you don’t just do it because you are told to do it.

As was said earlier, the programme creates a demand for time to be put aside for reflection on action (Eraut 1994) and for the purpose of learning. Tasks and assignments are set. Reading of literature research and theory is expected. Written work has to be completed. Small scale investigations or enquiries are established. This contrasts with the account given by Joyce and Showers (1988), whose focus was on demonstration and coaching. (see page 41)

Although access to reading materials was difficult, because the HE library was considered to be far away, many participants felt that this was a problem for them. However, what reading was done had impacted upon their thinking and practice. As one teacher said,

L: ‘I read most of the stuff about management styles and different ways of dressing things and it makes you realise that there are lots of different management styles and techniques and you can use different ones at different times you don’t have to be set in your ways. It has made me more aware of what is out there.’

One teacher contrasted the programme with other professional development activities that she had attended which had been focused upon receiving information.

L: ‘This is much more personal than the other training that I have done. You were never really asked your opinion, nobody ever singled you out and said what do you think, nobody ever asked you to write your thoughts down write your opinions down and give a response. Nobody ever came back and said things back to you as well. So this was much more intimate, you felt, there were twelve of us you felt that you were all individuals on that course and you were all talked to differently that was important’
Barnett (2002) has used engagement to describe this interaction of the individual with knowledge and their practice. There are also echoes here of the way in which Fullan (1981, 1991) and Wenger (1998) describes how practitioners contextualise ideas and discover their practice.

**Outcomes of the Programme**

Outcomes of the programme were classified by the impact on the individual teachers thinking and practice, on them as individuals and the school as a whole. In addition, although not presented here, the programme has had a number of impacts on the LEA, the HE institution and the partnership.

Participants said that the programme had an immediate effect on some of their work as practitioners. One said,

L: ‘The thing is we do most of the stuff in the module particularly the monitoring. I monitor key stage three; they have target levels, they have got the level that they are working at, they have got all their test results. All the kids know what they are expected to get that is what. It has just made me make sure I am updating it regularly. I have started to delegate which I didn’t do before and it is quite nice, I just started asking people to do things and they said oh and that has freed me up to do something else.’

Despite the fact that the programme was intended to meet school needs, not all participants felt that it had impacted on their practice. As one said,

‘I am still not a subject leader so in a way it is never going to help unless I am a subject leader it is never going to have that much influence.’

There were examples of activities that had been introduced into the school as a result of the programme, for instance, evaluating test result data. The impact of the programme, however, was not thought to be revolutionary, according to the
participants. Yet, clearly some were re-evaluating the kind of teacher they wanted to be

M: ‘I think that the connection is what I did my assessment on which was the written piece it was going back to what we talked about before the role of education versus examination if you know what I mean. How do they pair up? Are there priorities that we are missing and very specifically for me how to heighten pupil’s involvement in the classroom? I think I am making a lot of generalisations but I think initially when I started teaching if the teacher dominated the class that was a good teacher. I don’t believe that anymore. I think a teacher can be very influential but in a very- can orchestrate things rather than dominate things. That is more and more what I am seeking to do in my lessons to let the pupils express themselves more. I think that is absolutely crucial any lesson now I come out with perspiration on my face. This is not necessarily good judgement of a good lesson, to a certain extent it is. Here is a lesson where the pupils have had a free range to express themselves, have surprised themselves with what they have been able to achieve and have enjoyed the lesson as well. I think in a school like this, we can’t improve anything without the help of the pupils. The fundamental aspect is the mind of the pupil and if we are not reaching the mind of the pupil then we are not going to change anything if pupils don’t enjoy the lesson.’

Participants felt that they had become more confident. One expressed this with,

L: ‘Definitely absolutely I mean I would speak at meetings now much more I think well actually I have got something to say and I am going to say it. That also transmits into a classroom situation as well ‘now I know what I am doing here and you are going to do what I say’ or whatever and that transmits across.’

She went on to say,

‘I have got my heels slightly higher.’
The senior management team had come to realise what a shock the programme had been for the participants. It was felt that what was needed was a programme for existing middle management. The school also felt that they had created a group talking about their professional work in a focused and structured way. As the interview notes said:

It was important for participants to come together as a group. It helped them understand and explore each other’s role in the school. Like it being school based, as people can’t hide behind excuses such as couldn’t get work done. Some of group took the opportunity to talk about the course in school. It was good to have someone there to chase people up and to keep them on focus.

(Notes from Assistant Headteacher Interview)

Yet, the impact of the discussions was not merely confined to the group of younger staff on the module, for as one teachers said,

‘Every Friday morning or lunch time I sit and talk about what we did in the meeting the night before and tell everyone about what we did and things like that.’

The Assistant Headteacher leading the course had been able to revisit some of the things that she had learned when a subject leader and had been able to spend time listening to the staff in their discussions.

The LEA has an accredited module leading towards MA in Education awards. The programme has been a development opportunity for staff in devising a postgraduate level programme and meeting the demands of level M programmes in HE.

Conclusions Drawn from the Case Study

The pattern of complex interrelated ‘impacts’ on practice, individuals and the institutions is replicated in the case study of St Bede’s. This contrasts with the simple view that seems to dominate the literature (e.g. TTA 1997). However, it would be
true to say that the impact was not as significant as with University based modules nor the other case studies.

Yet according to the rational-management theory of effective staff development, outlined by Hopkins (1987), Hopkins et al (1994), Kinder (1993) and others many of the conditions were present. The priority was identified by both the LEA and the school. Support was forthcoming both financial and in the active encouragement of the Senior Management Team.

The participants were in the early stages of their career and were not experienced as Middle managers, the focus of the module. Neither had they seen much practical effective middle management. Few wanted to study for the MA in Education and none continued. Participants on the course, as with other teachers at the school frequently complained about lack of time and there was some suspicion about new ideas. In contrast for the desire for school based and focused CPD, supported by Easen (1985) and Hopkins (1987), this case study suggests that group and cultural norms play an important part in deciding the effectiveness of such a strategy.

4.4.5 A Case Study of a Module Delivered by Thorpe LEA in Partnership with APU.

This is a case study of an LEA based HE module. This has been selected as a case study because it illustrates a different kind of delivery and partnership between teachers, institutions and Higher Education. Thus, it illustrates something more about the role of HE, as well as more about the conditions that lead to impact.

The data is derived from interviews with 4 participants arranged and conducted by the school based senior managers who acted as tutor-mentors. As was described on page 139, the advantage of this method was that detailed insights could be offered by the internal participant interviewer in the line of questioning, and an agreed ‘school perspective’ was likely to emerge. All interviewers used a common semi-structured interview agenda. (See page 134)
The LEA was a small 'new authority' some 20 miles from the University. It could be described as a socially mixed area but with a large amount of social depravation in many areas. Some schools in the area were perceived to be struggling to meet national standards.

Antecedents to Impact

The LEA created this module, 'An Introduction to the National Standards for Subject Leaders' to meet a need to address the issue of subject leadership in the authority. As such, it formed part of the LEA strategic plan, which in itself was shared with strategic planning in schools. This both illustrates the 'conditions' of planning and identifying needs, and the complexity of the process in the work of LEAs, schools and individuals. (See page 3)

Eraut (1994) shows how HE programmes have adapted to meet the needs of practitioners. From the outset the LEA leaders demanded that the module should be at 'master's level', and the HE institution assisted in validating the programme and its assessment. Assistance was also given in the form of advice, training and support in HE processes such as assessment, and module design. There was also support for individual students especially in terms of assignment completion and the use of the library. The HE institution undertook quality assurance procedures to ensure that the student experience was equal to that of students on other modules. One might conclude that support was optimised. Participants regarded the support from schools and the LEA as excellent, involving time release, discussions concerning learning and implementation of lessons learned as well as guidance on assignment completion. One participant said,

'Certainly, I have to give a lot of feedback, written feedback to senior members of staff, it is taken on board and strategies which we have talked about in action plans for example. I believe, as many staff that do, these programs that it has an impact on the school.'
Delivery was planned by LEA staff with school based tutor-mentors, who were senior managers in each of the participant schools. The programme also used practitioner experts to deliver specialist areas. Recruitment was organised through LEA negotiation with school managers who suggested who might like to participate.

While only one had interviewee had started a higher degree programme before the module was delivered, three out of the four participants wanted an MA and the third wanted to achieve the qualification at a later date, saying

‘I did consider doing a full MA through Thorpe by when (the Headteacher) the Head discussed the practicality of it, I realised I have a young family it would just be impossible. I have found it difficult.’

The opportunity to work in a local group was also seen to be attractive by both students and mentors. All wanted to improve their knowledge and skills as a subject leader. Most had been on a variety of short courses in addition to undertaking school based inset.

Again the simple set of ‘conditions’ for effective development and improvement, offered by Hopkins et al 1994, Brown and Earley (1990) and Oldroyd and Hall (1987) are contrasted with a complexity of issues including status, accreditation, LEA influence, and life cycle issues. This is removed from the simple formula suggested by the TTA (1997) (discussed on page 44).

Processes that Led to Impact

Participants described a range of helpful processes that led to impact. In this case study the novel use of senior team tutor-mentors was seen as a valuable contributor to impact. They enabled both the study, and implementation of lessons learned, to be supported. This confirms the view of Joyce and Showers (1988) concerning ‘coaching’ and the value of school-based support mechanisms for school improvement (following Easen (1985), Oldroyd and Hall (1987), Fullan (1981,1991).
Reading, using the materials provided by the LEA, the University and its library, and by schools was seen to be an important process leading to impact. There was a consensus among the group that they would have liked more access to more material to read, particularly as access to the University being at a distance was difficult. One said,

‘The reading side….which I haven’t done for a long time, its made me look at things more…what other people think……’

Another added,

‘Yes. I mean I found the reading very interesting. There were lots of things that I hadn’t learnt previously as a teacher, even things like the multiple intelligence and the way children learn. There are things that are new to me so that has kept me up to date with that.’

Discussions at the workshop sessions were seen as an important and valuable processes of learning, One ‘new’ member of staff said,

‘The fact that meeting other people on a regular basis who are in the same position as you. They may not be in the same subject as you are but they are all in the same position and that’s what I found the most beneficial. Because the idea of having to move into this area and you are not particularly networked as such. But the fact that you get to know certain faces, you get to know where schools are and things like that and what’s happening and how they work and so that compounded the information, which had been given. It’s probably been the bit, which has been most helpful.’

However, one reported that there was some reticence in discussing good and bad practice and strategies for improvement in other (local) schools.

The assignments were seen as useful practical activities that led to impact on practice. There was a general feeling that some could have had clearer instructions, however.
Outcomes of the Module

The module was well received by all participants and perceived to have made a major impact on teachers and their institutions. The LEA organisers were also well pleased with the programme and its effect, feeling, as did the candidates that ‘they were better managers’.

‘I think it has consolidated many things that I already knew perhaps, it has given me the necessary skills and tools to take myself on as an efficient Head of Department.’

Yet, another said,

‘When I first started teaching I didn’t understand what a subject leader did and what you had to do in the role of subject leader but now it has become clear through doing the course and that’s helped me.’

Participants felt that they had analytical tools that helped them be proactive rather than reactive managers. They felt they could analyse a situation because they had the insights into how things might be or they could look at data to identify what issues need to be tackled. One reported that,

‘As a teacher, things like writing schemes for work comes much easier when you exactly what criteria of a good and successful scheme of work. Looking for a variety of different teaching methods and strategies as opposed to just looking for single one main type of teaching and learning. That has been very important as well and I think my contribution in the department has been much greater since I’ve done the course.’

One regarded this as ‘the difference between the traditional Head of Department and somebody…nowadays’. Another perceived that as a result of the course they had to work harder because they knew what needed to be done.
Participants reported that it gave them confidence. One reported that they felt they were more professional, describing this as having a 'professional edge' to their work. One reported that they were 'able to use the arguments' in their work with their department.

'I think it's really brought me out of my shell a little bit. I think that when I first started teaching I was quite sort of shy and introverted and I think now on this course it has learnt me lots of skills presentation skills and I found that I got on with other people.'

Participants reported a whole range of subject leader skills had been developed including analysing assessment data, working with people, monitoring and leading teaching and learning development. This was perceived as likely to have impact on pupil learning and standards in the future. Participants explained that as a result of the module schemes of work, assessment procedures, and teaching styles had been developed in their schools.

This confirms detailed typologies of impact such as that outlined by Kinder et al (1991), and the findings of the SEN survey by the TTA (1997). However, the importance of those individual and personal qualities, so much understated in school improvement literature (such as Hopkins et al 1994, TTA 1995) have been brought to the fore.

*The Role of Higher Education in School Improvement*

Participants in the module were asked about their views on the role of Higher Education in terms of improving schools. This is the third major question of this research were asked.

Participants saw the link with HE institutions as important for a number of reasons including the status it brings, the qualification it affords
'I think it is a lot better because the value added is on numerous levels. As we know we might not want to admit it but yes I do think being accredited by a University as opposed to being accredited by the LEA or by school holds more impact, holds more weight. I mean, if you are going to look at it on a simplistic level you know that's definitely got the value added to it. But a large organisation can bring so much more on board in the fact that you have access to a university library as opposed to what a school or what you can afford to buy out of your capitation with regards to books.'

Others regarded universities as the source of new ideas and saw the role as people who could help them keep up to date. Such was the concern, that one person revealed that she had only qualified four years ago and felt that she had started to lose track of current education. Another said,

'I think it is really important to have links with the higher education establishments because I think they can keep us up to date with current research. People conducting PhDs and MA can say well this is what we have found out through our studies so you don't have to go and do it so it actually makes life much easier for you. It also gives you new ideas about new ways of looking at things. I think that you just can't get it in schools.'

This supports Barnett’s (1990, 1997,2000,2002), and Eraut’s (1994) view, that HE does have a role in supporting professionals in an age of rapid development of knowledge. In contrast, remember there was some suspicion of a lack of role suggested by Woodhead (1998), Hopkins (1986) and Bolam (2001).

An insight concerning the debate about learning from experience, and the work of Kolb (in Thorpe et al 1984) (see page 89) was revealed with,

... about the teaching and learning aspect it was the management and leadership of the department, which was the biggest interest to me because I think it is something that you only partly gain through experience, making mistakes rectifying mistakes but having this sort of preliminary course allows you to think ahead and structured discussions
so that you know ….. get away from making mistakes. Obviously you will do but you will know why that has happened.

However, rather than purely learning from experience, as suggested by Kolb, judicious theory inputs, derived from the programme, and as suggested by Cockman, Evans and Reynolds (1992) (see page 89) and discussion with other practitioners appear to be important components.

**Conclusions Drawn from the Case Study**

The case study reveals considerable evidence that an HE programme has impact on teachers and the quality of their professional work as, in this case subject leaders. This is not surprising, as these are the planned learning outcomes of the module. It therefore, once again, refutes the notion, introduced by some, that programmes in universities have little impact. (See page 4-5)

However, there are additional planned outcomes relating to the MA criteria. (See page 8). Since all participants passed these had also been achieved but, furthermore, a somewhat seamless interface between the academic requirements of the MA and the practical requirements of meeting the TTA Subject leaders standards (See page 52).

This may be somewhat overstated. Considerable work had been undertaken, by the HE institution, and the LEA delivery team, to design activities and assessment tasks that met both sets of criteria. This at least shows that it was possible but also highlights the need for further work in exploring effective ways of revealing standards criteria and academic criteria. (See Eraut 1994 comments about the way in which HEIs need to change to address this issue on page 92)

Yet, the case study also emphasises the personal outcomes in terms of motivation, interest, confidence and feeling ‘professional’. At least one teacher linked this with countering teacher disaffection. (as did individuals in other case studies). In doing this again the work of Steadman (1992) and Kinder et al (1993) is acknowledged in suggesting a range of outcomes of CPD activities.
The case study also reveals and confirms many of the aspects of the conditions that make effective CPD, outlined in section 2, including planning and identification of needs, planning programme design, involving coaching, feedback and mentoring.

While the case study re-emphasises the need for long term development programmes (Following Fullan in Hopkins 1987), it also illustrates what might be achieved in a partnership between HEIs and LEAs to meet the needs of schools. In this way it illustrates that the simplistic notion of individual schools merely identifying their own needs and purchasing CPD provision, as discussed in section 2.2, is but one model and not necessarily the only effective model. Indeed, teachers identified the value of and need for collaborative across school discussions.

Fundamentally, the case study seems to point to the considerable importance of the desire of teachers to learn. Clearly, where they also desire an MA this desire appears to be multiplied in its effect to maximise the impact. Put simply, those that value the award of MA perceive the outcomes of their programmes as being considerable. This factor is under-emphasised in the school improvement literature being only implied in the work concerning school culture.

The ‘local’ delivery (as opposed to site delivery suggested by Hopkins 1994, 1988 on page 39-43) both enabled local issues to be addressed, and local collaboration, but also a structure of local support. Most significant in terms of impact was the ability to support implementation and dissemination offered by school based mentors. This then is a development of the traditional notion, put forward by Hopkins (1988) and others.

The study also illustrates the processes that lead to ‘impact’ do indeed include Joyce and Showers’ forms of exposition, coaching and feedback, but also involve more ‘academic’ forms of study, such as reading, assignment writing and most significantly structured discussion of theory and practice. (Joyce and Showers 1988).

In conclusion then, the case study emphasises that impact is diverse, that the conditions that lead to impact involve the nature of the programme, the personnel delivering, the institutions involved and the candidates themselves. Such a view
suggests a model of partnership, and this will be discussed later in considering the role of HE in school improvement.

4.4.6 Conclusion and Overview of Phase Two of the Research: School and LEA Based Case Studies.

To analyse the main conclusions derived from the case studies table 27 has been constructed. This makes an assessment of the themes associated with the key questions of the study concerned with the impact of CPD in Higher Education, the conditions that lead to impact and the role of HE in school improvement.

Impact has been assessed from the comments made in the interviews on practice on individuals and institutions, using the brief typology suggested by the research and supported by Steadman et al (1991) and Kinder et al (1993).

The key antecedents have been identified so that we might discuss which of these if any are ‘conditions’ that lead to impact. Some assessment of the contribution played by the learning activities is also made from reading the accounts of the semi-structured interviews.

The case studies reveal the overall complexity of the range of ‘impacts’, as revealed by the study of University based students and in contrast to the fixation of some of the literature on simple ‘practice’ outcomes. Once again motivation, inspiration, status and self worth were important personal outcomes.

However, there was some variation in impact in the reported perceptions of the teachers involved. At Randall and St Bede's the feel of the data suggest that impact was less than in the other case studies. Some felt that the programme was not that relevant to them and their work. Clearly the technocratic approach to planning and financial support described by Hopkins (1987), Hopkins (1994) and Kinder et al (1993) and others had not been sufficient. Neither had the enthusiasm and support of Senior teachers. In the St Bede's case the Deputy Headteacher had led the programme.
Table 27 Summary Assessment of the Case Studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact</th>
<th>Randall</th>
<th>Snowdon</th>
<th>St Bede's</th>
<th>Thorpe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>Good-Excellent reports on introduction</td>
<td>Good for some but not all</td>
<td>Excellent.</td>
<td>Poor. Not relevant. No time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutions</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Good Informal dissemination</td>
<td>Very Poor Most staff left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antecedents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support of Senior Staff</td>
<td>Good Deputy Head on the Course. SMT enthusiastic</td>
<td>Fair. Some senior Teachers on the course. Enthusiasm for it.</td>
<td>Good Deputy Head on the course. Real commitment of Headteacher and SMT</td>
<td>Good Deputy Headteacher led the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture of the School/Group</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Poor Some suspicion of MA/new ideas</td>
<td>Good Very supportive group for module</td>
<td>Poor 'lack of time'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Tutor</td>
<td>Excellent Asked back.</td>
<td>Poor. Some felt patronised</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Poor Antagonisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual desire for MA/Learning</td>
<td>Fair Some continued with MA None attended University</td>
<td>Poor Lack of Time None continued with MA None attended University</td>
<td>Fair Some continued with MA None attended University</td>
<td>Poor None carried on. None attended University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>Good Practice Focused</td>
<td>Practice Focused</td>
<td>Practice Focused</td>
<td>Practice Focused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Poor Poor. No time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment writing</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Well received</td>
<td>Well received</td>
<td>Well received</td>
<td>Well received</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three factors seem to account for the difference. First, the culture of the group and indeed of the schools concerned mitigated against successful CPD. All teachers complain about lack of time, especially for CPD but these do so, and probably feel it more than others. There was also more of an antagonism against new ideas and indeed new learning in both institutions. The desire for an MA qualification was at a low level in both cases.

Both institutions displayed some antagonism towards the delivery team. In both cases this was not replicated in similar modules in different locations.

The literature is littered with references to school culture as being the important ingredient influencing school effectiveness and improvement (see Mortimore et al 1998, Rutter et al 1979, Hopkins et al 1994). However, where CPD activities in challenging school cultures are ‘measured’ for their impact, as in the case of the TTA/Ofsted inspection (see page 34) it seems pertinent to emphasise changes in culture as much as impact on practice. Furthermore, where learning itself in HE institutions is derided as in the case of Woodhead (1999 quoted on page 53) then this in itself seems to mitigate against impact with some people.

In addition, an emphasis on school-based and school focused delivery from Easen (1985), and Hopkins (1987) does not necessarily seem to provide a guaranteed solution. Both these cases were school based and school focused CPD activities.

The cases also reveal the importance of system level cultural attitudes to learning and the role of HEIs. Where individuals respect what HEIs bring to the profession of teaching, then ‘impact’ is maximised. Where that respect is not apparent then ‘impact’ will be more difficult. This system level condition is not to the fore in the literature, especially that most linked to school-based and centred change.
4.5 Headteachers' Views on the Importance of Continuing Professional Development

This research has focused upon the three central questions of identifying the impact of CPD in higher education programmes, the conditions that lead to that impact and the role of higher education in the professional development and school improvement agenda of the times. These issues were discussed in section one and two of this work.

In chapter three the interpretative, naturalistic and qualitative research tradition was outlined and justified in terms of its use in this piece of research. Such a tradition follows the work of Denzin and Lincoln (2001) and earlier work in evaluation by Stake (1967). Key to such a tradition has been the use of case study, the portrayal of multiple perspectives and the weaving of a rich tapestry or bricoleur (Denzin and Lincoln 2001) (See page 111).

Sections 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 outline the data drawn from the interviews of a variety of individuals and cohorts. Care has been taken to portray the richness of the stories provided by the participants. The story has been focused upon impact of the CPD experience at APU and the conditions that lead to that impact. These conditions are both antecedents and processes to use Stakes terminology. Emerging from the data is the notion that the conditions lie in the individuals, the schools and the HEI.

Triangulation is achieved through collecting data from Headteachers as key informants and stakeholders. This provides validation for the views expressed by teacher participants in the programmes, as well as a chance for a different perspective. However, there is also the opportunity to explore with key stakeholders the questions of the role of HE in school improvement.

All the Headteachers who were interviewed underlined the importance of professional development as 'the greatest resource in the school'. Concepts such as 'the learning institution' and the teacher as learner are widespread and clearly association with higher education is in the minds of Headteacher. Many schools use the Investors in People framework and its philosophy is at the heart of their views about Continuing Professional Development.
The belief in the value of CPD is an important precondition to maximising its impact, it would seem to us, for it follows that time and resources, where they are available should follow, but in addition it emphasises a commitment to a change process. Elsewhere we have described the importance of this ‘contract’ for development (Terrell 1997).

**Outcomes of CPD in Higher Education**

Where accredited programmes of study had taken place, Headteachers reported that there had been tangible impact on:

- **Practice**
- **Awareness and knowledge**
- **Personal qualities such as confidence, motivation, and teacher self-esteem**
- **Reflection**

Two types of programmes led to impact on practice. These were those focused upon ‘management’ skills or those focused upon teaching and learning strategies. Of the latter some of these were specific to curriculum areas such as mathematics. Of the former those associated with strategic planning and subject co-ordination were to the fore.

One school reported that they had been involved in a Maths course that was ‘very successful’ in terms of introducing staff to ‘Theory, philosophy and skills’. It had been a ‘very powerful model’ and had ‘changed the culture’ of the school. One Headteacher who had undertaken a 3-year part time master’s degree at APU commented that the programme had been, ‘Quite inspirational!’ Although it had not had a direct influence on school, it had led to her greater understanding of the educational process. She reported that, another teacher had done a master’s in London and she could, ‘see the teacher grow’. Another reported that, ‘the higher degree gives a framework for reference, it structures their thinking, it exposes them to strategic thinking, and enables them to discuss their ideas with other professionals.'
The embedding of skills within wider philosophical and theoretical perspectives, where values and beliefs are challenged and debated with other professionals appeared to be important outcomes for the Headteachers who were interviewed.

In several of the schools, teachers who had begun a programme in higher education had subsequently left the school, often-gaining promotion. Some schools organised programmes because they might lead to promotion for staff. While some saw this as an opportunity to recruit new energetic staff with important skills, there was also, for some, a clear tension between investment in professional development and reaping the benefits of such programmes. Clearly there is a tension here that current rationales based upon individual school ‘purchasing’ programmes from ‘the marketplace’ to achieve entirely school based ends have under emphasised.

Surely the idea that CPD leads to promotion in other schools is the Achilles heel of the fragmented, individualised school system. Even if the programme of CPD is school focused, there is no guarantee that the benefits will not be felt in the teachers’ new appointment, rather than the school whose needs were being met! If only school needs are met by CPD, then individual career aspirations must surely suffer. How far this has contributed to the current teacher recruitment crises and low teacher morale is only conjecture.

All schools reported well-developed systems of needs identification including through appraisal, professional development interviews and school development planning. Teachers have professional development portfolios. School and department targets are being identified and negotiated. In some schools there were well-developed systems of dissemination from CPD events and formal evaluation of the quality of them. Evaluating the impact on teaching practice remains difficult but is being attempted by schools. Frequently staff development was the responsibility of a Deputy Headteacher or member of the senior management team. The Investors in People award had clearly influenced and informed thinking in the majority of schools and in particular the need to evaluate the impact.

Programmes of CPD, in partnership with HEIs were supported by schools in the expectation that there would be impact on practice. This is fundamental to
understanding the basis of a CPD partnership. Given that schools have well-developed systems of planning development they are able to take on a partnership with an HEI institution where they feel a need may be met.

However, schools did report the difficulties they have in balancing the needs of the school with those of individual teachers. While this was no longer such a procedural problem it often became a problem of lack of overall resource. Several informants reported the decline in overall resource following removal of GM status, and the increasing use of targeting funding to priorities other than those of the school.

Schools that could afford to were able to provide financial support for teachers undertaking credit-bearing programmes. In some cases this was part funding and the teacher had to find the rest. In general, more financial support could be offered in secondary schools and had been available in the former GM schools.

One school which claimed that they had spent, ‘many thousands and thousands of pounds on an MA programme’ had decided to develop a system of ‘conditional funding’. The school that they had set the programme up in ‘too generous a way’ and that too many staff had not completed the programme successfully. They felt that they need to be more discriminating in who was supported and financial support should be on condition that the programme was completed. Some schools were also able to offer some non-contact time to some teachers. Again, this was mentioned by secondary schools more often than primary.

There is a widespread belief amongst teachers that undertake MA award, that such award is likely to lead to promotion and hence an increase in salary. We have shown that such a belief forms one condition although such a connection with salary is not automatic, as it is for example in Israel (Terrell and Brown 1999). We, therefore, asked Headteachers if they valued a second degree in appointing staff.

In general, higher education awards were highly valued by Headteachers. In one case, (a primary school) the Headteacher reported that second degrees were quite rare but again would be valued). Clearly, being a good practitioner was a more important criterion; however, further awards were likely to be decisive in strong field.
One typical statement was,

'I think where I look at applicants for senior posts in this school; I look first of all at the practical successes. Can they do things, have they got evidence of being effective practitioners, that carries more weight in the criteria I use. Then having a higher degree or a doctorate, having said that obviously I think if you have got into a situation of a large number of applications a screening device might be look put aside those who have got the master’s degrees and look at those first. So it could be a mechanism for long lists going down. A very long list compared to a long list. I do feel that sometimes having a master’s degree leaves the people using a lot of jargon in letters of applications, which I am not to happy with.'

Although the sentiment of the last sentence may be both widespread and its occurrence rightly to be frowned upon, the exact definition of ‘jargon’ has always interested me. Where it refers to precise use of a technical language unknown by those outside of the (HE-Teacher) group, it leads one to believe that the technology of teaching and its discourse is being ‘dummed down’.

One school used a higher education award as a criterion for the appointment of (senior) staff. This it did on the grounds that such an award was both evidence of wider experience, and of having a wider perspective.

'I think if a person is taking the trouble to get a higher degree in education then to me that reflects a degree of commitment. A desire to improve their personal situation. My only concern would be to employ someone who was in the process of getting a higher degree in education. Because then I would want to talk to them about what they would anticipate from me if they became a candidate at this school. Certainly I would be very positive. Indeed I have in the past I have encouraged a number of staff to consider improving their qualifications.'
Another added,

'Well we certainly do ask questions at the interview, if they put down that they have a master's degree. We ask them what it is about, why they did, what did they get from it.'

Many schools recognised the pressure on teacher's time. One Headteacher was vehemently opposed to twilight programmes saying that teachers were too exhausted to undertake such programmes. Indeed he suggested that most teachers felt that a higher education programme required too much of a commitment in terms of time. The Headteacher, who had enjoyed a one term-secondment in his career and was in favour of such a system added,

'I just do not understand where people find the time to do a professional job in school and then undertake what’s required on top. They can have no other interests in life. I just cannot see how they can. That’s fine for those people who want to do and I don’t begrudge them the few dots they get out of it. But most of us are not like that. Most of us want to do a good job and we want the weekends for ourselves. We don’t expect to be using our own time to enhance not our own professional development because I am cynical enough to say that the government is not interested in my professional development.'

One problem was found in schools with large cohorts undertaking credit bearing awards was that although they may have benefited from a critical mass of teachers undergoing the programme, the demand from a large proportion of staff to go on a daytime programme, or to be granted study leave became too great for the school. This illustrates a practical problem faced by schools having large cohorts undertaking school-focused issues. In some senses there is a tension between the potential impact outlined by the research and the time commitment required for such work. Such a tension may be broken where outcomes can be guaranteed. Hence track record becomes important for schools choosing higher education partners, For higher education establishing the conditions for long term planned development of programmes is important to build a ‘track record’ and to maintain a partnership.
Headteachers were all favourable about a partnership with an HEI institution. However, this was often conceived in wider terms and not merely as a staff development provider. One said that,

'I think Anglia can help us in just raising the expectations of the Chelmsford parents.'

Partnership with the University was both experienced and conceived as a relationship with a large organisation with many different facets and departments.

Such links experienced included:

- Partnership over Initial Teacher Education and Training
- Compact arrangements for post 16 education.
- Introductions to HE for 6th forms
- Credit and non-credit bearing programmes from many different departments including Business and management schools, Schools of Education, Research and Regional Offices.
- Use of buildings for staff conferences and Inset.

Links that were called for by Headteachers included,

- Every teacher being able to use the resources of the University library.
- Post 16 students being able to use the University library.
- A role in bringing schools together as a regional centre.
- More classroom based and school based activity
- Shared teaching between school and the HEI.

One school suggested that a good way forward could be the appointment of jointly funded staff teaching in both University and School. Another suggestion was for greater University support for Schools that see themselves as research institutions.

It was not obvious in the interviews that many of these activities were separate and isolated links from each other. To partnership schools they appear as linked with one
institution and one group of people. One can only say from a higher education perspective that we would wish it were true.

Several schools had partnerships with more than one university. This may enable specific expertise to be used across wider areas in a situation where no one university can have expertise in every area of school activity. However, having several ‘partners’ may appear to hold back the development of long-term close mutual partnership with a local HEI. Partnership arrangements between HEI institutions appear to be rare and worthy of further research. Again, however, such arrangements are not easy in an environment of competition and bidding (See page 23).

Some institutions commented upon ‘the poor reputation’ of the University despite having ‘Done a lot of work with APU’. Such a reputation had been created a number of years previously and based not on CPD work at all. The same school was one of two that reported that ‘Colleagues at APU were chasing their tails all the time’. (It should be pointed out that the same school reported a large-scale impact of a maths education programme above)

Given the many departments and agencies involved in partnership, difficulties where they occur, clearly have along lasting effect and are likely to damage any growing partnership. However, the image of universities, under pressure of time and resources is not a good one to enhance the impact of CPD through partnership.

Communication of what was on offer from a partnership was explicitly mentioned as a barrier to forming a close partnership for school improvement. In addition, implicit in many of the comments was a misunderstanding of what the University might be able to offer. For example schools who wanted ‘much more school centred and school focused work’ were clearly unaware that over 50% of students in the area were on such programmes. As one Headteacher put it,

‘SMT don’t necessarily know what is on offer from APU.’

While some felt that single fliers, rather than packages of material were helpful others felt that regular personal contact is needed to unpack the nature of what is on offer and
indicated a need for better understanding. A school could then link with a University on the school development plan agenda over a long period of time.

Conclusion and Discussion

The results of the research were somewhat surprising in their overall support for a role for higher education in school improvement. Given the, at best, ambivalent government policies and almost two decades of the ‘school based and focused’ movement (See page 24), there remains, it would appear, a large degree of support for an HE role, in partnership with schools, in school improvement initiatives. There is a strong awareness of the importance of planning, needs identification and evaluation within schools. The widely held premise that a second degree, to gain promotion to senior positions is a major benefit (at least in Essex), has been shown to have some truth. This suggested that the currency of the MA award, in the wider teaching community, is an important condition for beginning to engage in MA studies.

A number of other issues are raised by the interviews concerning the role of HE in school improvement. We would suggest that there is some confusion in how the relationship between schools and HE. This is indicated by the interviews with schools, and in their expectations of a partnership with HE institutions. In the latter case, for example, as a provider, the University library is able to offer all teachers access. However, the cost is £80 per teacher per year. I suspect few teachers would pay such a sum. In Israel, for example, all teachers are able to use library facilities free, since University libraries there are seen as a service for the community.

Providers compete with each other offering services at competitive prices. To do this they need to be efficient and lean. Consumers choose the most cost-effective product of a provider. One assumes perfect knowledge by both consumer and provider of what is effective.

Partners develop their understanding of what is effective over a long lasting and developing relationship. Both partners develop in terms of their expertise and knowledge, to the benefit of both partners. The school has more effective teaching and management. The HEI develops more effective practice in supporting schools.
Arguably, such schizophrenia over the relationship between HE and School Improvement is derived from government policy which both wants to develop partnerships in CPD, and ‘drive down the unit costs of providers’. It sets up bidding rounds, for funding based upon three years for providers to compete’ yet encourages ‘partnerships’, ‘targeted CPD according to need’ and inspection criteria based on impact and completion rates.

Culture, Level and Discourse

Graham, Gough and Beadsworth (2000) argue for teachers to be conceptualised as ‘networked practitioners’ and schools and HEIs as ‘networked organisations’ (p23). It has been shown how headteachers have wanted teachers to be in contact with HEI staff, to discuss ideas and to update their knowledge. Data has been collected to show that this has had an impact upon the quality of the educational debate going on in schools.

Clearly where MA assignments are being written, one might expect that a number of criteria to be met including:

• Identification and analysis of key concepts,
• Collection of evidence,
• Rationale and evidence based discussion.
• New perspectives on theory and practice are developed

It could, therefore, be argued that the value to education of CPD partnerships with HEIs can not merely be measured in simple mechanistic terms as impact upon practice but needs to be assessed into terms of contribution to the culture and level of discourse amongst the whole profession.

While some authors including Hopkins (1986), Fullan (1981,1991) and Eraut (1994) have appeared to marginalise the role of higher education, the research has revealed the importance to headteachers of the partnership. The data also seems to support Barnett’s ideas concerning the needs of professionals facing complex and rapid change (Barnett 2000, 1997,1990) (See page 88). The question has become one of
ways of building and sustaining a partnership. Graham et al (2000) are right to call for 'a duty of care' to be taken on by central government agencies.

Our preliminary findings from the research project do not dispute that the school should be the centre for school improvement initiatives. However, it does suggest that there is evidence of a wider condition in terms of the quality of discourse concerning education. Particularly evident is, for instance, knowledge of recent best practice research into teaching and learning. Hence, there are issues about building the conditions for improvement in the profession of teaching as a whole and across schools and the education system. We have tried to begin to conceptualise this in figure one, identifying from this data and from data drawn from our wider study some of the key components to a healthy partnership for CPD.
Chapter Five
Analysis and Discussion

It was argued (on page 4) that the impact of CPD in higher education on teachers and their institutions is a legitimate area of enquiry within the school effectiveness and improvement field. Yet, according to the OECD report of 1999 little is known about the effects of CPD in general (page 19). This research, therefore, has focused upon three major questions, introduced on page 15, which are:-

1. What is the impact of continuing professional development (CPD) in higher education (HE) on teachers and their institutions?

2. What conditions maximise the impact of such programmes?

3. What, therefore, is the role of higher education in school improvement and the continuing professional development of teachers?

The review of literature established that little was known about the impact of any forms of CPD. Although some accounts, such as the survey of SEN provision, found considerable impact in many forms (TTA 1997), there continues to be much suspicion that CPD in higher education has dubious merit and impact.

When reviewing the literature on the conditions that lead to impact, writers such as Hopkins et al (1994), Fullan (1981 and 1991) have dismissed ‘university programmes’ as irrelevant. (See page 24, 53 and 103). Others, including (TTA 1998, Brown and Earley (1990), Kinder et al (1991) and Oldroyd and Hall (1991) have focused their attention on management procedures of planning and evaluation (see page 22, 37-52). Such works locate teacher development in the school and focused upon the school (following Easen 1985).

However, there remains a compelling argument for developing critical, reflective and ‘extended’ professionals to use the arguments of Hoyle cited in Stenhouse (1975), Elliott (1991, 1993). Such professionals, they argue should be researchers and evidence based practitioners (according to Hargreaves (in Elliott 1993) yet also be
capable of exploring beliefs, values and morale judgements in their professional life (following Elliott 1993 quoted on page 94). Links have been made between these aspirations of higher education programmes and the notion of continuous improvement developed by the school improvement movement and writers such as Hopkins et al (1994), Fullan (1981, 1991) (See page 3).

This leads now to a final analysis and summary of the empirical findings collected from a collection of case studies from one university MA in Education pathway. These have been fully reported in detail, using the voices of teachers, telling their story and their perspective as much as possible. The following is a drawing together of their stories under the heading of the three major questions.

5.1 Question One: What is the impact of CPD in HE?

While the OECD argued that little was known about the impact of CPD in general in 1999 (page 19), relatively less is known about the impact of programmes in HE. However, the TTA/MORI research of 1995 supported the development of a feeling that CPD in Higher Education was probably an ineffective use of money, which led to a restructuring of the funding mechanism and the Ofsted inspection of CPD in HE in 1999-2000.

Several reports since 1995 have indicated that CPD in HE does have some impact. The SEN training study discussed on page 24 suggested considerable impact. Yet while Askew et al (1997) emphasised long in depth programmes, they were not explicit about the role of HE. Ferguson and Ladd (1996) are deeply suspicious of master’s degrees having an effect on pupil learning (page 32).

In phase one of the enquiry, nineteen participants in University based programmes at APU were interviewed and asked their perception of the impact of the programmes they had followed. Overwhelmingly they were able to identify a large number of, for them, positive effects. This pattern was repeated in case studies of APU modules based in schools and LEAs (page 186-234).
At one level, the results of the interviews were surprising in the extent and ease with which practitioners revealed outcomes. Clearly, logic suggests that teachers would not attend 3-hour lectures, and produce assignments, if they felt that there were no outcomes, and few would attend if there was no practical relevance.

However, at another level, it was revealing to collate the range of outcomes, which seemed to involve the teacher personally and professionally and their institutions. Table 34 illustrates those that were collected.

The data suggests that, according to the stories of the participants, the HE programme has many outcomes and impacts upon several different aspects of the work and life of the teacher. This includes impact upon practice, intellectual outcomes, and personal outcomes such as self-esteem and effects on the institutions that teachers belong to. In the latter, this is not only ‘impact’ on the school but goes beyond in terms of the teachers’ relationship with other professionals and agencies such as Ofsted and LEA advisers.

This finding both supports and extends the conclusions of Kinder, Harland and Wootten (1991) referred to on page 35. Their typology of INSET outcomes was not specific to HE programmes but did suggest at least nine categories. Here we suggest that impact is both on ‘practice’ and on the intellectual and personal aspects of the participant teacher.

Hence, teachers were developing competence in meeting TTA standards (see page 55-65). This was particularly evident from the LEA and school based module case studies, and especially so where the modules focused explicitly on this. However, as was illustrated in the discussion, CPD in higher education offers much more impact than simply ‘atomised’ statements of competence or standards. In addition to changes in teaching and management practice, there were also practical changes in terms of the vision practitioners had of practice and their ability to make informed choices from a wider repertoire. This was found most strongly in the school/LEA based accounts (page 186-235).
Yet, 'impact' can also be perceived by participants on a number of 'intellectual' characteristics of the teachers involved. By that, such things as knowledge of recent literature, research and theory is enhanced. Participants show an ability to articulate tacit knowledge gained through experience. They have a language and concepts through which to articulate their knowledge. They have an ability to select and apply theoretical models to solve practical problems.

One impact is refreshing teacher knowledge in the sense of returning to ideas that were 'known' but somehow discarded in practice. In addition, considerable amounts of new knowledge is gained and applied in areas not covered in initial training or through practice. This could be knowledge of areas not covered by training, such as in the case of the middle management programme at St Bede's, or the teaching strategies module at Belfry, Snowdon and Randall. Alternatively, it is merely part of the process of keeping up to date with new ideas.

This suggests a more complex treatment of the 'knowledge' component than the Joyce and Showers' (1988) model suggests (see page 41). Knowledge is both 'known' and, in a sense 'forgotten'. It constantly needs refreshing, bringing forward or making explicit. Knowledge (about teaching and managing schools) changes in two ways. Firstly, our ability to recognise, understand and use knowledge changes. This point was emphasised by the case studies that there was least impact on practice where participants said that the knowledge was just not relevant to them, or so they thought. (See Randall and St Bede's case studies pages 196 and 213). Second, knowledge really does keep being invented. Some of the models, ideas and practice, promoted by HE programmes did not exist when participants were originally trained. Included in this, for example, is the analysis of data models in Thorpe's subject leaders programme and the ideas about accelerated learning in the school based case studies.

Yet participants are not only more knowledgeable but they are also more analytical and critical. They report that they are able to argue with confidence using key concepts and supporting their arguments by reference to authors and models. JA for example feels that he is able to engage in debate with inspectors. (Page 157). Some of this analysis is based upon the opportunity for re-evaluating values and beliefs.
In many of the cases, the programmes have demonstrated an ability to develop new perspectives on knowledge through systematic enquiry. Such an outcome is predicted by Hopkins et al (1994) and Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997), although whether such an ability is ever used again is not found in this data.

A third category seems to be impact on ‘the person’, as opposed to practice or indeed their intellectual capacities. This is predicted by Kinder et al (1991) who identify both ‘affective outcomes’ and ‘motivational and attitudinal outcomes’ as two distinct types (see page 35). Joyce and Showers (1988) do not refer to this type of outcome (page 41) except as ‘changes in attitude’. Askew et al (1997) and Frost (2000), discussed on pages 28 and 102, noted the importance of teacher morale. Specifically, we have found major changes in teachers in terms of motivation and refreshment, their attitude to future promotion, their self-esteem and personal worth.

This research supports Eraut’s assertion that, ‘...a particular feature of most professional work is the need for confidence and credibility: the professional has to believe that he is doing right’. (Eraut 1994:47).

Repeatedly participants have said that they feel more ‘professional’ (see page 70-75). This embodies three meanings. First, that they can do their job more effectively. Second, that they feel more important, more empowered, and more authoritative. This supports McCullogh’s notion outlined on page 74. They also feel validated by the University stamp of approval in terms of the qualification. Third, there is, it would appear greater commitment to the profession of teaching, its values and ideas. One teacher at Randall was one among many who felt more committed to teaching as a result of the module.

It should be noted that there is also the major negative impact that participants in the MA programme often feel frustrated that they cannot change things for the better in their institutions. This partly stems, they say, from being more critical as a result of their increased awareness. For many, promotion to a position where they can make a difference follows shortly after engagement with the programme. None of the literature identified this effect, which is apparent even in school based programmes. Its significance is that it further underlines the importance of looking at impact,
beyond individual schools and on the profession of teaching and system of education as a whole. This notion is not emphasised by the school-based/school focused movement (see page 39-40).

There are also ‘impacts’ on institutions both in terms of the school, the LEA and the profession of teaching. Clearly, policy and schemes of work and the like are developed embodying the learning of the participants. Practice does change across schools and with departments. Since, in many cases, the study in HE is linked to school priorities then the impact goes beyond individuals and school targets are achieved.

In terms of school improvement ‘capacity building’ discussed on page 14, many of the modules develop capacity by building access to recent research, literature and theory, developing professional dialogue, establishing the process of research and development projects and supporting critical and evaluative enquiry. This goes beyond the capacities outlined by Hopkins et al (1994). In particular, this is distinctive in two ways from the school improvement literature outlined in Table 3 on page 14. First, there is an emphasis here on the ‘academic’ content and level of the discourse in professional dialogue and enquiry. This is never mentioned in literature even in recent calls for ‘informed professional judgement (e.g. by Hopkins 2002). Second, it is a result of networks beyond what might be available in purely school based-school focused development (see page 14 and 40). Even Hopkins’ recent call for more networking through professional learning communities (Hopkins 2002) does not acknowledge that these have successfully existed in University programmes such as those in the phase one of this research where ideas were shared across schools in University based courses. This was also a clear feature of the Thorpe LEA case study.

Table 31 Outcomes of CPD in Higher Education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Intellectual Outcomes</th>
<th>Personal Outcomes</th>
<th>Institutional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TTA Standards</td>
<td>Knowledge of recent literature,</td>
<td>Motivation and refreshment</td>
<td>Professionalising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and Theory</td>
<td>Ability to articulate tacit knowledge gained through experience</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to elect and apply theoretical models to solve practical problems</td>
<td>Self esteem</td>
<td>Collaboration and shared practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in Practice</td>
<td>Ability to communicate concepts through language.</td>
<td>Empowerment, Kudos, personal worth.</td>
<td>Changes in practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional and Informed Vision</td>
<td>Ability to distinguish concepts.</td>
<td>Frustrated ambition</td>
<td>Teacher as learner role models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliberative choices from knowledge of alternatives</td>
<td>New knowledge in areas not covered in initial training or through practice.</td>
<td>Commitment to the profession of teaching, values and ideas.</td>
<td>Achievement of school targets and goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideology of Teacher Pedagogy</td>
<td>Refreshment and revisiting of teacher knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sharing of recent research, literature and theory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluative Skills and Processes</td>
<td>Reconstruction of knowledge gained in initial training and through</td>
<td>Sense of achievement</td>
<td>Research and development projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Critical and evaluative enquiry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective practice based upon values and beliefs and ethical reasoning</td>
<td>Ability to articulate personal values and beliefs</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abilities of change agents</td>
<td>Critical argument</td>
<td>Problem solving capacities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional judgement and decision making based upon evidence and research.</td>
<td>Rational argument</td>
<td>Drive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of teaching</td>
<td>Articulation of Values</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of management</td>
<td>Ability to develop new perspectives on knowledge through systematic enquiry</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imagination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Learning of Early and Mid-Career Teachers

Eraut (1994) suggests that little is known about the CPD of teachers in their early–mid career. While much literature and research has focused upon the early years after initial training (e.g. Earley and Kinder 1994) little has been written concerning later development. Page 50 refers to the Dreyfus model (cited by Eraut 1994:128) which emphasises skill development.

The case studies reveal a number of features of the learning of teachers on CPD programmes in HE, during their early mid-career. All those interviewed were in at least their third year of practice. The case studies at St Bede’s and Randall focused
particularly on groups with 3-8 years experience. Aspiring subject leaders and actual subject leaders were key informants in Thorpe and Belfry accounts.

Learning, for early mid-career teachers involves assessing and reassessing propositional knowledge and practice based knowledge (following Eraut 1994). At Randall, Snowdon and Belfry participants were re-engaging with propositional knowledge or acquiring more, which they were relating to their practical experiences.

Early in the teacher’s career practical experience and initial training propositional knowledge can be revised and reassessed through systematic analysis and comparison with theory. The early career period is an important time to ‘escape from experience’ and learn new perspectives.

At the St Bede’s and Thorpe programmes, in particular, new propositional knowledge was being explored, either to contribute to new roles of subject leadership or to plug gaps in initial training.

Learning outcomes for CPD with NQTs covers and integrates both knowledge and skills and yet also involve essential affective domain outcomes such as confidence, self esteem, and feeling more empowered. These seem to be particularly important to professionals beginning to take leadership roles.

The early mid-career period can be seen as a period of change in focus of CPD from needs of ‘survival’ to beginning to think about long term career development, yet sometimes from a position of relative ignorance of what is required.

Tentative commitment to academic awards and further learning can be made because they can be seen as enhancing promotion prospects.

According to Eraut (1994:128) discussed on page 88, learning through reflection takes time, which is at a premium very early in the teacher’s career. However, investing time in learning (and reflection for learning) is considered worthwhile by the teachers, and possible after the initial ‘survival’ phase where the focus is upon professional
problems, there is an impact on practice, and there is a recognised and valued qualification that may lead to future promotion.

A key aspect of the learning for early and mid career teachers is the learning of tools for critical analysis and developing a precise language about concepts, models and theories, against which practice can be reviewed. This enables experience to be articulated in new forms and with new understanding.

For teachers in APU programmes, the early mid-career is a time when teachers can develop the skills of analysis, criticism and challenge. The skills involve collecting evidence, building an argument, using different perspectives, and writing or presenting a case orally to colleagues, peers and tutors.

Teachers in the early mid-career develop a wider perspective of the school and its organisation and management, so that the skills of strategic planning, vision, deliberation, the consideration of alternatives and so on can take place.

The data from the case studies and other research on CPD with teachers in their early and mid-career has been used to identify elements of learning, where conditions are suitable. Table 35 outlines some of these ideas in the form of the Dreyfus model.

*An assessment of the data*

The account of the data and the analysis developed here are strongly influenced by those that have successfully engaged in the MA programme. They are therefore, fundamentally likely to report considerable impact. This was noted on page 128 and justified as an approach to discovering what leads to impact.

On no occasion has it been claimed that ‘impact’ was identified by all participants. Clearly, the majority where this is true would not have completed the programme. Impact was noted to be less in the Randall and St Bede’s case studies, part of the reason for selecting them (see page 135).
Much of the account is an account of perceptions rather than measured impact. To be fair many of the stated outcomes were products such as policies and lesson plans.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 1-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Learning to cope in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning for new roles such as form tutor, subject co-ordinator (primary)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First moves towards serious thinking about career aspirations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First steps in thinking as an individual teacher to a whole school perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First steps in thinking about career aspirations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Development of practice based thinking about leadership, strategic planning, vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Early development of knowledge and skills required for critical analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Developing professional confidence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3-8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Active consideration of career direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Investment in learning for professional awards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knowledge updating, review and reconfirmation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reassessment/re-confirmation of prior propositional knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reassessment/re-confirmation of experiential learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Assertion of professional confidence in formal or informal leadership roles as an experienced professional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning for new roles, such as subject leadership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning school improvement process skills of enquiry, dissemination, change agency.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29 A development of the Dreyfus model

Teachers also provided data on learning activities and outcomes, which supported their perceptions. In addition, much of the impact can only be perceptions, such as ‘feeling motivated’ or ‘professional’. Again this approach is justified in the interpretative and naturalistic approach.

Much of the data was collected by the schools themselves (see pages 135-141). One argument put forward was that this reduced bias created by the university interviewer and increased the likelihood that negative outcomes could be expressed. There could clearly be alternative arguments. For example, in seeking to gain MA qualifications all parties collude to support the university story of success. This would seem unlikely, however, it emphasises one of the conditions discussed later that the award and beliefs about HE are conditions for participants to report successful impact.
Conclusions about Impact of CPD in Higher Education

We may summarise the key findings of the research as

I. Programmes in HE can have a major impact in a variety of different areas of a teachers' professional lives and on their institution.

II. Impact is obvious and ubiquitous to those involved in and committed to the MA Education course.

III. Impact is less recognised by those at the start of their MA and teaching career.

IV. Perception of impact is largely dependent upon the value (and values) of the award in the eyes of the participant.

V. The level of impact is dependent upon conditions found in the individual, the school, the HE institution and the education system as a whole.

This last point will be explored further below.

It could be argued that these findings are important for a number of reasons. The impact of HE programmes is not well documented and has been underestimated. (See page 4-5). Often the scope of ‘impact’ has been limited to the narrow definition of ‘on practice’ rather more widely cast. (See page 34). The idea of developing impact over a long-term has been under-emphasised in the literature and the findings suggest that one way of promoting critically reflective and analytical professional teachers is through the MA Education award.

The work of Hopkins (1987) deliberately excluded what it saw as university based courses, almost as an irrelevance (see page 40). This has been shown not to be completely fair, in that it is possible to build programmes for academic award that also impact on practice yet have other importance too.
5.2 Question Two: What are the conditions that maximise ‘impact’?

The research has sought to answer the question, What are the conditions that maximise the impact of programmes of CPD in Higher Education? (Page 16). The TTA/Ofsted documentation (TTA 1999) implies a simple formula where teachers needs are met by high quality CPD programmes in HE and these lead to standards being raised. (See page 45)

Fullan (1981 and 1991) and Hopkins (1986) have outlined the conditions and concluded that they are not those likely to be in university programmes. Eason among others, including Brown and Earley (1990) have emphasised school-based and school focused delivery.

Hopkins et al (1994), Brown and Earley (1990) and others have emphasised the managerial aspects of planning, needs identification, programme design and evaluation. (See page 43). Joyce and Showers (1988) emphasise a coaching model.

The results of this enquiry clearly indicate that impact is dependent upon conditions found not only in the HE institution and its programme but also in the school and in the individual participant. The impact of CPD in HE on teachers and their schools depends on a partnership that includes the HEI, the LEA, the school, and above all the learner themselves. (See table 36)

The table shows the main conditions found to contribute to impact. Three main focal points are identified in the characteristics of individuals, of the schools/LEAs and of the HE curriculum and learning activities. The individual is of central importance as they value the learning processes of reflection; they desire to engage in learning; they create time for this to happen and value the experience of working in this way with HE staff.
Of course, the school's mechanisms of planning, supporting and evaluating are key conditions. So too is the culture within the school of reflection, enquiry and openness to new ideas. The research has indicated that much might be done to embed learning from HE programmes in practice but only in partnerships between HE staff and school staff, and particularly senior managers.

The third focal point is the characteristics of the HE institution and its programmes. At one level being accessible geographically is important. Yet, the connection with a tutor who is respected by school staff as having something to offer, something that is relevant and adaptable to individual contexts, is also key. Central to this ‘educative relationship’ is a common focus on practice. However, the programme of learning activities is also a set of key
conditions. Above all the practice discussions between teachers are central to building impact.

*Individual Dimension*

The university based participants revealed a number of conditions that were key factors in the success of the programme for them and its impact upon them, their practice and their institutions (see page 145-235). A common feature was that they wanted an MA in Education, valued what a university based course had to offer and shared a willingness to learn. In some respects this motivation was often slightly less in modules that were delivered in school. Somehow, the former group made time for their study and the latter more often said that they had no time to complete their assignments.

The ability of the participants to identify a professional problem or concern, even if it was merely, ‘How can I get promotion?’, also seemed to be common in the most successful students and absent from those that left the programme with less impact being made (See for instance the St Bede’s case study page 212)

The results also were surprising in revealing how many students were ‘returning to University’ in many cases quiet literally their ‘alma mater’. Yet, closeness to work, or being on the journey home was also a surprisingly prevalent factor in even starting the programme.

This emphasis is not clear from much of the literature, which as both Frost (2000) and Smyth and Dow (1998) have argued has focused largely on ‘managerialism’, ‘instrumentalism’, ‘rational planning’ and ‘technocratic solutions’ (cited on page 2). Only in the work of Huberman and others has this aspect really been explored. (See page 95).

*School-LEA Dimension Conditions Leading to Impact*

This ‘managerialist' agenda focuses conditions for effective CPD on planning based upon needs and priorities, in-school support mechanisms and dissemination strategies.
This has been largely supported by the findings portrayed here. Where schools effectively plan, support and actively promote dissemination of ideas then impact is maximised. This was particularly the Thorpe case study where senior staff were tutors on the module programme.

Yet the case studies in different schools led to different outcomes in terms of amount of learning and dissemination of practice. Yet each identified a need and planned a programme to meet that need.

This suggests that ‘needs’ identification is more complex in that different agents (individuals, schools, LEAs, TTA and HE) may have different ‘need’ agendas.

Needs are as diverse as initial training, the knowledge and skills of students, the backgrounds of children, and the types and cultures of schools. Needs include new areas of knowledge and revisiting, re-evaluating areas of propositional knowledge acquired in initial training. Individual teachers may not have clearly articulated or indeed ‘understood’ what they ‘need’, before adopting roles, before learning has taken place. This was suggested by the differences in the Randall, Belfry, Snowdon and Thorpe case studies.

Even strong in-school support, involving planning, leadership, financial reward and so on as suggested by Hopkins (1987), Brown and Earley (1990), in some cases may not convince individuals to engage in the CPD process.

Senior managers are leading, encouraging, coercing and negotiating new roles and professional development activities. Offers, of training, for example, are made which can barely be refused. Programmes are established to develop skills and knowledge suitable for the next stage of the teacher’s career and to meet school and individual needs.

The culture for study supporting master’s level work was also a major factor enhancing the success of CPD in HE in several of the case studies. Again this was also emphasised in the literature of Hopkins (1994) and Fullan (1981, 1991) but not specifically in relation to University programmes.
System Level Conditions

Beneath the diagram displayed in table 36 there are a number of ‘conditions’ beyond the school, individual and higher education. These might be regarded as ‘system level’ conditions. The case studies and interviews, therefore, suggest a number of conditions at a system level, which contribute to the professional development of teachers. The most important of these are:

- Status, and credibility and external motivation.
- Complexity of needs identification negotiation.
- Recognising the complexity and range of outcomes possible
- Building and maintaining long term partnerships between individuals, schools and higher education institutions.

Teachers are encouraged to seek the status of credible academic award because it is valued by the profession and the agencies that support the education system, including government.

Similarly, there is a range of outcomes of CPD and the balance between these is complex. Changes to practice are one essential outcome but may take some time. Other outcomes include, different perspectives, commitment to the profession, re-analysis of theory and practice, confidence. Structuring for CPD at system level needs to recognise the range, complexity and interrelationships between outcomes.

The case studies illustrate the need for partnerships between schools, LEAs and HE institutions to develop over long time periods. This requires stability of policy and financial security.

The interviews and case studies emphasise the complexity of the conditions that lead to attending a University HE course. Frequently there is a school improvement need, of which the student is well aware. Almost always there is a professional need for knowledge or skills to enhance an aspect of the students’ professional work.

What was surprising were the other factors indicated, such as the need for challenge and particularly the idea that the award of MA could be a necessity for promotion. It
was also surprising how many felt motivated by a desire to gain an award, almost to compensate for a poor experience at school, or because other members of their family had an award.

The major findings concerning the conditions that lead to impact were:
1. Conditions include those within the individual teacher, the school, within the HE institutions and more broadly in the profession of teacher.
2. Suitable conditions are likely to be developed within long-term dynamic relationships between schools and HE institutions.
3. ‘Meeting need’ is a centrally important, yet complex condition, mediated through the perceptions of the individual.
4. Building the conditions to maximise impact is a central issue for evaluation and quality assurance.
5. The major condition is the attitude of the teacher towards using the opportunities provided to engage in critical analysis of theory and practice.

It is clear that the idea that the MA impacts upon the work of the teacher is particularly strongly held with those students at the end of their MA. Teachers who are more senior in the profession also value the award and can identify practical outcomes. The group who attend university-based courses rather than school based ones are the most enthusiastic about the value of HE programmes. These informants also, of course, have the characteristic that they are keener to gain the final award.

This does not detract from the argument pursued here. If we want teachers informed by theory, knowledgeable of research, practitioners of research, and operating critically and analytically at graduate/post graduate level, then we should nurture the view that academic awards are valuable to practitioners. The evidence here suggests that few would be disappointed. However, it is always in the control of the student whether they take the opportunity.

It could be argued that the findings are important because:-
1. There is a tendency in the literature to regard conditions simplistically in terms of need and provider quality.
2. They illustrate the need for long term partnerships between providers and schools to build the conditions for maximising impact.

3. They emphasise the value of the MA award as a key condition for its popularity with those who want an MA.

4. They suggest that one way of promoting critically reflective and analytical professional teachers is through the MA Education award.

5. The findings point towards a more sophisticated evaluation and quality assurance mechanism being required when analysing CPD in HE.

*Conditions in the HE Institution Leading to Impact*

The flexible nature of the programme in the specific HE institution in this study allowed practitioners to focus on their individual and school based needs. The processes of data collection, analysis and reflection promoted the application of theory to practice and the generation of principles from practice. Table 37 notes some processes in HE that led to maximising impact.

Table 38 Processes that maximise impact of CPD in Higher Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem formation</th>
<th>Ownership of Solutions</th>
<th>Success from change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td>Reflection on past experience</td>
<td>Problem resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory inputs</td>
<td>Reflection on practice</td>
<td>Reading and analysing ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articulation of personal voice</td>
<td>Reflection through reading</td>
<td>Resolving the clash of cultures between school, environment and HE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and voices.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application of personal vision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis and articulation of beliefs and values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deliberative choices from knowledge of alternatives.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Matching with ideal self</td>
<td>Assessment against</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3. Question Three: What is the role of HE institutions in school improvement?

The research has shown that there is a role for HE institutions in school improvement and that role focuses upon:

1. Knowledge acquisition,
2. The study of research, and developing practitioner research,
3. Creating time for 'reflection on experience',
4. Gaining credit and awards,
5. Developing criticality,
6. Developing a 'community of practice' across school boundaries,
7. Creating role models for learners in a 'Learning Society',
8. Promoting the 'values of the education sector.

Eraut (1994), called for a new role for higher education saying that,

'The barriers to practice-centred knowledge creation and development …, are most likely to be overcome if higher education is prepared to extend its role from that of creator and transmitter of generalisable knowledge to that of enhancing the knowledge creation capacities of individuals and professional communities. This would involve recognising that much knowledge creation takes place outside the higher-education system, but is nevertheless limited by the absence of appropriate support structures and the prevailing action-orientation of practical contexts.'

The interviews and case studies have focused on the transition stage between initial training and early-mid career CPD and have shown the fine balance that already exits
between ensuring propositional knowledge and developing the academic skills or knowledge creation capacities of practitioners.

For its students, by late career, having acquired the MA in Education, the University would expect knowledge creation capacities to be firmly established. (In line for PhD studies where knowledge creation is an essential criteria)

In 1994 Eraut called for,

‘...higher-education institutions and professional communities need to establish closer relations and to assume joint responsibility for knowledge creation, development and dissemination. The following analysis suggests that some of the most fruitful joint ventures might be:

• Collaborative research projects into the acquisition and development of important areas of professional knowledge and know-how;
• Problem-oriented seminars for groups of researchers and mid-career professionals, including, where relevant, members of other professions;
• A jointly planned programme of continuing education opportunities for mid-career professionals which assists them to reflect on their experience, make it more explicit, through having to share it, interpret it and recognise it as a basis for future learning; and to escape from their experience in the sense of challenging traditional assumptions and acquiring new perspectives. The programme would also provide follow-up support with subsequent "on-the-job" activities. (Eraut 1994:57)

The data suggests here that at least some of these notions are taking place. Eraut also calls for an emphasis upon:

‘a clear articulated approach to professional learning and development, linked to a system of initial and advanced further qualifications.’ (Eraut 1994:121)

The case studies show much of this can and does happen. This is particularly where there is a focus on acquiring and critiquing knowledge and processes including reading, thinking, analysing, and deliberation. The HE qualifications
exist as post-graduate certificates, diplomas, and master’s awards and these have credibility among many, if not all practitioners. What has also shown is the need for partners to work together to maximise the learning outcomes and impact.
Chapter Six
Conclusion

This work has sought to provide insights into three central questions, which are:

1. What is the impact of continuing professional development (CPD) in higher education (HE) on teachers and their institutions?

2. What conditions maximise the impact of such programmes?

3. What, therefore, is the role of higher education in school improvement and the continuing professional development of teachers?

In pursuing this, the work has been based upon the notion of continuous school improvement to raise achievement of pupils and to build capacity for continuous change. (See page 3). These ideas have been promoted in the work of Hopkins (1994), Fullan (1981,1991) and others.

6.1 The Impact of CPD in HE on Teachers and Their Institutions.

Recent research and literature has been ambiguous about the impact of CPD in higher education. The TTA/MORI research of 1995 created an atmosphere of suspicion that raised doubts about the cost effectiveness of funding for CPD in higher education. (See page 22). While there is a general lack of evidence of impact of any form of CPD, according to the OECD (1999) few studies have specifically looked at HE programmes.

Evidence derived from Askew et al (1997) and Medwell et al (1998) proves inconclusive since their work did not specifically isolate programmes in HE. However, both works pointed to the effectiveness of long term, in depth professional development (see page 30). However, the study of SEN Training provided by HE (TTA 1997) was exceptional in its enthusiastic account of the extent of impact. (See page 25). The debate in the USA, has influenced UK policy and discourse, and increased suspicion of a lack of impact of HE programmes. (See page 33)
One problem has been shown to be found in defining 'impact'. A narrow definition on 'standards', competence or gains in quality of pupil learning has been shown to be both difficult to measure or insufficient in scope. Improvement of practice is but one measure. Impact can be on values, motivation of teachers and on institutions, argue Kinder et al (1991).

This is all quite apart from those notions of capacity building, displayed by the school improvement movement and led by Hopkins et al (1994), Joyce et al (1997), and Fullan (1991). These writers seek to find leaders distributed across schools. They seek to develop enquiry and reflection, to increase professional dialogue through collaborative improvement groups. They believe in 'staff development' as a door to school improvement. They write books about improvement based upon research and theories of effective teaching and learning, school leadership and management. Yet there is so little acknowledgement of programmes in HE, indeed some explicit dismissal (as in Hopkins 1986 on page 39).

Professional development ought to be based on notions of professionalism that support school improvement, in terms of building capacity' for continuous development. This ought to include developing the skills of research, analysis, enquiry and 'being critical' as these contribute to knowledge development and professional discourse. However, it was shown that in some writing this is not apparent. (See section 2.3)

As a consequence of this background the question was posed, What is the impact of CPD in Higher Education? Chapter 3 justified a case study of one institution and listening to the voices of teachers and their account of the impact on their work. A number of in depth interview accounts were presented from a range of different contexts including those teachers on University based modules and those on modules organised within schools or with the LEA. A range of teachers took part as informants including those at the end of the MA and those at the beginning, experienced staff and those in the early part of their career.
The results of empirical work were reported, in rich detail, in chapter 4 and discussed in chapter 5. The key finding, in contrast with the statement made by Myers 1999, reported on page 20 is that 'We do do impact!'

There is ample and abundant evidence from practitioners that the programmes they undertook at APU have impacted on them and their work. This fully supports the Ofsted conclusions with respect to the SEN survey and is in total contrast to the views of Woodhead (1998) and Fullan (1991).

Furthermore, the research has supported the notion that there are many forms of impact. This was the view put forward by Kinder et al 1991, and Steadman et al 1992 and is in contrast with the narrow definition of TTA/Ofsted evaluation (see page 33)

However, Kinder et al's typology has been further analysed and reconstructed in detail reclassifying impact on classroom practice, professional, personal, and on institutions. A further notion of the capacity for improvement of the whole system has been exposed as a potential outcome of CPD in HE. By this is meant the capacity of teachers as a group to engage in research, informed critical dialogue, and evidence based practice. In a sense this is about the quality of professional discourse and knowledge development capacity, a term not used extensively in recent school improvement literature.

The findings also lead to a re-emphasis of the importance to teachers of personal and affective outcomes of CPD. In particular, motivation, self-regard/esteem, feeling 'professional' and notions of 'authority', and 'expertise' seem particularly significant to the informants and pertinent at a time of low teacher morale and shortage. The findings lead to a reanalysis of the importance of the individual (p49) within the contexts of institutions, and particularly their needs, attitudes and identity (following Wenger 1994)
Table 32 The Impact of Programmes of CPD in HE

An adaptation of Kinder, Harland and Wootten (1991) typology of INSET outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinder et al category (1991)</th>
<th>Institutional Outcomes</th>
<th>Classroom Outcomes</th>
<th>Professional Outcomes</th>
<th>Personal Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material and provisionary outcomes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information outcomes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New awareness</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value congruence outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational and attitudinal outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional outcomes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on practice.</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Kinder et al 1991:58)

6.2 The Conditions under which impact is maximised.

On page 33, what might be considered to be model one of the conditions that lead to impact was outlined, derived from TTA documentation, which appeared to suggest the formula:

\[ TN + II = SR \]

Where, Teacher Needs (TN), plus In-service Input (II) results in standards raised (SR)

This work has sought to show that the world is a little more complex. Rather, conditions found in the institution, in the individual and in the nature of the programme (the In service Input) interact. They can, and often do, lead to change in practice, both in the work of the individual and their work with colleagues. This then
leads to pupil learning and achievement. It is not simply need, and not even needs negotiated between school and individuals from a national list of priorities. Rather, it is commitment to the HE programme and its values or even simply to the tutor that appears to be the most significant condition. (See Table 33)

If all the conditions correspond, it would seem, those teachers and their institutions find time for professional development and learning. They overcome what might be considered to be the most difficult barrier of 'lack of time' for reflection, research, and enquiry. Furthermore, transfer to practice in the work of the individual and groups of teachers is able to occur. The data suggests, however, that this last stage of 'institutionalisation' (following Fullan 1991) is much more in the hands of schools than the deliverers of university based programmes. Hence, the model is one of partnership between schools and higher education rather than purchaser and provider. The message is fairly clear that enduring working partnerships between schools and HE can maximise 'impact'.

Table 33 Model 2
However, such a partnership would appear to be based upon a mutual respect for what each partner offers. Ideas, research, skills and academic award from one partner, management, support planning and implementation strategies from the other. None of this ignores the contribution that the lone individual University programme attendee makes during their career or the effect that such programmes has on them.

The research has placed an additional emphasis upon the importance of 'system level conditions', and particularly, the status of HE programmes, the value of the award to practitioners, the values held by the institutions. Where teachers value what HE has to offer in terms of ideas and academic award, impact is maximised. Conversely one might conjecture, raising doubts about the contribution, it would appear, undermines impact. These matters are frequently beyond the conditions found in individual schools, as would seem to be the case argued by school improvers such as Hopkins (1994), although not Fullan (1991) who at least discusses 'district level' conditions (p.191) government and professional development, although without explicit recognition of universities as contributors to the system much beyond pre-service (p291) and career induction (p301)

Much of this contrasts with the school improvement literature. Fullan concluded that university programmes were unlikely to deliver (Fullan in Hopkins 1986). None of the school improvement authors (or anyone else) has really dealt with the role of HE in professional development or school improvement.

Rather, the focus of much writing has been on effective management of CPD. (e.g. Brown and Earley (1990), Kinder et al (1993) and Oldroyd and Hall (1987,1991). This research contrasts and conflicts with a purely instrumentalist/ managerialist approaches and has shown that the planning, targeting and evaluation model is a simplistic portrayal of real events. Rather, it shows that even where these are in place they do not alone determine outcomes. They are needed processes but they are not sufficient. Negotiation between managers, individuals, and providers continues to explore needs, programmes, and impact. The success of that negotiation is dependent upon human characteristics of relationships, values and attitudes.
Much has been made of the characteristics of effective staff development exposed by Joyce and Showers (1988), and developed further by Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1997). (See page 41). This account has sought to balance the emphasis upon their behaviourist training model that maximises ‘impact’ in terms of narrow definitions and minimises criticality, creating knowledge by teachers, and notions of continuous change. This is not to deny the importance of Joyce and Showers work in delivering specific outcomes. However, it does highlight that there are other important professional behaviours associated both with HE work, and with the notion of continuous improvement and lifelong learning. This is recognised by practitioners.

The simplistic notion and emphasis upon school based and focused staff development has been exposed as but one model. (See page 39-45) Again it has shown to be on occasions a very powerful one, to achieve specific institutional goals and to manage the process systematically. However, this research has shown impact can be achieved when none of these conditions prevail, largely through the efforts of individuals. Conversely, where they do exist impact is not guaranteed. The research also points to long-term partnerships marrying the conditions found in school based work with the best of HE processes.

Not least and following this, the research has identified the characteristics of effective CPD in HE (p45, 54) Consistently the data has dwelled upon the power of ‘teachers talking to each other’ as a powerful and inspiring mechanism for professional learning and growth. This underlines the ‘community of practice’ notion of Wenger 1998 and Lave and Wenger (1992). However, the discussion is ‘facilitated and structured by an ‘HE agenda’, and informed by theoretical constructs, research and literature. These discussions are places where propositional knowledge and experiential knowledge are reviewed and reflected upon to find meaning in the context of practitioners working lives.

The research has shown that processes of professional learning associated with HE programmes are relevant to the community of practitioners. The relevance of reading research/literature to reflection and informed debate has been shown. Similarly, the relevance of conducting research has been shown as a powerful professional development activity. The learning from experience model of Kolb (1984 cited by
Thorpe 1993. See page 84), developed on page 85 by Cockman et al (1994), where experience is analysed through theoretical models has been shown to be an effective tool of reflection and learning. However, HE also adds some development of ‘theory’ in the light of practical experience, and this dynamic is not offered in the original model. Table 34 outlines an adaptation to the model proposed by Brown and Earley on page 43.

Table 34 Adaptations to Brown and Earley

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From (Brown and Earley p43)</th>
<th>To (Brown and Earley p43)</th>
<th>Adaptations to Brown and Earley by the author (Post Research)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tutor directed learning-</td>
<td>support for self directed learning</td>
<td>Frameworks for learning through research and reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off site-</td>
<td>in school/near school</td>
<td>Negotiated and appropriate venues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predetermined times</td>
<td>Flexible study times</td>
<td>Negotiated times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral presentation-</td>
<td>Distance learning, information packs and projects</td>
<td>Repertoire and blend of approaches. Focus on critical reflection, practitioner research and professional dialogue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined syllabus</td>
<td>School determined agenda</td>
<td>Negotiated Syllabus/Programme within framework of standards and expectations (level)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge acquisition</td>
<td>Performance enhancement</td>
<td>Knowledge development for individuals and institutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3. The Role of HE in School Improvement.

The third question is of this work is focused upon the role of HE in school improvement and the professional development of teachers. The introduction and context established notions of ‘staff development’, professional development and ‘the learning organisation’ as key to the notion of ‘school improvement’ as a continuous process of reconstructing knowledge and practice to improve pupil learning (see page3). A central feature is the notion of ‘building capacity for change’.

276
Yet, by contrast, the role of HE in this project has been at best unclear, and from some authors less than that. The seminal work of Hopkins (1988) reviewing the views of Bolam, Fullan and Joyce and Showers is dismissive of university based programmes. Woodhead (1999), who cannot be dismissed as an unimportant opinion leader states categorically that teachers do not need to ‘soak up the wisdom of the professor for professional development’ (page 14 and 53)

This is very surprising, since the notions of school improvement fit closely with the notions of an extended professional (following Hoyle and Stenhouse cited on page 78). Ideas about empowerment, reflective practice (following Schon 1983,1987, Eraut 1994), and the research and evidence based practitioner (called for by Hargreaves, Elliott 1993) are also fundamental to this notion (See table 35).

Table 35 School Improvement and the Goals of HE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concepts</th>
<th>School Improvement</th>
<th>Goals of HE using a ‘School Improvement’ notion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>Development of ‘capacity’</td>
<td>Knowledge and Understanding of Research and theory as capacity building.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditions</td>
<td>Building school internal conditions</td>
<td>Building internal and external conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Leadership of improvement distributed among whole staff. Implicit ‘top down’ legitimisation to enable it to happen.</td>
<td>Distributed leadership through knowledge, critical discourse, across whole profession. Leadership through challenge to authority, with or without legitimisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enquiry</td>
<td>Enquiry and reflection as practical activities that need little support and can be undertaken internally.</td>
<td>Enquiry: critical analysis, the task of raising the ‘Level’ of debate, Theory into Practice, Critical action. Regeneration of ‘knowledge’. Creation of new perspectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Development</td>
<td>Staff Development as ‘training’ (e.g. Joyce and Showers) or ‘collaborative enquiry’ (IQEA) Importance of coaching, observation and feedback. Priority to school needs and emphasis on ‘practical’</td>
<td>CPD as knowledge, enquiry, analysis, research, debate Priority to individual needs, emphasis on personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Planning for change (including elements of rational-managerialism planning model)</td>
<td>Planning as negotiation between individuals and groups. Planning by schools and HE a goal to achieve in the real world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Involvement of Teacher groups and stakeholders: ‘Whole School’, Parents and Pupils Anti ‘ Hero innovator’</td>
<td>Collaboration where it exists. Groups where they exist as groups Individuals as leaders of collaboration Value of the ‘Hero Innovator’ as ‘Missionary’ if there is nothing else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre and Focus of</td>
<td>Largely school centred and always school focused</td>
<td>System and School, Importance of teacher cultural context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centrality of Teaching and Learning</th>
<th>'Teaching and learning focus' often decided as a whole school priority.</th>
<th>Individual teaching and learning based foci e.g. SEN, Subject based, management based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ownership and Empowerment</td>
<td>Ownership of change through involvement and self generation</td>
<td>Ownership through empowerment through award, expertise, knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Teacher professionalism as contributor to school group improvement projects</td>
<td>Teacher professionalism through alma mater, ideas, criticality, research evidence, debate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Support</td>
<td>Some mention of external support</td>
<td>Partnership as a system condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Little or no mention of HE Involvement.</td>
<td>Explicit teacher accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasional negative reference to HE based programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No mention of academic awards or teacher accreditation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of School Improvement</td>
<td>Presented as a worked out theory in various newly developed forms.</td>
<td>School improvement as a developing theory to be debated and discussed, experimented with in different forms, with HE and school partners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perhaps, the school improvement movement has been too influenced, in the UK at any rate, by the competence and standards obsession of the UK government and TTA. Page 61 showed how the interpretation in the UK centred upon reductivist lists of behaviours of individuals. This was shown to be in contrast with some interpretations elsewhere, such as Queensland, Australia, where the notion of reflection, development, enquiry and collaboration are developed further. (See page 65). The USA example adds weight to the argument that the notion of what constitutes a competent professional is itself contestable (see page 60)

In reviewing the notion of 'the teacher as professional', it was shown that key components are alleged to be authority, autonomy, professional judgement, access to and use of a body of knowledge (p78), a basis in research and evidence (p79), and dialogue with professional peers to create meaning and knowledge.

Stenhouse (1975), Elliott (1993, 1994) and Barnett (1990, 1997, 2000) emphasise the need for criticality, not purely as an academic exercise but as an essentially practical one (see page 91). Critical action (based upon moral values of democracy and emancipation) is, and ought to be, aimed at improvement in social conditions. Barnett argues that the university has a clear role in this project. However, as has been shown, the school improvement notion in education shows no clear link to such radical intervention. Rather, Hopkins et al 1994 and Joyce et al (1997) (see page 100) seem to
focus on more limited adoption of improvement ideas, rather than critical interpretation and development of them. Only Frost et al 2000 seems to even touch upon this more extensive view of professional development and role for HE in school improvement.

The empirical work in this study has shown a number of perspectives of teachers and managers. Many do believe that there is a role for HE that is appropriate to individuals and for institutions in partnership. This role goes beyond mere ‘accreditation’ but into the role as facilitator of knowledge acquisition and knowledge development.

The practitioners have emphasised the importance of the role of HE in Research. This role includes access to research, training in research skills, and providing vehicles, indeed causing practitioner research to happen.

There is a central role for HE in creating and supporting professional dialogue and reflection. There is a key role for creating opportunities for professionals to come together and engage in professional dialogue. This goes beyond the mere networks suggested by Goddard and Leask (1992) to form communities of practice (Wenger 1998). HE provides an opportunity, time and space for reflection on action (Eraut 1994)(See page 84). The extent of practitioner support for this role is surprising, and perhaps due to their understanding of the rate of change in the knowledge base of educational practice and a desire to keep up. Certainly Barnett's notion of ‘the age of supercomplexity’ supports this view (2000).

However, the research also indicates that communities of practice can, and indeed ought to, include practitioners in schools and in other agencies to enable deep reflection on theory and practice. Indeed the role of HE is to link theory with practice. In doing this, and going beyond the writings of the school improvers there are the issues of ‘level’ and ‘standards’ of reflection, enquiry, evaluation and research. That is that, many works on evaluation neglect to mention the ‘level’ of analysis. (See for instance Oldroyd and Hall 1987). Hopkins (1985) argues that all teachers have the skills for conducting research. This may have been true of many trained in an era where propositional knowledge formed the basis of initial training (see Elliott 1993 and page 89). However, analysis that enables re-conceptualisation and knowledge
creation requires educational experiences beyond initial training. These are the criteria for master’s level work. (See page 8)

The role of HE has been shown to re-emphasise conceptual development and propositional knowledge rather than a narrower skills and technicist agenda. This supports the argument put forward by Barnett as ‘beyond competence’ (1990, 1997) The role is central to school improvement and capacity building. HE contributes to ‘distributed leadership’, and the development of the ‘extended professional’ (Hoyle and Stenhouse) meaning one who has knowledge, expertise, and engages in critical argument and critical action.

Table 3 on page 13 identified a large gap in the relationship between school improvement and the role of HE. School improvement was defined as ‘building the internal conditions within schools with the aim of enabling them to take on external pressures to raise the achievement of all pupils.’ Table 30 seeks to plug that gap with the findings of this work. This work has shown that HE partners can and do contribute significantly to the school improvement agenda, through linking theory and practice, propositional knowledge and experiential knowledge, advancing engagement with research, and developing criticality. In doing this HE not only supports capacity building both internally within schools but also in the system of education as a whole.
### References

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saxton, J.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnett, R.</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Realizing the University in an Age of Supercomplexity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bassey, M. Bell J. Bush T Fox A Goodey J Goulding S Bell, J.</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Conducting Small Scale Investigations in Educational Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bennett N</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Managing Professional Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernstein, B</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>Education Cannot Compensate for Society in New Society 387, 344-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolam, R</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>What is effective Inset? Paper addressed to the Annual Membership Conference of the NFER.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolam, R.</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Presidential Address to the In-service and Professional Development Association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Booth, W.C., Colomb, G.G. and Williams, J.M.</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>The Craft of Research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

281
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title and Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bradley, H., Conner, C., Southworth, G., Bronowski, J.</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Developing Teachers Developing Schools: Making Inset Effective for the School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown, S., Earley P</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Enabling Teachers to Undertake In-service Education and Training: A Report for the DES.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buchmann, M., Floden, R.E.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Detachment and Concern Conversations in the Philosophy of Teaching and Teacher Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, R</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Issues in Educational Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, R (ed)</td>
<td>1985a</td>
<td>Issues in Educational Research,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, R (ed)</td>
<td>1985b</td>
<td>Strategies of Educational Research,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chown, A</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Beyond Competence in British Journal of In-service Education 20(2), 161-180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chown, A. Last A</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Concerning Competence. NATFHE Journal Spring 1993 pp10-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creemers, B.P.M</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>The Effective Classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cullingford, C.</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>The Effective Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DES</td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Half Our Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFES</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>The CPD Strategy Documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Education, 5 (4) 31-34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easen, P</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Making School Centred Inset Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliot, J</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Quality Assurance, the Educational Standards Debate and the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliot J</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Reconstructing Teacher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Elliott J 1993 Reconstructing Teacher Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliott, J., Sarland, C</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>A study of 'Teachers as Researchers' in the Context of Award-Bearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Courses and Research Degree. British Educational Research Journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vol 21, No 3 June 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head, M., Holden, G.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullan, M.</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>The New Meaning of Educational Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beardsworth, R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halsall, R.</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Teacher Research and School Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hammersley, M. (Ed)</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Case Studies in Classroom Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullan, M.G.,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

284
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Publisher/Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hopkins, D.</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>School Improvement in and Era of Change</td>
<td>London, Cassell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ainscow, M. West, M</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>In-service Training and Educational Development</td>
<td>London, Croom Helm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hopkins, D.</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Evaluation for School Improvement</td>
<td>Milton Keynes OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investors in People</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Incomes Data Services Study, 5 30 May</td>
<td>London IIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyce, B. Showers, B.</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Student Achievement through Staff Development</td>
<td>New York, Longman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyce, B, Calhoun, E,</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Models of Learning: Tools for Teaching</td>
<td>Buckingham OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hopkins, D.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyce, B, Calhoun, E,</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>The New Structure of School Improvement</td>
<td>Buckingham OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hopkins, D.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinder, K, Harland J,</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>The Impact of School Focused INSET on Classroom Practice</td>
<td>Slough. NFER.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wootten M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knott, R</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Staying Ahead: In-service Training and Teacher Professional Development.</td>
<td>OECD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawton, D.</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>Social Class, Language and Education</td>
<td>London RKP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leach, J, Moon, B.</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Learners and Pedagogy</td>
<td>London PCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lomax P, (Ed)</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Managing Staff Development in Schools: An Action Research Approach</td>
<td>Clevedon, Multilingual Matters,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Louise, K. S. Miles, M.B. Mac An Ghaill McCormick, R. and James, M. McCullogh Helsby Knight MCI

1990 Improving the Urban High School. What Works and Why


1983 Curriculum Evaluation in Schools

2000

1991 The Management Charter Initiative

Mckernon J

1991 Curriculum Action Research

McNiff J

1985 Action Research

McNiff, J.

1988 Action Research: Principles and Practice

Medwell J, Wray D, Poulton, P, Fox, R

May 1998 Effective Teachers of Literacy: Report of a Study for the TTA 1995-96

Melton, R.F.

1994 Competences in Perspective

Mortimore, P. Sammons, P, Stoll, L, Lewis, D and Ecob, R.

2001 The Effective Teacher

Muijs D Reynolds D

Murphy, R. and Torrance, H. (eds)

1987 Evaluating Education: issues and methods,

Musgrave P.W.

1965 The Sociology of Education

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future NBTS

1997 Doing What matters Most: Investing in Quality Teaching

1999 www.nbts.org

NCSL

2001 Leadership Development Framework

NCSL

2002 The Leadership Development Framework

Newsam report

1964 Half Our Future

Nodie,S. Smulyan,L

1989 Collaborative Action Research

OFSTED

1995/ Annual Report

London. Cassell

Carfax Publishing

Abingdon London,

Croom Helm

Mimeo

London Kogan Page

Basingstoke Macmillan

London, Macmillan.

London TTA

Educational research Vol 36 No 3 Winter 1994

Open Books, London,

London.PCP

Milton Keynes, Open University Press

London. UP

New York WWW

www

Nottingham. NCSL

Nottingham NCSL

London, HMSO.

Lewes Falmer Press

London, HMSO
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Publisher/Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plowden Report</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Children and Their Primary Schools</td>
<td>London, Cassell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punch, K.</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Introduction to Social Research</td>
<td>London, Cassell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reynolds, D. Cuttance, P.</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>School Effectiveness</td>
<td>London Cassell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbins, B.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Secular Vocations</td>
<td>London. Verso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robson, C.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Real World Research, a resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers,</td>
<td>Lewes. The Falmer Press London PCP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schon, D</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Towards a new Design for Teaching and Learning in the Professions</td>
<td>Lewes. Falmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slobada, J</td>
<td></td>
<td>What is Skill and How is it Acquired? in Gellatly, A (Ed) The Skilful Mind.</td>
<td>Milton Keynes OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Series/Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stenhouse L</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stronach, I. and Maclure, M.</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Educational Research Undone: The Post-modern Embrace,</td>
<td>Buckingham, Open University, MORI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training Agency</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Survey of Continuing Professional Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training Agency</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Survey of Special Educational Needs training provided by Higher Education</td>
<td>TTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training Agency</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Inspection of CPD Documentation and Notepad</td>
<td>Mimeo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training Agency</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Proposal Paper for Future Use of TTA Inset Funding</td>
<td>TTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Publisher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wenger E</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity</td>
<td>Cambridge University Press</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westerby</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Culture and Power in Educational Organisations</td>
<td>Buckingham OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitaker, P.</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Managing Change in Schools</td>
<td>Buckingham OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitty, G, Power, S, Halpin, D.</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Devolution and Choice in Education. The School, the State and the Market</td>
<td>Buckingham OUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willmott, R</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>The 'Mini-Renaissance' in Marxist Educational Sociology: a critique in BJSE Vol.22 No2 2001</td>
<td>Carfax Publishing Abingdon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wolf, A</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Competency Based Education and Training</td>
<td>Lewes Falmer Press</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix One
The Impact of Award Bearing Programmes in Higher Education

Contextual Data

Name ..............................................................................................................................................
(For Recording Purposes Only)
Position ...........................................................................................................................................

School..............................................................................................................................................

Years in Teaching:.............................

BA / MA or Associate Student:...........................................................................................................

Amount of Academic Credit:......................

(Please circle)

Interviewer

Permission and Release of Data

I give my permission for interview data to be used for the purposes of the research project at APU and the thesis of Ian Terrell. I understand that all publications will be made anonymous.

I give permission for any assignments practical work and exemplar materials to be used as part of the research.

Signed ................................................................. Date ........................................

Please Print Name ..............................................................
Appendix Two
Interview Schedule

Antecedents and background.

Why did you want to do the BA/MA programme?
Why did you want to do the module?
What factors encouraged you to undertake the BA/MA programme?
How important is it for you to gain the BA/MA award? (Please say why)
What other professional development activities have you undertaken in the last three years?
How has/will the school support(ed) your learning on the programme?
How has/will the school support(ed) putting your learning into practice?
Are there other sources of support?

Outcomes and Impact.

What has been the value of the module/programme to you and your school?
What has been the impact of the module(s) on
   Your practice as a teacher/manager in education?
   Your thinking about your practice?
   Your beliefs and values about your practice?
What changes have happened as a result of the module?
How far do you think that you have changed as a result of the module?
(Please give examples)
What is the value of undertaking the BA/MA programme?
How far did you expect these outcomes?
How have you and the school benefited from undertaking the BA/MA programme?
What knowledge have you acquired and how have you used it?
What evidence have you collected that shows that the programme has impacted upon pupil learning?
Processes of Professional Development.

What has contributed most to the impact of the module?

What learning activities have been most useful?

What has been the most useful contribution made by the tutors of the modules?

What processes of professional development used on the programme had most impact on you?

How was the BA/MA programme different to other professional development that you have undertaken?

In terms of your professional development, what was the contribution of:
  - The reading?
  - The taught/workshops/presentations?
  - The assignment?
  - The literature review?
  - The research/enquiry?
  - The tutorials?

Conditions that Support Accredited Programmes

What support from the school has been important?

The Role of Higher Education in the Professional Development of Teachers?

Please describe your image of a professionally developed teacher.

What is the ‘value added’ by the programme of professional development being delivered by a higher education institution?

What do accredited higher education programmes achieve that other professional development programmes do not?

What contribution does Higher Education play in the professional development of qualified teachers?

How far do teachers need generic learning outcomes of the BA/MA award?

Additional Information

Would you like to add any additional information?
## Appendix 3

### Word Lengths

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Word Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>1688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>5155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>24848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4</td>
<td>12476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Case Studies from Schools</td>
<td>19392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Analysis and Discussion</td>
<td>5743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Conclusions</td>
<td>3485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliography and Appendices</td>
<td>3069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total word length</strong></td>
<td><strong>75856</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 4

### Record of Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tape</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Interviewer</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Kate Green</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT. Student</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Browns</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT. Student</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Shire</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Cammer</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tape</td>
<td>Meek Park</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Denis</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Claires</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td></td>
<td>g</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Howloe</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Frombridge</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>East Junior</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Pine</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Roach</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>HT. Student</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Turn</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Tolles</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>KC</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Wyle</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Wyle</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Royal</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tape</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tape</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>LEA/Tutor</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notes</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>HT</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>Stake/Tutor or Stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notes</td>
<td>St Bedes</td>
<td>DH-Tutor</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>A and D</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Ma/Ja</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Tutor</td>
<td>Mi</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Tutor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>Dy</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>MF</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NT Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NT Thorpe</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>LB/DH</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Belfry</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Wick</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Wick</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

294
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taped</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Initials</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Snowdon</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Snowdon</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Snowdon</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Snowdon</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Randall</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Paul's Wear</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>St Paul's Wear</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Butlers</td>
<td>Wear project</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>IT</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Manor</td>
<td>Primary Teacher</td>
<td>JK</td>
<td></td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Manor</td>
<td>Primary Teacher</td>
<td>ER</td>
<td></td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Manor</td>
<td>Primary Teacher</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td></td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taped</td>
<td>Manor</td>
<td>Primary Teacher</td>
<td>VD</td>
<td></td>
<td>MW</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>